Usage guidelines

University Teachers as Guides and Master's Students as Aspirant Researchers: An Exploratory Case Study of Teaching Research Methods

JAMES KEVIN GALAGHER

A doctoral report and portfolio submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the University of Sunderland for the degree of Professional Doctorate

May 2019

Declaration

I declare that this thesis was composed by myself, that the work contained herein is my own except where explicitly stated otherwise in the text, and that this work has not been submitted for any other degree or professional qualification.

Kevin Gallagher
May 2019

Acknowledgments

Abstract

Many students find the process of doing their dissertations to be highly problematical (Ahern and Manathunga, 2004; Cassell, 2013; Wagener, 2018). They are confronted with learning various overarching research philosophies and a plethora of new techniques and information concerning how they should go about the research process. Crucially, they are expected to be largely autonomous in their choice of research topic and their subsequent work, albeit they will usually have some time allocation with research supervisors. Dissertations thus present a major shift in increased students' autonomy, signifying them becoming much more pro-active learners crossing new 'thresholds' and encountering 'troublesome knowledge' (Meyer and Land, 2005). Thus, it is hardly surprising that many students find the whole dissertation process daunting in both cognitive and affective terms. Research supervisors face the realities of individual stressed students in the limited time they spend with them; yet the scale of the problem cries out for a more strategic way of tackling the situation from the beginning within the classroom, with groups of students. Therefore, the aims of this thesis are to address both the cognitive and affective difficulties of students as they become aspirant researchers through their dissertation journeys, and how this may be achieved through supportive teacher - student relationships on a journey of joint becoming, in which they are aspirant researchers and their teacher is their guide. It does this through a research intervention conducted by the researcher/ teacher with a group of his Master's business students. Taking an exploratory, qualitative research approach it focuses upon two complementary aspects: the first relates to how students might benefit cognitively through teaching activities that bring meaning to research methods through the use of guided activities . These utilise personal experience and biographical data in class. The other, and arguably more important way (given the emotional demands placed upon them) aims to build a supportive teacher-student relationship which pro-actively elicits and explores students' concerns in the course of their dissertation journeys. Led by the researcher/ teacher, intent upon becoming a better guide himself, the emphasis is upon the broader understanding for students of how to be and become aspirant researchers; this understanding according to Heidegger (1962) is not essentially a cognitive act but something which develops through being with others whilst engaging in the relevant actions and in contemplating possible things that can happen. The results during the intervention show how students' use of metaphorical imagery and critical incidents elicited and articulated a richness of inner thoughts and feelings; this allowed for deeper understanding of the research methods being taught through the guided activities, and a therapeutic discussion of thoughts and emotions with others (Fook and Gardner, 2007). Further, by engaging in all aspects of the intervention, the author/ researcher re-examined his own teaching practices and values, increasing his awareness of the symbiotic nature between teacher as guide and students as aspirant researchers. Finally, the implications of this research are discussed in the light of the need for further research into how research methods are taught in higher education (Lewthwaite and Nind, 2016), the importance of understanding emotions in higher education (Quinlan, 2016), and the consequences for teacher training at this level.

Key Words:

Dissertation, becoming, students, teacher, guide, aspirant researcher, relationship, threshold, journey, cognitive, affective, emotions, metaphorical imagery, critical incidents, higher education

CONTENTS

Chapter 1:

Research Introduction

1 RESEARCH INTRODUCTION

Research Thesis and Professional Portfolio

There are two related elements in this Professional Doctorate submission: the Research Thesis and the Professional Portfolio. Both elements are contained within this document. The Research Thesis is presented first of all. The Professional Portfolio (begins p.317) supports it and may be read in parallel; it gives a detailed account of the researcher's other achievements (e.g. successful HE skills textbooks on p.331) culminating in the Research Thesis, and how he has been shaped in his role as a researcher.

A full list of references relevant to both elements is provided at the end of the Research Thesis (see p.279, onwards).

Note: For ease of reference the term used in this thesis for its conceptual framework, i.e. 'University Teacher as Guide and Master's Students as Aspirant Researchers' may, on occasion, be shown more succinctly in this report as 'The Guide Process'.

1.1 RATIONALE FOR THE RESEARCH

1.1.1 Need for the Research

Many Master's students' first-time experience of engaging with research projects is fraught with difficulty (Ahern and Manathunga, 2004). Indeed, it may be regarded as akin to 'Hitting a brick wall…and getting through it' (Bryman and Bell, 2011, p.93). At demanding times such as these, what students need is reassuring guidance from their teachers in a supportive learning environment that accommodates their cognitive and affective needs. To use the metaphor of this thesis, many students feel that they have a mountain to climb – a series of imposing obstacles; this requires route-finding, skills to overcome difficulties, and a skilful, caring guide who can advise and give moral support throughout their ascent. For many, the dissertation teachers often attempt to give such guidance, often basing their approach upon their own experiences. And yet there has been surprisingly little research on the actual pedagogy of teaching research methods (Shulman, 1986; Vos, 2013; Earley, 2014). According to Nind, Kilburn and Wiles (2015, p.562) 'better understanding of the pedagogical demands of teaching research methods is needed'. The challenge of managing students'

emotions, as well as those of their teacher , throughout their dissertation journeys is particularly worthy of attention, given that the role of emotion has not been widely researched in Higher Education (Zhang and Zhu, 2008; Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne, 2011; Trigwell, 2012; Quinlan, 2016) or in the emotional lives of teachers in higher education (Trigwell, 2012; Taylor, 2017).

If research methods were not so central and important to the concepts of critical thinking at higher educational level (Moon, 2005) then perhaps the status quo of teachers recalling how they were taught research methods as students (Cassell, 2013, p.4), and referring their current students to the standard textbooks, might be sufficient. But the fact is that Education, Government and Industry (QAA, 2015; Drennan and Clarke, 2009; CIPD, 2014 -see Appendix 7.2, p.307) regard critical thinking as essential. They want employees who can ask the 'right questions' and collect information to inform, illuminate and provide insight into the most pressing problems of the day. Top graduates are characterised in these academic and professional worlds, not by their ability to regurgitate some formulaic set of procedures and apply them to some mundane, vague study. Rather, they should be encouraged to grow in their critical thinking stature through their study and to use their knowledge and skills with confidence (Bandura, 1997) in their future work and study.

This research seeks to address the challenges outlined above, and in particular aims to satisfy the recommendations of Lewthwaite and Nind (2016, p.247) who advocate 'connecting learners to research, giving direct and immersive experience of research practice and promoting reflexivity'. Moreover, it does so in such a way that it recognises the vital role that teachers can play through caring, empathetic *relationships* with their students; as Wenger (1998, p.4) states: 'We are social beings. Far from being trivially true, this aspect is a central aspect of learning'.

1.1.2 Mapping of Rationale of the Research against Personal Motivation for the Study

This research has emerged as a natural progression of my interest in and experience of guiding business students in their academic, personal and professional skills development over 27 years as a lecturer and my passion for writing textbooks. My first textbook for the Open Learning Foundation (Gallagher et al., 1997) marks the beginning of my quest to write engaging teaching and learning materials for both teachers and students in higher education. Since then I have wrote a number of successful textbooks: at postgraduate level I have

written for the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (Watson and Gallagher, 2005; Gallagher, 2010, 2014); and at undergraduate level I have written for Oxford University Press (Gallagher, 2010, 2013, 2016). For details of my textbooks, including academic endorsements, OUP website screenshot and Amazon best seller rankings, see **Professional Portfolio** Appendices 9.4 – 9.6 on **pages 350.**

Students' Learning Experiences

What I have always attempted to do in my textbooks is to approximate the reality of a learning situation, so as to 'bring it to life' for the reader; this may be through real-life case studies, or activities which require the reader to do something themselves and then to reflect upon it in a critical way (Moon, 2005). Developing the online resource centre of my OUP skills books I recorded several video interviews with student volunteers; in these short video clips they recalled for me particular events which had shaped their learning of particular skills, such as giving presentations. However, in one video I interviewed students from Germany and Singapore and asked them to explain differences they had found between living and studying in their home countries compared to the UK: I was fascinated to learn of cultural differences. I admired their courage in travelling to the UK to study. My hope was that I might learn more as a teacher of how to help them in their learning, and that other students may be able to learn from listening to my interviewees' experiences.

Bearing this in mind, when I was considering an area of research for my doctorate, I wanted to investigate some aspect of how students developed their personal, academic or professional skills. Ideally, I wanted to combine this with their reflection upon their own learning-related critical incidents during their programmes of study. As explained more fully in my **Professional Portfolio** (see Appendix 8.8, page **335**) I decided rather than to research a particular aspect of learning (e.g. emotional intelligence, creativity, teamwork) I would research a particular learning experience. Influenced further by my recent experience as a module leader of the HR Dissertation for an undergraduate business degree , the one I chose is what is often considered to be the capstone module, as it *embodies all of the students' previously learned skills* and, based upon my own experience of supervising many students over the years, is one of the most demanding modules they undertake: the dissertation. My subsequent secondary research confirmed this.

Choosing the Metaphor

My reasons for choosing the metaphor of the University Teacher as Guide and my Students as Aspirant Researchers stems back to 1982; this was my personal experience as an aspirant alpine climber, being taught by professional climbers and then, in turn, teaching others to climb. So, using the Guide metaphor for this research was quite natural for me. I would argue that it is an apt metaphor, as I shall explain. Mountaineering is a 'high stakes' activity. For many students their post graduate journey is equally important. It is often demanding, fraught with emotion, and potentially life-changing. Thus, the metaphor is not an overstatement. It is a Master's journey the author has travelled himself as a part-time student with all of the responsibilities that entails. However, it was not only the students who learned from the Teaching/ Guiding process, but also me as the Teacher/ Guide. Thus, this doctoral work is a personally reflexive exercise of my own teaching and is in and of itself an ongoing, personal learning journey in 'becoming' the University Teacher as Guide (Bryans and Mavin, 2003; Dall'Alba and Barnacle, 2007, p.683-687; Anderson, 2009).

Mapping

Looking deeper at why I am so interested in researching the cognitive and affective problems faced by students during their dissertations, I have mapped various aspects of the rationale for the research study (previous section 1.1.1) against evidence of my previous personal interest and motivations. This is shown in the Table 1.1 overleaf, which is appropriately annotated such that it may be read as a form of discussion.

Rationale for the Research	MAPPING →	Evidence of Previous Personal Interest/ Motivation
Learners facing significant cognitive and affective challenges in dissertations (Ahern and Manathunga, 2004)		Throughout my doctoral research I have been a **dissertations supervisor at both under and post graduate levels**, and observed students' struggles. I feel the need to help them along their journey, as I empathise with their experiences. I regard the dissertation as a capstone module, so if I can make a difference somehow to students' experiences it will be extremely worthwhile for them, and of great satisfaction for me personally.
"A mountain to climb"		As a **past alpine climber and active walker** I often use mountaineering metaphors, and find that often students use them to describe their own learning situations.
• Better understanding of teaching research methods is needed (Nind, Kilburn and Wiles, 2015) • Connecting learners to research via direct and immersive experience (Lewthwaite and Nind, 2016)		In 2013, **I created a new HR Dissertation module for BA Business Studies**. This used contemporary HR issues as an introduction to the teaching of research methods prior to them doing their HR Dissertation. With a colleague, I established and ran a series of undergraduate dissertation proposal workshops for students at the end of their second year, in preparation for their final year dissertation. This had the dual benefit of us, as personal tutors, getting to better know our students. This initiative was presented at the **University of Sunderland Teaching & Learning Conference, May 2015.** See **Portfolio Appendix 9.11, Page 363.**
Need for critical thinking at HE level (Moon, 2005)		I was a **University of Sunderland Teaching and Learning Fellow** from 2001-2003. I devised and implemented an experiential learning log for BA Business students out on placement. See **Portfolio Appendix 9.9, Page 360.**
Education, Government and Industry regard critical thinking as essential (QAA, 2015, Drennan and Clark, 2009, CIPD, 2014)		I have written various **skills and leadership development textbooks** for business students: At UG level – for OUP: Gallagher(2010, 2013, 2016) At PG level – for CIPD : Watson & Gallagher (2005), chapters in Watson & Reissner (2010, 2014). These textbooks reflect education, government and industry desire for critical thinking development in HE students. See **Portfolio Appendices** Appendices 9.4 – 9.6 on **pages 350-355**
Building good relationships is essential to effective learning (Vygotsky, 1978)		I have always aspired to building good relationships within my university teaching. I have also worked hard to create communities of practice with fellow academics to develop our professional learning. For instance, in 2008 I established and led **'The Textbook Club'** within the University of Sunderland as a way of supporting and encouraging each others in the textbook writing process. See **Portfolio Appendix 9.10, Page 361**

TABLE 1.1 Mapping Rationale for the Research against Personal Motivation

1.2 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

1.2.1 Aims

A growing body of research indicates that Masters' students face significant cognitive and affective challenges when completing their dissertations (Ahern and Manathunga, 2004; Bryman and Bell, 2011, p.93; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2012; Cassell, 2013; Wagener, 2018). However, there is limited research on how the dissertation's bedrock of research methods is taught to Higher Education students (Cassell, 2013; Kilburn, Nind and Wiles, 2014; Lewthwaite and Nind, 2016) and little on the role of emotions in teaching in Higher Education (Quinlan, 2016). Further research shows that when students experience cognitive and affective challenges as excessively demanding, they may fail to achieve their full potential due to poor self-efficacy (Bandura, 1985, 1997) and may be prone to developing symptoms of stress (Macnair and Elliott, 1992; Laidlaw, McLellan and Ozakinci, 2016; Deasy et al., 2016).

The pedagogical stance taken here is that the university teacher involved in tutoring dissertation students should strive to be a pro-active co-constructor of knowledge with them, and not just a factual source of learning (Baxter Magolda, 1999, 2004, 2012; Baxter Magolda and King, 2004; Taylor, 2017a) . In addition, that such teaching is essentially a relationship-driven process (Vygotsky, 1978; Smith, 2011) which values students' holistic academic, personal and career development, in a caring manner (Määttä, 2015). On this basis, the challenge for the university teacher is how to appropriately teach and support individuals of varying motivations and abilities as they engage with their dissertations.

This thesis addresses the above issues. It is based upon research carried out by the author as a university teacher whilst teaching research methods to a group of Masters' students who were simultaneously engaged with their dissertations. It is further supported by the author's Professional Portfolio. The research aims, located in the context of his Professional Doctorate and his own becoming as a university teacher and guide, are as follows:

Research Aims
1. **To explore, through the lens of the author's own becoming as a guide, how university teachers might build appropriately supportive teaching relationships with students as they face the cognitive and affective challenges of completing their dissertations and aspire to become researchers.** 2. **Further, to explore how a teaching and learning approach that incorporates students' autobiographical data and reflections can facilitate this becoming.**

1.2.2 Objectives

The following, overlapping objectives show how the research aims are to be achieved:

1) Establish the context in which the research took place, as seen through a reflection upon the author's career path and key events in his becoming as a university teacher.

2) Through analysis of the literature:

   a. Establish the nature of the cognitive and affective challenges faced by students in completing their dissertations, including the use of metaphor to assist identification and analysis of such issues.

   b. Propose a conceptual framework of being and becoming relevant to university teachers and students in the context of dissertations, with particular emphasis upon the role of teacher/ student relationships.

   c. Explore how a teaching and learning approach that incorporates students' autobiographical data and reflections can facilitate their learning.

3) Design a phased teaching and learning intervention ('The Guide Process') to consolidate students' learning of research methods and to identify, share and address cognitive and affective problems that they are encountering during their dissertation journeys. This to be achieved via a teaching and learning process which includes using autobiographical data and reflections.

4) Collect and analyse data from all phases of 'The Guide Process' intervention as delivered by the 'Teacher as Guide' to a group of 'Students as Aspirant Researchers' in terms of the learning experiences of both parties. To include Phased Guided Activities of: 'Questionnaire', 'Drawings', 'Focus Group', 'Critical Incidents' recorded on video, and 'Interviews'. Areas of analysis to include the extent of, and ways through which, the

'Guide Process' allowed students to explore, express and share their thoughts, feelings and emotions about their research journeys and themselves as aspirant researchers.

5) Summarise, through the lens of the author's own becoming as a guide, and as informed by this research, how university teachers might build appropriately supportive teaching relationships with students as they face the cognitive and affective challenges of completing their dissertations and aspire to become researchers, and the role of students' and teachers' autobiographical data and reflections in facilitating this becoming.

1.3 RESEARCH THESIS: AN OUTLINE

This thesis reflects upon and analyses a teaching and learning intervention designed by the researcher, in his role as a business school senior lecturer. It seeks to address one of the most pervasive and crucial problems facing business school teachers today: how to provide better teaching guidance for Master's students undertaking their research projects/ dissertations. This covers the development of students' research methods, guiding them during their research projects/dissertations, and helping them cope with anxieties during their research project/dissertation journeys. It is based upon small-scale (twenty students), in-depth research (Tight, 2010) and is a form of case study (Thomas, 2011) which is largely qualitative and inductive in nature. It seeks to explore and illuminate student experiences within a small but diverse group and identify salient findings and their implications from the teaching and learning intervention; this comprised a series of planned teaching and learning activities conducted by the researcher at a university in the North East of England. The majority of students had elected to use qualitative or mixed-methods approaches for their research work.

The teaching and learning intervention occurred over the period from Autumn 2015 to Spring 2016. During this time the researcher (who is now referred to in the first person) was one of several tutors teaching research methods to a group of twenty Master's students, as they engaged with their work-based research projects/ dissertations. It should be noted that, for convenience, the term 'dissertation' shall generally be used from now on, rather than 'work-based project', This follows the convention of using 'dissertation' as an overall descriptor of 'large projects which are part of your postgraduate study' (Edinburgh University, 2018) which covers both work-based projects and the more traditional dissertations.

The intervention consisted of a planned series of workshops, the earlier ones taking place

during normal class time and later ones during my own time, with students voluntarily participating. My intention was to build rapport (Smith, 2011) with students and a sense of community spirit (Lave and Wenger, 1991) within the earlier workshops, focusing on research skills per se. Then I would encourage them to volunteer for a critical incident (Tripp, 1993) workshop in which they would be interviewed on video.

The concept of critical incidents to help undergraduate students develop employment skills had already been used for a national teaching and learning project (Popovic et al., 2010). Further, as shown in my Doctoral Portfolio which accompanies this thesis, I had recently added my own videos of students recalling critical incidents for the on-line resources section that accompanied my skills textbook (Gallagher, 2013), again for undergraduate students developing their study and employment skills (see Professional Portfolio, p.347). Thus, it seemed a natural choice for me to extend this approach to one of the areas that, in my experience, required a unique amalgam of skills in arguably the most demanding module in which students engage: the research project or dissertation.

Opportunity, Serendipity, Messiness and Evolving Analytical Frame

Circumstances had given me access to my potential group of participants, a Master's class of full-time students studying Human Resource Management. My research was initially intended to be an exploration of the use of their critical incident videos regarding their own research experiences. However, my plans were to change. As Cook (2009) explains, exploration is a 'messy area' and, rather than try to hide it, this mess needs to be 'celebrated as part of a process that encourages and legitimises' (p.289) the developmental process. Hence this explanatory note. For my research was to turn into something deeper along the way.

As it transpired, the introductory workshops of the intervention assumed a significance all of their own, and I came to the realisation that I was going to have to re-evaluate my research. What was to change was not the planned intervention and the various activities – these remained as they were. What changed was my *interpretation* of what was happening, which would impact upon my subsequent analysis of my findings and their implications. The end point I had sought, of participants conducting one-on-one videos of each other's critical incidents remained, but now they were just that – an end point: along the way the emotions and thoughts evoked and presented so graphically by participants during the earlier 'unfreezing' process (Lewin, 1947 cited in Burnes, 2004, p.985) of one of the workshops,

caused me to stop and think. Like the critical incident activity – and all of the other activities – it was based intuitively on using selves as data. This one fact assumed prominence in my mind. My understanding of the nature of the teacher/student relationship process then developed over the course of the intervention, such that I now saw an emphasis upon students' and the teacher's own experiences and biographical data as a key learning driver for *all* of the workshop activities. This prompted me to amend my conceptual framework (The University Teacher as Guide and Master's Students as Aspirant Researchers) which was also the basis of the analytical frame required for my case study (Thomas, 2011). No longer was the final end-point of my research the main headline. Now the story was the whole process. And it was about relationships and using students' and the teacher's own experiences and biographical data in Phased Guided Activities. And, in the event, what emerged most strongly from the research findings, was the crucial role which emotions played throughout.

With this in mind, the rest of this chapter lays out, in more detail, the rationale for my research, my own motivations as a researcher, a brief account of how students struggle with their research projects, and finally an introduction to the conceptual framework of 'University Teacher as Guide and Master's Students as Aspirant Researchers' which is developed in Chapter 2.

1.4 WHY DO STUDENTS STRUGGLE WITH THEIR RESEARCH PROJECTS?

As the literature review will demonstrate, students encounter both cognitive and affective difficulties doing their research projects and dissertations. The following discussion provides an introductory overview:

Cognitive Difficulties

Writers have identified various problems that students face: firstly, there are technical challenges for students of learning the techniques associated with the stages of conceptualisation, researching, analysis and writing of the dissertation (Simon, 2010). Additionally, there are the demands of developing an inquiring frame of mind (Healey and Jenkins, 2009). Research shows that the cognitive aspects of learning are moderated by affective aspects, as discussed next.

Affective Aspects

The *affective* aspects of learning feature strongly within my thesis: however, they are often overlooked in educational practice and theory. For example Vygotsky (1978, cited in Levykh, 2008, p.85) states that 'affect and intellect are not two mutually exclusive poles but two inseparable mental functions'. Thus, consider the impact of anxiety on learning; in practical terms, when students experience significant feelings of anxiety there is a bodily increase in stress hormones such as cortisol which have the potential to 'hijack' the brains of learners through an overactivation of the part of the brain (the amygdala) responsible for 'fight or flight' response (Selye, 1976) at the expense of the thinking part of the brain, the neo-cortex (Goleman, Boyatzis and McKee, 2002). Even if such panic does not ensue, the tendency for students is to embrace the 'safer' *surface learning* (Moon, 1999, p.135) approach that is essentially objectivist and didactic, with an over reliance upon an unquestioning acceptance of what the teacher and their textbooks have taught them. Thus, through a lack of confidence in internalising their learning, ,they tend to downplay their own contribution to more fully understanding the application of theory to themselves and thus to the world around them – i.e they are less inclined to experience what is referred to as 'deep learning'(Moon, 1999, p.134); such a stance often leads to a sense of dissatisfaction in learning (Usher, 1985).

 Cowan (2012, pp.5-6) states that some students know that they need help but cannot specify what it is. Ideally, he says, they require empathetic help (Cooper, 2011). Other students 'know what they need but are embarrassed for some reason about asking for assistance, require security before they feel able to declare their need, and probably still wish to do so confidentially' (Cowan, 2012, p.6). Feelings of embarrassment may lead to lower performance (Turner, 2014), whereas other *positive* emotions (such as enjoyment) may lead to higher performance (Fredrickson and Cohn, 2008) (Lei and Cui, 2016). Indeed, recent research shows that positive emotions act as a moderating factor on the learning process which includes the direct relationship between knowledge and cognitive skills, as well as an indirect relationship between knowledge and cognitive skills via reflection (Loon and Bell, 2018). However, researchers admit there is still a need for more 'empirical evidence' on emotions and cognitive skills (Loon and Bell, 2018, p.695) and further research on links between emotions and performance (Lei and Cui, 2016, P.1551), precisely because of such important implications for teaching practice.

The term 'emotion' is in common use, and typically relates to emotions which individuals experience from the unpleasant (e.g. sadness) to the pleasant (e.g. joy). However, as emotion plays such an important part in the learning process, as described above, and because it is mentioned frequently in the ensuing chapters, further discussion is given in the literature review.

Personal Growth: A Learning Journey

Elsewhere other writers suggest that, for many students making the conceptual leap from a learning situation of being taught, to one of setting their own research questions, is one of such a magnitude that students feel as if they are crossing a 'threshold'(Meyer and Land 2003, 2005; Abbott, 2013; Adorno, Cronley and Smith, 2013) in which they are travellers entering a new learning world. Other writers take the view that the focus of learning is essentially one of change within the very core of the individual: they talk of 'becoming'. Thus, the suggestion of 'becoming a professional who can conduct research in their field' (Anderson, 2009). For Business students, the concept of 'becoming' may be linked to their likely role as managers (Bryans and Mavin, 2003).

1.5 THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK: THE 'UNIVERSITY TEACHER AS GUIDE AND STUDENTS AS ASPIRANT RESEARCHERS'

The importance of the 'University Teacher as Guide' metaphor

Quinlan (2016) states that there are 4 key relationships in teaching and learning in higher education: students with subject matter; students with teachers; students with other students; and students with developing selves. She states that teaching is intrinsically linked to these relationships and relationships are bound to emotions. Encompassing all of the above relationships, this section introduces the *metaphor* of the 'University Teacher as Guide'; this informs the *conceptual framework* of the 'University Teacher as Guide and Students as Aspirant Researchers' as the proposed model of teaching and learning for students doing their dissertations and *also* the fundamental lens used for the research of this thesis.

An overview of the 'University Teacher as Guide' Metaphor

From a teaching perspective, Bowman (1996) explains, metaphors provide a 'framework within which we interpret our experiences and assign meaning to them' and that,

subconsciously, teachers use metaphors to 'communicate clearly our philosophy of teaching and learning, revealing how we see ourselves in relationship to students and what we think it means to teach'. Supporting this stance, Boud and Hager (2012, p.18) state that the use of metaphors is a natural way for educators to think of learning, be it from an intuitional level or from a more sophisticated, theoretical standpoint; they add weight to the previous comment of Bowman (1996) that this process is often subconscious, giving the example of commonly accepted notions of students 'acquiring' and 'transferring' learning – ideas that are commonly thought of as processes but are, in fact, metaphors for learning (Boud and Hager, 2012, p.18).

My research explores how University Teachers might assume the role of 'guides' for the development of post-graduate students as 'aspirant' researchers. The 'guide' role is the metaphor which was adopted here to represent a particular philosophical teaching approach. The terminology used was that of the traditional (Victorian) alpine mountain 'guide' who developed the skills of their aspiring mountaineers as 'aspirants' through guided experience, from novice to accomplished climber. In some cases, the guiding/ client relationship developed into a partnership exploring new climbs together. Nowadays, the climbing metaphor continues to be commonly used by students describing their own particular learning 'mountains' and has been used by other researchers (Bailey, 2000; Lamm, Clerehan and Pinder, 2007) and is one to which I can readily relate because of my own climbing experience.

The Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of 'University Teacher as Guide, and Students as Aspirant Researchers' is shown in Fig. 1.1 It is the lens through which the key teaching and learning relationships and processes associated with dissertations are envisioned, emerging from consideration of the literature; it also serves as the basis for the analysis of research (i.e. the 'analytical framework') carried out for this thesis.

Details of how the conceptual framework was developed for this doctoral thesis are given later in chapter 2 (see p. 89 onwards). However, a preliminary discussion here serves to introduce some of its key features. Central to the concept of the University Teacher and Students *being and becoming* (Bryans and Mavin, 2003; Dall'Alba and Barnacle, 2007, p.683-687; Anderson, 2009) .
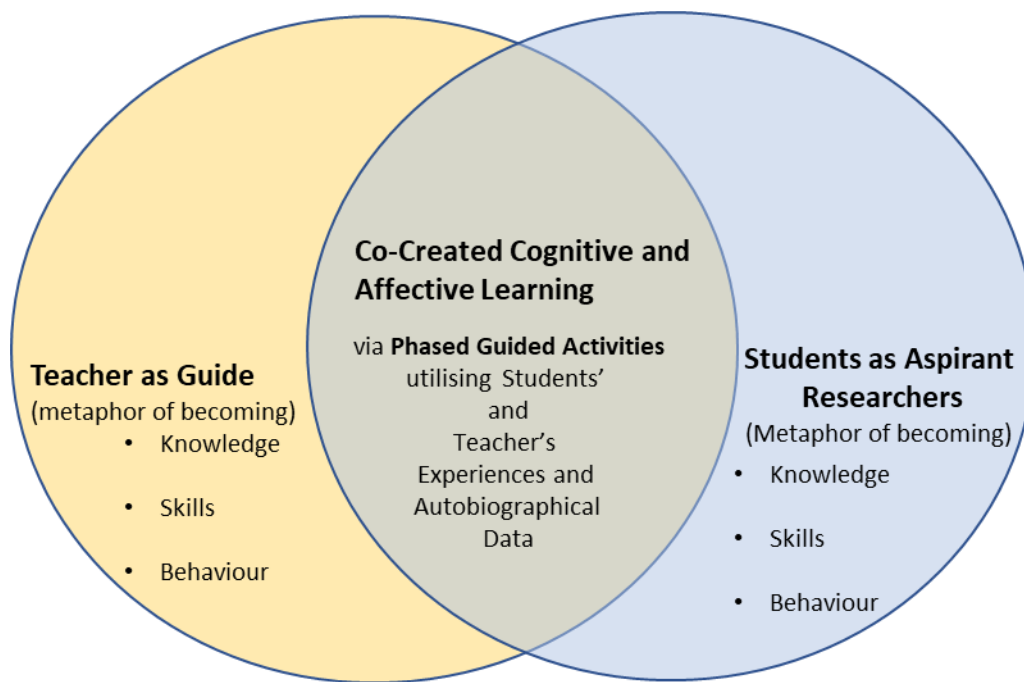
Fig. 1.1 Conceptual Framework: The University Teacher as Guide, and Students as Aspirant Researchers

The 'Metaphor of Becoming' reflects an ongoing transition over time for both the Student as Aspirant Researcher *and* the University Teacher as Guide. It has the potential to elicit changes in them .This transition is one of "becoming other than what one is already" (Franken, 2012). The metaphor of becoming is relevant to the 'Phased Guided Activities' of figure 1.1 and relies heavily upon the experiences and autobiographical data of both students and teacher. When students apply this data to the Phased Guided Activities they undergo 'lived experiences'. Barnacle (2004) relates 'lived experiences' to 'the life-world'. She explains "The life-world, or world, is the everyday, intuitive, world of our day-to-day experience, in contrast to the idealised, cognitive world of the sciences and mathematics" (Barnacle, 2004, p.58). To summarise: both students and tutor are in the process of 'becoming' and the context in which this happens is the experience that is co-constructed during the Phased Guided Activities (the 'lived experience').

Knowledge, Skills and Behaviours involved in 'becoming'

Figure 1.1 has three elements associated with 'becoming'. They are shown as 'Knowledge', 'Skills', and 'Behaviour'. I have used these terms as they are in common pedagogical use. They are consistent with the work of (Dorfler, Stierand and Zizka, 2017) who present a model of becoming which has 3 elements which they term 'Savoir' (theoretical knowledge), 'Savoire-faire' (knowing how to do a task) and 'Savoire-etre' (knowing how to 'be'). Also,

bearing in mind that students in 'becoming' aspirant researchers are also contributing to the shaping of their professional identity, there are direct parallels with the 'Knowledge, Skills, Personality, Norms, Emotions and Values' as discussed by Watson and Reissner (2014, quoting the work of Sanders, 2010.)

1.6 'PHASED GUIDED ACTIVITIES' AS USED IN THE RESEARCH

The Phased Guided Activities comprised a series of research-based workshops in which 'Students as Aspirant Researchers' and 'Teacher as Guide' utilised their experiences and biographical data over the duration of students' research dissertations (see Fig 1.2). The data generated by students (which was captured in questionnaires, hand-drawn pictures, interview transcripts and video footage of student-student discussions) formed the basis for the data collection of this study. Interview transcripts were transcribed verbatim and analysed through emergent themes. Further details are given in the Methodology.

Phase and Date	Phased Guided Activity	Data recorded
1. 20th Nov 2015	'Diagnosing my own self efficacy as a student researcher'	Participants' self-efficacy questionnaires
		Chart and mean scores of all participants (anonymous)
2. 11th Dec 2015	'My 3 words and picture of my research journey to date'	Participants' words and pictures
	Focus group discussion on 3 words and picture	Focus group transcript
		Focus group audio
3. 29th Jan 2016	Critical incident – interviewing each other on video	Transcripts of participants interviews
		Participants' Videos
4. March – April 2016	One-one interview/ reflection (of Participant with Teacher as Guide) of all Guiding Activities completed	Teacher (Guide)/ Participant Interview transcripts

Fig 1.2. The 4 Phased Guided Activities used for the Thesis Research

1.7 THE TEACHING AND LEARNING CONTEXT

It is useful from the onset to outline further the teaching and learning context of the Master's level structure which formed the background for this investigation, as this presented constraints which were not present at Undergraduate level. In particular, the timeframe of the programme was one year, with modules being delivered over a single semester and some additional time being allowed for submission of the research project. This was problematic as students entered the programme with a varied range of knowledge of research methods techniques learned from their undergraduate studies. Also, at postgraduate level, teachers within the institution in question did not have specific knowledge of individual students' prior learning.

To further add to the teaching challenge, the majority of students on the programme were international. This brought benefits in terms of students being able to learn from each others' cultures but also challenges in terms of difficulties that many such students faced in terms of language abilities and differences in their experience of educational practice in their home countries (Lowinger et al., 2014).

However, one significant contextual factor which was in favour of the Teacher facilitating the learning experience of this particular group of students was the relatively small size of the group. Saunders (2017) demonstrates the constraints inherent in teaching research methods to large groups of students, but in contrast this exploratory study was carried out on a group of twenty students.

1.7.1   Approach of the Study

This study focused upon an exploratory case study at Master's level within the discipline of Business and Management. However, it drew upon the literature across programmes of study that range from undergraduate to postgraduate degree level, and a diversity of disciplines spanning the humanities to the sciences. The nature of the knowledge sought within this study covered aspects associated with both cognitive and affective abilities. Inasmuch as it sought to explore the domain of the research skills self-efficacy of students, it was subjective from the perspective of each participant.

Much of how the participants perceived their development along their learning journey was

viewed in terms of a philosophy in which meaning was attributed by individual participants within a given social context (that of the classroom, with fellow participants, and with their tutor). Some writers refer to this approach as 'social constructivism' (Baxter Magolda, 1999, p.16) whereas others use the term 'social constructionism'. Crotty (1998) suggests using the term 'constructionism' for research 'where the social dimension of meaning is at centre stage', and 'constructivism' where it is individually focused. For the purposes of this research I will usually use the term 'constructionism' to emphasise the group influences of the teaching and learning environment. Furthermore, the study was interpretive, seeking to explore findings as they emerged and in the main a qualitative approach (Bryman and Bell, 2015) was adopted. Further details are given in Chapter 3 (Methodology).

1.7.2   Scope and Limitations of the Study

As a case study based upon an interpretive analysis of a small number of individuals the focus of this research was upon gaining an understanding of how particular individuals developed their abilities to carry out their own research and how they changed within themselves along their learning journey. Thus, the findings were highly individualistic and may not be generalised to a wider population. However, as Yin (2009, p.15) points out, whilst cases do not represent 'samples' the goal is still to expand upon theories from a propositional viewpoint. So, whilst case studies are not good for generalisation, they are good for getting a 'rich picture and gaining analytical insights from it' (Thomas, 2011). Therefore, insight into how teachers and students interact and behave may be gleaned from an examination of this case study. Thus, these findings may be of interest to other teachers who are engaging with teaching research methods to their own students, especially if students are from similarly diverse backgrounds, as in this study, and a comparable educational context is present. Again, further details are given at the end of Chapter 3 (Methodology) and Chapter 5 (Conclusions).

1.8 STRUCTURE OF THESIS

There are four further chapters in this thesis, supplemented by a Portfolio:

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This considers the cognitive and affective challenges faced by post-graduate students as they engage with their research projects. The concept of the 'Student's Journey' is introduced. Next, the importance of relationships between teacher and students is discussed. Finally, a number of experiential teaching and learning theories are outlined.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This chapter covers the research design and philosophy and develops the analytical framework for my research. It then discussed the methods used, and the ethical considerations of working with my research participants.

Chapter 4: Results and Findings

All 4 phases of the research findings are explored within this extensive chapter.

Chapter 5: Conclusions

This chapter covers conclusions from the research thesis and links to my Portfolio. Research insights relating to the aims and objectives for the case study are given. Also discussed are the teaching and learning implications of these insights for the teaching and learning of research methods in higher education.

Chapter 2:

Literature Review

2 | LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter Foreword

The literature reviewed in this chapter reflects my own awakening, over the course of this study, to the key roles that affect and *emotion* play in students' research journeys, as well as to my own emotional investment as a teacher. It still pertains to my initial, somewhat task-oriented, quest for a teaching 'mechanism' to help students 'learn research methods' for them to apply to their dissertations. However, having experienced the teaching and learning intervention ('The Guide Process') with my students, I came to realise that my original approach was too simplistic, and that the argument could be made for a deeper focus upon the affective aspects within students' transformational journeys, as well as on the role of my own passion for teaching and desire to help students during the dissertation process. I say more about the latter in my Professional Portfolio, where I explain how my background as an engineer (p.326) and later as a textbook writer providing skills development resources for management students, influenced my personal teaching and learning philosophy (see Sec. 8.7, p.331) when I first designed 'The Guide Process'.
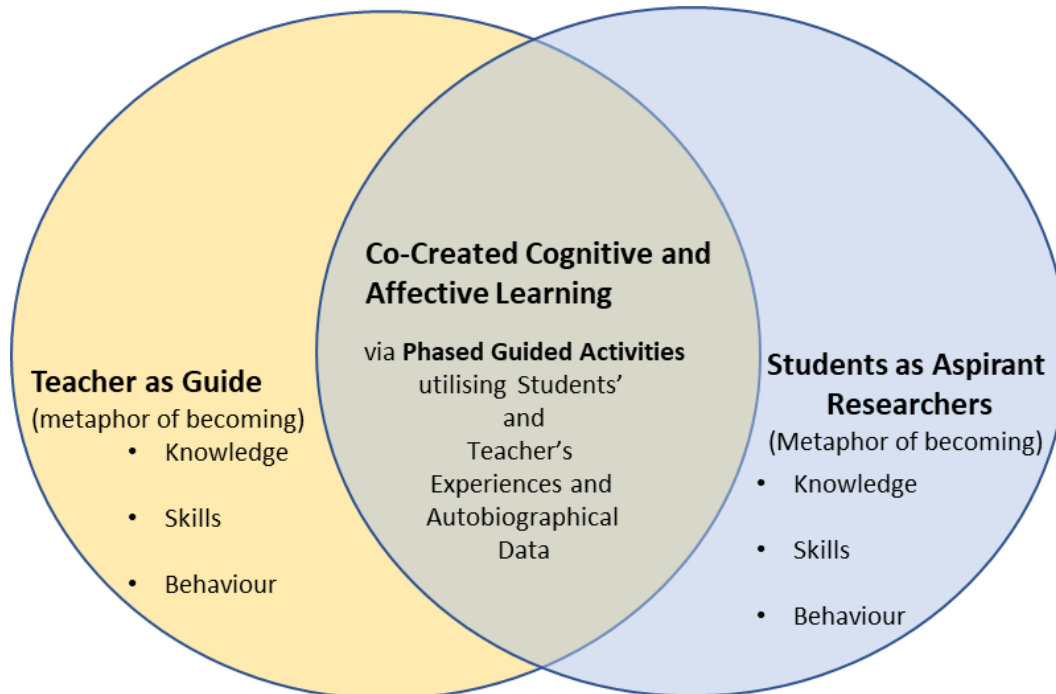
Co-Created Cognitive and Affective Learning

via **Phased Guided Activities** utilising Students' and Teacher's Experiences and Autobiographical Data

Teacher as Guide (metaphor of becoming)
- Knowledge
- Skills
- Behaviour

Students as Aspirant Researchers (Metaphor of becoming)
- Knowledge
- Skills
- Behaviour

Fig. 1.1 Conceptual Framework: The University Teacher as Guide, and Students as Aspirant Researchers

Chapter Introduction

As previously outlined in the Research Objectives (sec 1.2.1, p. 18) and in accordance with the conceptual framework of my thesis (Fig 1.1, reproduced above), the literature is arranged under three headings, as follows:

2.1   Cognitive and Affective Challenges of the Dissertation

2.2   Being and Becoming through University Teacher/ Student Relationships

2.3   Being and Becoming through Teaching and Learning Approaches that use Students' and Teacher's Experiences and Autobiographical Data

The following overview maps out the literature content of each sub-heading, showing their connection.

Section 2.1

Section heading "2.1 Cognitive and Affective Challenges of the Dissertation" provides an opening link to the cognitive and affective issues, barriers and problems that students typically encounter within their dissertations, as stated in chapter 1. Setting the scene for this is the seminal work of Vygotsky (1978) with his 'zone of proximal development', and then of Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning (Krathwohl, 2002; Krathwohol, Bloom and Masia, 1964) with its three connected learning domains (cognitive, affective and psychomotor).

This is followed by a more personal perspective by using the metaphor of "The Student's Journey". This considers the cognitive and affective issues of students as they undertake various stages associated with the development of their dissertations. This leads to the concept of the student's journey; the idea that students are somehow crossing into an unknown place, fraught with potential difficulties and fears, when they first encounter the demands of post-graduate work is explored through the lens of the traveller crossing a *liminal* boundary or *threshold* (Meyer and Land, 2005). Students from different cultures may experience different journeys, and this too is outlined. At this point the concept of *self-efficacy* (Bandura, 1985) pertaining to students' perceived feelings that they are able to tackle the dissertation task at hand, is discussed.

This is followed by a more in-depth consideration of the potential concomitant effects of stress on well-being and academic performance (Laidlaw, McLellan and Ozakinci, 2016; Deasy et al., 2016; Macnair and Elliott, 1992; Elliott et al., 1994). Balancing the negative

emotions associated with stress, the next subsection considers the role of positive emotions in the teaching and learning environment.

'Becoming' as the Linking Thread

The argument made here, is that all of the afore-mentioned challenges faced by students in their dissertations, including their stressful and emotion-laden journeys across thresholds, lead inexorably to the deeper metaphor of their *becoming* (as shown in Fig 1.1 by the term 'Aspirant Reseachers'). Also, in a refrain to the dynamic relationship between Teacher and Students, as depicted in the conceptual framework (Fig 1.1), is the realisation that the Teacher is going through a personal process of becoming a 'Teacher as Guide'; further, that teachers themselves may seek mentors of their own to guide them in their professional development and *teacher-researcher identity* (Taylor, 2017), and that they too may experience their own emotion-laden journeys (also see sec 2.2.4 Teacher: Identity Development, p. 70): indeed, my own doctoral journey is a case in point. It is this 'becoming' which is the thread which subsequently weaves its way throughout the rest of the literature review.

As already mentioned in chapter 1, *becoming* refers to a transition of "becoming other than what one is already" (Franken, 2012, p 857). In this case students are *becoming* aspirant researchers and the teacher is *becoming* the guide. As both student and teacher must start from somewhere, the concept of *becoming* is related to one of change of our *being* – hence the section title of '*Being* and *Becoming*'. Indeed, it may be argued that there is no end point to this *becoming* (Bryans and Mavin, 2003) as researchers (although of course there will be an end point to being students) and teacher as guide, for it is a dynamic process, in the same way that we as human beings are mentally, socially and physically in constant flux; moreover, we inhabit an ever-changing world which is the historical, contextual backdrop that influences our ability to be and function in our everyday lives: as Heidegger (1962, discussed in Wrathall, 2005, pp.10-11) argues, 'having thoughts and feelings is only possible for an entity who is actively engaged in the world'; to emphasise this he calls the kind of entity humans are 'Dasein', from the German 'Da', there, and 'Sein', being.

Section 2.2

Thus, following on from the first section, 2.1'Cognitive and Affective Challenges of the Dissertation', comes section 2.2 'Being and Becoming through University Teacher/ Student Relationships'. As Heidegger (1962, discussed in Wrathall,2005, pp.52-53) explains, others

play a decisive role in making us who we are: social relationships help form us. This is consistent with the seminal educational work of Vygotsky (1978) who emphasised the significance of the teacher/ student relationship.

Content

Section 2.2 is thus primarily about teaching and learning relationships: different types of relationships; factors that nurture or hinder their growth; and the subsequent development of students and teachers in their *becoming* . It opens with the seminal work of Dewey (1916) and further mention of Vygotsky (1978) with his 'zone of proximal development' to show that the relationships between teacher and students lie at the heart of the teaching and learning process. The importance of the teacher being able to match their type of relationship to the maturity of individual students (Hersey and Blanchard, 1996'; Grow, 1991)) will then be discussed. This is an underlying principle of 'The Guide Process'. This will be followed by a more detailed discussion (sec 2.2.2) of the literature on supervisory, transactional, and transformational relationships (Bass, 1998; Johnson et al., 2018), which would appear to have much in common with the maturity of the aforementioned Grow (1991).

The factors of rapport, openness and trust, reported to foster the development of strong relationships between teacher and students are then discussed. Nurturing these enablers was a strategy of my intervention, as given within my research methodology [see *Case Study: Strategy of opening-up to new learning* p.125]. This is followed by a discussion on a related, powerful concept; it is one which is difficult to define but which is nevertheless something that many teachers strive to improve in their relationships with students: empathy (Cooper, 2011). However, there is another factor to be taken into account in the form of teacher/ student power imbalance in their relationships. This is briefly covered in Sec 2.2.4. Finally, attention turns to that of the development of Teacher Identity. This could equally have been discussed in the next section, as it is a dynamic process that occurs over time, but is included here for its links to developing profound empathy, as discussed earlier. However, it also makes reference to the 'teacher-researcher' from an emotional standpoint: as my own role in carrying out the research for this thesis, indeed for my professional doctorate, may be interpreted as that of 'teacher-researcher', the theories outlined provide a useful validation for the issues that I have encountered with particular focus on openness (see pp. 65, 66, 67) risk-taking (see pp. 158, 199) and vulnerability (p.149) .

Section 2.3

The third section, 2.3 is entitled 'Being and Becoming through Teaching and Learning Approaches that use Students' and Teacher's Experiences and Autobiographical Data'. As the title indicates, students and teachers need experiences so that they can grow educationally. Again, this is consistent with Heidegger's (1962, discussed in Wrathall,2005) view that 'understanding is not… an essentially cognitive act' (p.43), rather it is to be gained via experience. To this end it can be gained when 'activities and entities [e.g students and teacher] are aligned with one another so as to foster favourable dispositions [i.e. moods and emotions] and practices' (p.54). Heidegger cites the example of becoming a Parisian metro-rider which requires the individual being motivated to ride the metro and then to go about buying a ticket, navigating the route and boarding and alighting the trains (p.56). In the case of this doctoral research, the activities relate to the 'Phased Guided Activities' (see Fig. 1.1 Conceptual Framework). This relies heavily upon the experiences and autobiographical data of both students and teacher. As discussed in chapter 1, these are 'lived experiences' (Barnacle, 2004) which relate to 'the life-world', i.e. "the everyday, intuitive, world of our day-to-day experience, in contrast to the idealised, cognitive world of the sciences and mathematics" (Barnacle ,2004, p.58).

Content

Section 2.3 considers constructivist/ constructionist approaches that emphasise the importance of students learning from their own experience, and how the teacher can design activities to facilitate this, either directly or via a process of reflection. The relevance of this to my 'Guide Process' (see Fig 1.1, p.25) is that its design incorporates 'Phased Guided Activities utilising Students' and Teacher's Experiences and Autobiographical Data'.

This section begins with a brief overview of current approaches to learning research which emphasise immersing students in the process (Conway, 2017; Hesse-Biber, 2015) and some classic models of experiential learning (Kolb, 1984; Schön, 1987; Cowan, 2006; Moon, 2006) which focus on the processes of students learning through their experiences.

Going deeper into the psychological aspects of how students go about their learning, attention turns to research studies relating to student self-efficacy (Bandura, 1985; Roick and Ringeisen, 2018) which consider students' self-belief that they can achieve their goals (of successfully completing their dissertation, in this case). These leads naturally into an outline discussion of self-regulation - (Zimmerman, for instance, published self-efficacy articles with

Bandura and then went on to develop his theory on self-regulated learning) which considers how students attempt to manage both the cognitive and affective processes related to their learning (Zimmerman, 2002; Zimmerman and Schunk, 2011; Panadero, 2017; Asikainen, Hailikari and Mattsson, 2018; Wagener, 2018). This is consistent with informing the thesis aims (see p.17) concerning how university teachers might build appropriately supportive teaching relationships with students as they face the cognitive and affective challenges of completing their dissertations and aspire to become researchers. Potential correlations between self-efficacy, self-regulation, student academic performance and student well-being are also noted, to demonstrate the ongoing relevance of self-efficacy as a concept, and that it can inform qualitative as well as quantitative research.

Research has shown that students' abilities to make sense of their experiences is enhanced through careful, deliberate reflection and that certain techniques such as learning journals (Moon, 2006) can be extremely useful. Often what are recorded by journal writers are their *critical incidents* (Flanagan, 1954; Tripp, 1993). One of my intervention's in-depth Phased Guided Activities involves participants discussing a 'critical incident' with another student (participant); thus, some time is spent discussing this.

The subsection 2.3.4 'Using Biographical Data for Reflective and Reflexive Practice', has close connections with the thesis methodology, which centres around the use of the self as the source of data for both learning of research skills and development of self in becoming researcher. It shows how a variety of biographical data can be used to inform individuals' levels of both reflection and reflexivity. Of particular importance to the Methodology of my research study, this section outlines the use of participant drawings (Sec 2.3.5) as metaphorical aids to developing and sharing their experiences and reflections.

A note on further literature discussed in Chapter 3: Methodology

As my teaching and learning intervention concerns the 'how to' of teaching students who are engaging with their dissertations, there is a strong overlap of this chapter with the following one on methodology during its development of the philosophical arguments pertinent to the intervention, and the synthesis of its elements. The methodology chapter seeks to justify, as well as describe the intervention, and thus details certain aspects of the literature adjacent to their relevant discussion; in particular, section 3.8 'Ethical Considerations' (p. 149 onwards) has literature which is relevant to both the way in which my research was conducted and to

the intervention itself (e.g. 'On being friendly as opposed to being a friend' p.156, and of 'potential benefits to students of participating in the research' p.152).

2.1 COGNITIVE AND AFFECTIVE CHALLENGES OF THE DISSERTATION

2.1.1 Introduction

Research has indicated for some time now that students engaging with dissertations often encounter difficulties. For instance, Lie and Cano (2001, p.52) cite Winn (1995) that research methods are difficult for students to understand. Perhaps it is not surprising that this is so, given the nature of the task and the high expectations placed upon students. For instance, Levy and Petrulis (2012) are among academic writers who talk of 'self authorship' as the pinnacle of student learning – and by inference something which should be aspired to in the best dissertations. They quote Marcia Baxter Magolda's definition of this as 'a position of epistemological, intra-personal and inter-personal maturity characterised by awareness of knowledge as constructed and contextual, belief in oneself as possessing the capacity to create new knowledge, and the ability to play a part within knowledge producing communities' (Baxter Magolda 2004). There is a lot to assimilate within this definition; the concept of 'maturity' of learners is one which is discussed later (p. 62 onwards) as is that of 'belief in oneself'(p.77) under the term 'self-efficacy'.

A useful starting point to consider the challenges faced by students doing their dissertations is provided by Ahern and Manathunga (2004). They provide a framework for addressing the cognitive, emotional and social aspects which may be contributing to the situation whereby students become 'stuck' during their research, as shown below in Fig. 2.1.
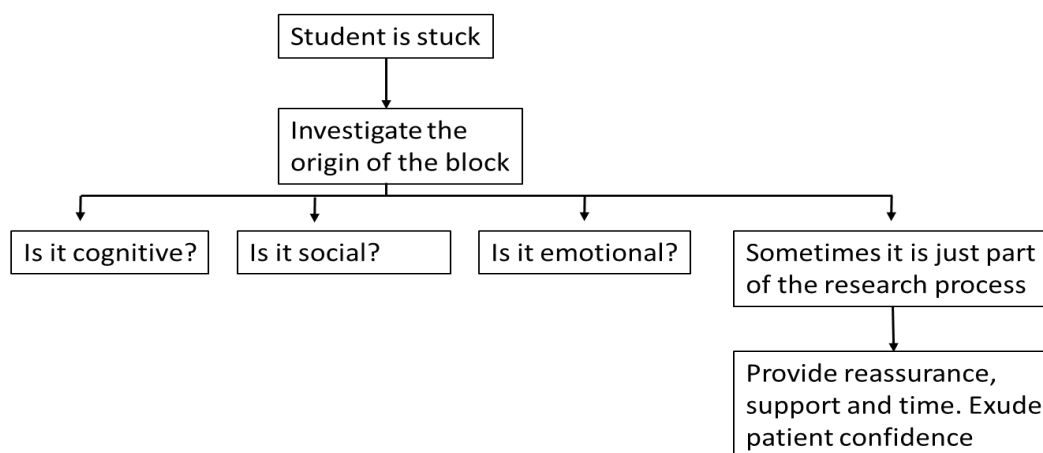
Fig. 2.1:
Domains where blocks can occur (Ahern,K. & Manathunga,C. (2004) 'Clutch-starting stalled Research students', *Innovative Higher Education*, 28 (4), pp. 237-254.)

The framework is simplistic, as it does not show possible interactions between the origins of the 'block'. However, it does serve to identify some of the problem areas. Thus, they found (p.242) that the areas which were most important were the cognitive (thinking) and affective (feeling - the socio-emotional) domains, and actually doing (the conative domain) was less so. Under 'cognitive domain' (p.244) they included academic skills (IT, Library and writing) and 'conceptualisation' skills; under the 'emotional domain (p.246)' they included 'performance anxiety', 'procrastination' and 'personality clash'; and under 'social domain' (p.250) they included 'student feels isolated in school or discipline', 'study is de-prioritised', 'resistance from the family' and 'financial problems'.

The difficulties faced by students would appear to be little better now, although of course student demographics have changed considerably over the years. In his literature review of the problems facing teachers of research methods in the classroom, Earley (2014, p.245) summarises a list of issues, the first three being that students: 'fail to see relevance of course to their major and their lives'; are 'anxious or nervous about course and its difficulties'; and are 'uninterested or unmotivated'. It is revealing to note that these are all affective issues. More recently, Pringle Barnes and Cheng (2018) state that, even though they may have completed undergraduate degrees, many Master's students are weak in terms of conducting 'independent research'. They cite Franken (2012), stating that they often have difficulties with their research proposals.

Given that this literature indicates the challenges facing students doing their dissertations appear to be known within the teaching community, it does raise the question of why (as discussed within the rationale for this thesis, p. 12), there is so little research on the pedagogy of teaching research methods (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2012; Vos, 2013; Earley, 2014; Nind, Kilburn and Wiles, 2015). Also, the question of why so little research has been carried out on the role of emotion in teaching (Quinlan, 2016; Asikainen, Hailikari and Mattsson, 2018, p.440; Loon and Bell, 2018) within Higher Education is rather puzzling. As indicated previously (Fig 2.1, p. 39) by Ahern and Manathunga (2004) and also by Onwuegbuzie et al.(2012), dissertation problems facing students may be cognitive, social or emotional. Thus, there appears to be a lack of research into both the pedagogy of the dissertation itself, and emotion as a constituent factor. It is possible that there is some link between the two; the suggestion raised here is that the emphasis within the teaching of research methods has too often tended to be purely technical in its approach and unrelated to students' experience; and further, that this has then been the overwhelming philosophy behind the teaching of

dissertations which have become in effect 'teach by textbook'. Thus, the student experience has effectively been taken out of the dissertation equation, and with it much of the teacher's guiding role in both cognitive, social and emotional ways. This suggestion is one borne from my own critical reflections, and to fully investigate its validity is outside the scope of this thesis. However, the argument that the cognitive aspect of learning has completely overshadowed the affective aspect is one which has been raised (e.g. Bertucio (2017) and will be briefly addressed in the next section.

2.1.2   Embracing both Cognitive and Affective Aspects of Learning

The following discussion may appear at first to be rather philosophical, but its implications for teaching and learning are far-reaching and inform the basic assumptions of my 'Guide Process' for the dissertation.

One of the most prominent educational thinkers of the 20th century, Lev Vygotsky (1978), was at pains to point out that learning involves both intellect and affect. As a Russian his work was relatively unknown in the West until translations appeared many years after his death (1934). However, his work is well respected today, as the number of new research articles citing him will testify. His 'zone of proximal development' (ZPD) represented the relationship between teacher and learner through which the learner was able to extend her intellectual understanding and own development in a *holistic* manner (Levykh, 2008). In this interaction the teacher could guide and assist the student into an extended zone of learning and development which lay beyond her own access capabilities as a solitary learner. However, it is revealing that Levykh (2008) felt it necessary to write an entire article based upon his assertation that Vygotsky's ZPD approach did not need extending to include an affective dimension, as it already did this admirably. This suggests that many teachers at the time (i.e. 2008) were adopting the ZPD in the belief that its purpose was solely to promote cognitive development of students. In repudiation of this belief, Levykh quotes Vygotsky as saying that 'emotions are the basis for any human relations' (P.97) and states categorically Vygotsky's premise that 'affect and intellect are not two mutually exclusive poles but two inseparable mental functions'. At this point it is useful to define more clearly what is meant by 'emotions'. Under the next subheading 'Defining Emotions' these are described in evolutionary terms of anthropology and psychology but the links to the educational debate just made are clear.

Defining 'Emotions'

Early research into emotion is based upon the seminal work of (Darwin, 1872) in his book 'The expression of the emotions in man and animals'. Other early writers such as James (1894) and (Dewey, 1894) expand upon the debate raised by Darwin. Despite the passage of time Darwin (1872) and James (1894) are still being cited for the purpose of defining emotions; thus (Immordino-Yang, Yang and Damasio, 2016) cite both of them when they state that 'Emotions are, at their core, neural and somatic [i.e. bodily] events whose evolutionary function is to prepare an organism to respond adaptively to a change in physical or social circumstances'. The purpose of emotions is to help us in dealing with 'interpersonal encounters' by being ready to act (at least partly) in ways that have historically been useful for us, as a species, to adapt to the situation we find ourselves in (Ekman,1992, p.171). Emotions are experienced as feelings both in our minds and our bodies; thus, we might blush with embarrassment or feel 'sick to our stomachs with fear', whereas enjoyment may bring feelings of calmness to our centre.

Ekman, well known for his work on facial expressions and emotions, adds clarification stating that emotions exhibit the following characteristics: they have 'rapid onset, short duration, unbidden occurrence, automatic appraisal, and coherence among responses' (Ekman (1992, p.169). He finds it useful to group them into basic 'families' which include anger, fear, sadness, enjoyment, disgust, and surprise ; to these he also suggests adding contempt, shame, guilt and embarrassment. The role of emotions is highlighted in the next section which begins to consider the more specific cognitive and affective challenges of the dissertation. It is also an essential component of section 2.3 which considers critical reflection of students.

Affect as a 'lesser cousin'

The implicit belief that cognition is of primary importance, and that affect is a much lesser cousin, appears to have been widespread within the West until recent years, as will be argued next. Consider the influential publication *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (Bloom et al., 1956; Krathwohl, 2002), which remains such a respected guide to this day for educationalists from school to university that Bertucio (2017) acidly remarks it has retained 'nearly universal obeisance'. Originally designed as a standardisation framework by a committee of educational examiners, Bloom's Taxonomy consisted of three learning domains: Cognitive, Affective, and Psychomotor. The assertion that, in teaching practice, the cognitive aspects appear to have held sway, is perhaps not too surprising, for many associate

the publication 'Bloom's Taxonomy' with the first Handbook (Bertucio, 2017) of a planned trilogy. This related to the cognitive domain and Bloom had a leading role in its production. The writing of the accompanying *Handbook 2: The Affective Domain* (Krathwohol, Bloom and Masia, 1964) was led by Krathwohol and not published until 1964, whilst the 3rd handbook relating to the Psychomotor domain (which does not concern us here) had to wait until 1966 (Krathwohl, 2002).

The cognitive domain with its categories and its terminology have undoubtably been invaluable to the design of educational programmes. Here is a framework which has been widely accepted amongst educationalists, charting a path to students' academic development through a cumulative series of stages of increasing cognitive sophistication. It essentially provides teachers with the academic 'tools' to debate with their colleagues, to plan their programmes of study and to guide their assessment (Krathwohl, 2002).

Of course, teachers want their students to improve their cognition. But, as will be outlined shortly, many of the determinants – and barriers- to learning reside in the affective domain which includes students' feelings, thoughts, emotions, beliefs and attitudes. Bertucio (2017) critiques Bloom's taxonomy in philosophical terms, berating it for its emphasis upon its 'Cartesian assumptions' which emphasises logical analysis at the expense of intuition. He goes on further to attack the separation of learning into separate cognitive and affective domains on the basis that this might lead to a dualism of thought (ie that these domains were separate systems).

However, whilst agreeing with Bertucio (2017) that there is a danger of compartmentalising learning, I would draw attention to what Bloom (or rather Krathwohl as lead writer) outlined in the Affective Domain (Krathwohol, Bloom and Masia, 1964), for I would argue that they represent very real, every-day challenges faced by teachers. Thus, the affective domain had categories of: Receiving, Responding, Valuing, Organization, Characterization. A full critique of these lies outside the scope of this thesis but the following examples show their relevance.

Thus, 'receiving' concerns a willingness to hear. Quite simply, students must turn up for workshops and be attentive. 'Responding' relates to another basic requirement; that of students being active participants in class. Without receiving and responding there is little hope of building the relationship between teacher and students. I argue throughout this thesis that this connection is essential; it lies at the heart of my 'Guide Process'.

'Valuing' concerns demonstrating values such as being sensitive to individual and cultural differences. In today's multi-cultural classrooms and wider society this is a desired learning outcome. In terms of students' overall development, it begs the question of the extent to which they regard their learning as a means to an end versus a transformative experience. This has implications for the teacher in their interactions with students: teachers must be able to cope with both approaches (my Guide Process takes this into account).

'Organization' includes prioritising, which may mean resolving inner conflicts, whilst 'Characterization' concerns internalising values. Both suggest a developmental journey of students' emotional and psychological growth. Again, these are important issues for the teacher to address. Indeed, the role of emotions in conflict belief is emphasised by Mezirow (1991), p.38 cited in Fook and Gardner, 2007, p.134) who states that the key to an individual remembering a dramatic transformation of meaning perspective is the emotional conflict which it elicits.

In summary, whilst it is, by definition, a way of categorising learning and may have led, perhaps unintentionally, to a culture of dualism within teaching, I would argue that Bloom's (complete) taxonomy is still useful, as long as its limitations are acknowledged. It identifies relevant cognitive and affective aspects of teaching that are relevant to 'The Guide Process.' However, the need to pay more than mere lip service to the affective component is the key point being made here, a view backed up by more recent research. In particular, in classroom situations, students feel 'liberated' by the view that it is legitimate to talk about emotions, that this is a vital part of 'being yourself', which is in itself a requirement for critical reflection (Fook and Gardner, 2007).

2.1.3   Framing the challenges: The Student's Journey

This section delves deeper into the cognitive and affective challenges faced by students as they undertake their dissertations. It starts by describing a process that is far from neat and precise, leading on to an introduction as to how students feel on their 'journey'. As the 'Guide Process' is itself a metaphor, the findings from this literature inform its construction.

Chaos and Messiness

Various writers talk about the psychological discomfort experienced by students engaged with dissertations – they use such terms as 'chaos' and 'messiness' (Hunt, 2001), and 'uncertainty' (Bryman, 2012). This all points to the discrepancy between the 'menu' approach given at the beginning of many research methods textbooks, which treat the process as a logical, sequenced set of discrete steps that students go through. This suggests to the unwary student that a dogged adherence to the standard guidelines will deliver a successful dissertation. However, as the experienced supervisor will know, the reality is rarely so straightforward: it's a messy, often confusing period for most students, filled with dead-ends, changes and iterations… and occasional serendipitous discoveries. However, this should come as no surprise; as Barnett (2007, p.76) tells us 'The educational voyages that we wish students to embark upon are bound to cause ontological discomfort'. In other words, students are faced with new ways of viewing not just how we measure knowledge, but even more fundamentally what form that knowledge takes (for instance, the objectivist/ constructivist debate). He goes further to suggest that it might even be a 'tacit educational aim' to encourage an element of discomfort, and that a 'key pedagogical task is that of enabling students to live with this discomfiture' (Barnett, 2007, p.76).

The metaphor of Student's Journey as a means of analysis

Deciding upon the research lens from which to view such a complex teaching and learning scenario is problematic. One approach is to use the metaphor of the student's learning as a journey. In a study on the feelings of doctoral students doing their research, Styles and Radloff (2000) asked students to represent their feelings through the use of written and drawn metaphors. They grouped the responses into themes of uncertainty and anticipation/ excitement. They found that uncertainty was the prevalent response. Their depiction of some of the students' drawings (Fig 2.2) is shown below:
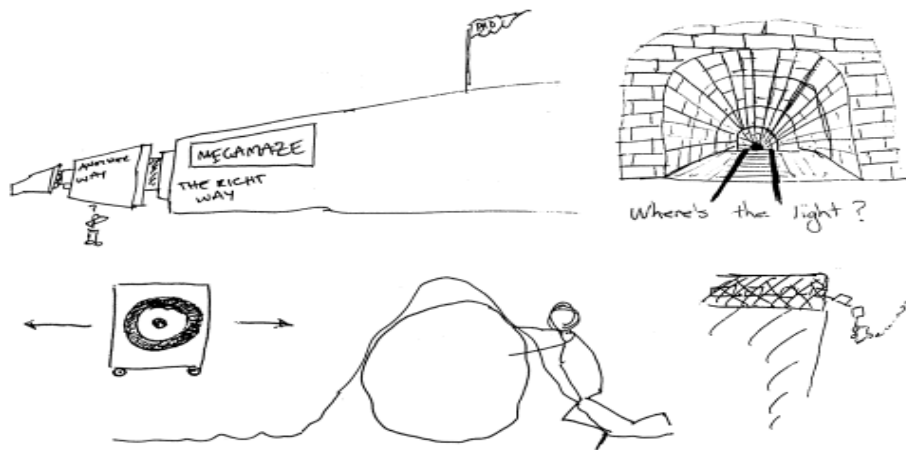
Fig. 2.2 Drawings of metaphors expressing feelings about the thesis (Styles and Radloff, 2000)

They concluded that supervisors needed a close relationship with students to be able to discuss their feelings; that the role of other students in mutual support was important; and that special support was necessary to deal with students' uncertainty. As can be seen, the focus of attention was on the affective factors that were impacting upon the students learning experience. As such it was providing a 'window into the soul' (Kamens, Constandinides and Flefel, 2016) of students, a very personal view of their learning. Discussion now turns to a more in-depth view of the use of metaphors relating to the student's journey.

2.1.4 Journeys and other Metaphors

A useful way to begin to tackle a complex situation is to firstly decide upon a frame of reference. As discussed above, the term 'Journey' is a metaphor which may be used to describe the research experience of individuals. Thus, writers talk of 'voyages', 'intellectual travel', 'movement through new kinds of practice', 'self-travel' (Barnett, 2007), and getting students over a 'developmental bridge' (Kegan, 1994; Lamm et al., 2006) described teaching dissertation students in terms of 'guiding students up the thesis mountain'. Their focus was upon thesis writing. However, they also encouraged students to learn from each other and gain support. They created an online website of students recalling 'stories' on video. They used the metaphor of 'guide' and 'climber' but did not go into detail as to why they chose these terms other than noting the fact that it was not uncommon for students to describe their dissertation in these terms.

Two overarching types of metaphor commonly emerge from the analysis of drawings: structural and ontological. Sometimes both metaphors may be present in individual drawings.

Structural Metaphors

The structural metaphor concerns how one thing or concept is related to another thing or concept: in theoretical terms this may be shown as a 'source domain' which relates to a 'target domain' (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003, p.258; Shutova and Teufel, 2010). Sometimes this metaphor is called the 'source-path-goal schema' or simply the 'path schema' (Ingebrethsen, 2013, p.8). It is characterised by a source location/ starting point and a goal/ destination point on a line and a moving observer. Ingebrethsen (2013) goes on to say that bridges, doors and portals often represent the path schema. Another common visualisation is the concept of physical obstacle along the path.

Ontological Metaphors

The Ontological metaphor concerns various concepts of being. For instance, in his book 'Images of Organization', Morgan (1986) analyses organizations in various ways, such as how they may be imagined as being machines. This metaphor accords with the classic 1936 film 'Modern Times' in which production line workers operate with machine-like motions (Chaplin, 1936). The ontological concept of the 'Container' is a metaphor which depicts each of us as a container with a boundary surface and an in-out orientation (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.29). This allows individuals to showed what is going on inside their 'container', including thoughts, ideas, feelings and emotions. Some drawings may also show what is happening outside of the container, sometimes depicting boundaries between different areas (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.29) of study, personal life, and work.

2.1.5 Different Student Journeys – The influence of Educational Culture

The uniqueness of each student's journey means that their learning experience may be anywhere along a continuum from instrumental to transformative. It may also be heavily influenced by the prevailing educational culture. For instance (Starr-Glass and Ali, 2012) compare 2 different assessment strategies for the same undergraduate dissertation running in 2 different countries (The Czech Republic and the United States). They distinguish between an 'External Paradigm' and an 'Internal Paradigm': the External Paradigm is objectivist in its epistemology, in effect summarising and 'capping' the experience of students within their degree. It assumes that students will develop to a pre-determined extent due to their inherent abilities; the Internal Paradigm is constructivist in its epistemology and aims to act as a bridge to life beyond the degree through a process which culminates in the dissertation. It

also assumes that students develop via their interaction with the environment which is open-ended (Starr-Glass and Ali, 2012).

Thus, the educational culture can play a decisive role in the student experience. This culture is influenced at a macro level by national governments and educational and professional bodies. International students who have been educated previously in an External Paradigm are perhaps more likely to find difficulties in learning within an Internal Paradigm. In truth, the prevalent paradigm in the UK, as far as dissertations are concerned, appears to be trying to satisfy both the Internal and External requirements. It views the Internal requirements of learning the research techniques *and* seeks to transform individuals – an External requirement - into critical thinkers (QAA, 2015 – see **Appendix 7.1, p.305**). UK students are thus driven by both an instrumental motive to achieve the given competences necessary for their qualification (and hence their future employment in a standards-driven society) and a transformational motive to become reflexive, life-long learners. It is hardly, therefore, surprising that students' paradigms of learning in a typical post-graduate class range right across the Internal-External paradigm continuum.

2.1.6   Threshold Concepts

A related term to the concept of students engaged upon a learning journey is that of the *threshold concept.* If we consider the challenges which students face as they encounter the various philosophies and methodologies which may be applied to research, we may well imagine that this could well be a time of crossing new thresholds. Originally applied to anthropology and the rites of passage which individuals go through as they pass from one stage of their life to another, threshold concepts have been applied to the learning journeys of students as they progress through profound experiences which change their understanding in some fundamental way.

The term 'threshold concept' has been popularised by (Meyer and Land, 2003) who define it as:

> *… akin to a portal, opening up a new and previously inaccessible way of thinking about something. It represents a transformed way of understanding, or interpreting, or viewing something without which the learner cannot progress.*
> *(Meyer and Land, 2003)*

As previously discussed, many students find dissertations bring about profound developmental changes in themselves, for that is their intention (Barnett, 2007). Flanagan (2014) outlines a number of key features of a threshold concept. The following 3 are worthy of note here. The first is that threshold concepts are *Transformative*: once understood, a threshold concept changes the way in which the student views the situation. The next is that they often prove to be *Troublesome* for students. Thirdly, and of relevance to research projects (especially work-based ones, which often cut across functional disciplines), is that they are *Integrative*: threshold concepts, once learned, are likely to bring together different aspects of knowledge, skills and behaviours.

Boundary-crossing: stages of learning maturity at university

Boundary-crossing may occur in a broad sense - for instance, Perry's theory of cognitive development (Zhang and Watkins, 2001, pp.239-240) proposes that when university students first start learning they may regard knowledge as something which is 'dualistic' (e.g. right or wrong) and 'concrete'; later on they may start thinking that different situations require different interpretations – a 'contingent' view; and later still they may 'commit' themselves to their own views based upon their previous reading and experience. Passing from one stage to another in this way represents the crossing of an academic threshold, of a maturing of students' thinking. This is not to say that all students will necessarily achieve this, though most would be expected to reach the 'contingent' view by completion of their degree. That students must abandon prior understanding and go through a 'liminal' stage (literally to cross a boundary) represents a time of uncertainty until the new position is reached, and an updated understanding is consolidated.

Boundary-crossing while doing dissertations

Boundary-crossing may also occur specifically. The following thresholds have been identified in terms of the dissertation task itself: dissertation proposals; literature reviews; writing conventions (Humphrey and Simpson, 2012, p.737). Many students who have work experience can suggest ways to improve upon a situation but find it difficult to use a theoretical framework within the research (Kiley, 2015, p.56). In most of these cases students face difficulties because they are being required to work in a more autonomous fashion whilst faced with the cognitive challenge of assimilating a host of new research concepts. All of this is likely to place additional pressure on students, raising the issues of stress and well-being.

2.1.7 Students' self-belief in the dissertation task – Self-Efficacy

As students face the challenges of the dissertation their sense of *self belief* in their ability to overcome difficulties comes to the fore. The psychological concept of *self-efficacy,* introduced by (Bandura, 1977) has been widely used by researchers to investigate this phenomenon.

Bandura (1977, 1985,1997) views learning as the interaction between the environment, behaviour and the context in which it is gained as contributing towards the learner's internal processes. He states that there are four main sources of what he terms 'self-efficacy' (the self-belief that a person has that he/she can attain some given goal), as follows: 'mastery experiences' in which we become more confident after successfully doing something that is difficult; 'vicarious experience' where we observe others doing something, causing us to reflect; 'social persuasion' whereby others tell us that we can achieve a particular goal; and 'physiological/ emotional states' which influence our ability and motivation to achieve something. This theory thus considers both cognitive and affective domains of learning in an integrative way.

The theory of self-efficacy continues to be well-used by researchers, although often in a rather positivist way; for instance, Roick and Ringeisen (2018) looked at students' maths performance in higher education and found positive correlations between self-efficacy and students' mathematical performance. It has also been used in studies which investigate the concept of the 'self-regulated learner', in which learners manage their own learning, defined by Zimmerman (2002, p.65) as referring to 'self-generated thoughts, feelings and behaviors that are oriented to attaining'. Thus, Pintrich and de Groot (1990) considered self-efficacy within their discussion of self-regulated learning in the classroom; Zimmerman (2002) included it as a component of his 3 phase model of self-regulation, placing it in the 'self-motivation' section of the 'Forethought Phase' (the other two phases are 'Performance and then 'Self-Reflection' – see **Appendix 7.4, p.310 Zimmerman's 2002 model**). Further discussion of self-regulation lies outside the scope of this thesis but a useful overview of the various theories is given by Panadero (2017) who discusses six self-regulated learning models. However, two quotations from the most recent work of Wagener (2018) which considers the writing of a Master's thesis are worth noting: he states that 'self-regulating cognition and affect are clearly linked and are both important' (p.238). With direct relevance

to my 'Guide Process' he also states that 'affects are at the centre of the process of writing a dissertation' (p.237).

Perhaps another reason for self-efficacy's continued use is Bandura's eagerness to use it as a scaled measure in psychological experiments, and his publication of how self-efficacy scales and accompanying questionnaires could be constructed to assess individual self-efficacy in specified areas (Bandura, 1985). The development of such research instruments meant that researchers could carry out self-efficacy assessments on research participants before and after conducting teaching and learning interventions; this allowed them to measure changes which they would then seek to correlate with other learning variables relevant to the interventions. For instance, a scale for measuring the self-efficacy of student radiographers was devised by Kitching et al.,(2011). In another example, self-efficacy was used by Bresó et al. (2011) in an experiment to measure the effects of a workshop intervention in dealing with student stress and anxiety prior to exams (self-efficacy reduction is a sign of 'burn-out).

A validated and still-current self-efficacy instrument which seeks to measure the research self-efficacy of students is that of Phillips and Russell (1994). [Note: An adaptation of their questionnaire was used in Phase 1 of the 'Guide Process' – see Methodology, p.127].

However, it could be argued that qualitative research which explores the *sources* of self-efficacy as outlined by Bandura (1977, 1985, 1997,) would allow the researcher to understand how to teach students, in terms of the following: mastery of the subject; learning vicariously from others; being encouraged by a mentor/ teacher; and control of emotional and physiological states. I use these self-efficacy sources in my skills textbook (Gallagher 2016, p.49), giving an example of a rock climber sizing up a prospective route, to demonstrate how consideration of self-efficacy principles may be linked to goal-setting [see **Professional Portfolio, Appendix 9.2, p. 347].**This example is not intended to measure self-efficacy but as a way for students to consider strategies for self-improvement. In a similar way, teachers might devise teaching strategies based upon these principles, as demonstrated by this thesis.

2.1.8   Stress and well-being along the dissertation journey

The previous accounts of students going on academic 'journeys' (sec 2.1.4) and crossing 'thresholds' (sec 2.1.6), encountering cognitive and affective obstacles to their progress as they do so, implies that they are facing demands (or 'stressors') which may lead to a 'stress response'. This section explores the literature on stress to further illustrate the situation.

The terms 'stress' and 'stressor' as used in this way may be attributed to Hans Selye, who led the way in ground-breaking research in this field (Szabo, Tache and Somogyi, 2012). The stages of this response were: alarm, resistance, and then exhaustion (p.476). The stressors could be physical, chemical, or psychological (p.474). He conducted his work through experiments on rats, measuring the physical changes to the neuroendocrine system, which in turn affected almost every other organ system (p.474). Through these studies he was able to visibly show, in a very convincing manner, the damaging effects of the stressors upon the rats' adrenal glands, lymph nodes etc. Soon, his work was adopted by psychologists who applied it to humans and he himself went on to write further books, including the much-quoted *Stress in Health and Disease* (Selye, 1976).

However, the premise that 'stress' was always damaging, the so-called 'negative linear approach', for instance as advocated by Jamal (1985; Muse, Harris and Field, 2003, p.351) has been challenged . Thus, the so-called 'positive linear approach' suggested that stress was necessary to motivate performance (e.g. Arsenault and Dolan, 1983). However, a third way seems to have come into vogue, termed the 'inverted-U theory (Muse, Harris and Field, 2003) which postulates that low to medium levels of stress (i.e. 'stressors') are necessary to stimulate an increase in performance but that at higher levels this results in a decrease in performance as the subject goes into the exhaustion stage.

Clearly this discussion can only touch upon the research that has been conducted into stress. However, the statistics clearly point to a very real problem for many students within the Higher Education sector, and it is becoming worse. Informing the public debate, a recent report in The Lancet (Galante et al., 2018) states that the number of students requiring access to student counselling grew by 50% from 2010 to 2015. The problem appears to be widespread across educational sectors: a recent study of Irish higher education students showed that 40% were reporting signs of depression, 37% were anxious, and 30% were stressed (Deasy et al., 2016). Stressors arise from a variety of sources, of which actual demands of study are but one: others include finances, learning to live away from home, and

personal relationships (Laidlaw, McLellan and Ozakinci, 2016). The implications of the proven links between excessive stress, student physical health and psychological well-being are clear from these studies.

At this juncture it is useful to briefly consider how mental health may be defined. The question is whether the absence of mental illness (e.g. clinical depression) means that someone is mentally healthy. Some psychologists argue that mental health is not a unitary concept but has two independent components: mental health (to do with mental illness) and mental well-being, which is associated with emotionally 'flourishing' (Keyes, 2007). Keyes (p.98) defines this in a number of positive terms including personal growth and purpose in life.

Clearly students' mental health and well-being is a complex issue. However, I would argue that research into how Master's students perceive their demanding dissertation experience, and more pragmatically, how teachers might support students through their dissertation, should be a high priority. Of course, they are not health professionals and their role is not to assume this is so, but as part of a bigger holistic university strategy and in accordance with their caring values as teachers, they may be part of the solution.

However, students themselves put up barriers. Thus, whilst there appears to be a growing acceptance amongst the public in general to mental health problems, as shown for instance in the recent *Mental Health Awareness Week* (Mental Health Foundation, 2018), it appears that higher education students are not exempt from self-stigmatising attitudes and feelings of shame or weakness in seeking help and support (Laidlaw, McLellan and Ozakinci, 2016). When they do seek help their preferred point of contact is often friends on their course, rather than teachers, student counselling services (Deasy et al., 2016) or even their own families, who they might not want to worry. **Appendix 9.1** (pp. 341-346) in my attached Professional Portfolio shows survey results of how my own higher education students regarded me through my roles as a tutor in 2012; I regarded my findings as a critical incident, as they shattered my belief that students saw me as someone they would come to as a counsellor, a guardian of sorts, or a bridge to other support services; this was in spite of rating me well in scholarly characteristics, as shown graphically on p.343 [Note: this was the critical incident I shared with students during the 'Guide Process' teaching and learning intervention].

Sam Gyimah, UK Universities Minister, has acknowledged the reluctance of students to confide within the present university student support systems. He states that what is required

are more "sophisticated" ways of getting to know at-risk students (Zeffman, 2018). For, as Fook and Gardner (2007) state, 'talking about emotions is therapeutic'. How this aim, admirable though it may be, translates into actionable strategies is a moot point but is likely to be a multi-pronged approach from various stakeholders, with the student pathway as the common ground. Thus, effective university monitoring and student support systems are required. There is much written on this, but it falls outside the remit of my thesis, which is situated in the teaching and learning environment. One academic area that I have addressed through one of my own textbooks is students' anxieties in doing presentations (Gallagher, 2016 – see **Portfolio Appendix 8.7.2** p.332) which adapts the cognitive behavioural therapy model of Williams (2003) in overcoming anxiety. I would suggest that the 'Guide Process' of this thesis, plays a vital role helping to allay students' anxieties, as it has been designed to encourage them to discuss their dissertation concerns in a non-threatening environment. Of course, trusting relationships are the key to encouraging students to confide in others. However, allaying fears is not the only way in which emotions play an important role in teaching and learning: enter the role of *positive emotions,* which are discussed next.

2.1.9 Positive Emotions: Short Term and Long Term Effects

The above section on stress and well-being along the dissertation journey has focused upon negative emotions such as anxiety, albeit there is one mention of 'emotional flourishing' (Keyes, 2007) through which individuals grow psychologically. As discussed earlier (see 'Defining Emotions', p.42), Ekman's (1992, p.171) *basic* emotions are aimed at our evolutionary survival in dealing with '*fundamental life tasks...* such as fighting, falling in love, dealing with predators', and that negative emotions tend to predominate. This section goes some way to redressing the balance by discussing research which indicates that positive emotions also play important roles in learning. As opposed to the evolutionary bias of the negative emotions, positive emotions tend to have more indirect but long term benefits (Fredrickson and Cohn, 2008, p.782).

Firstly, it should be noted that academic debate on 'positive emotions' is implied under different 'affective' banners. As Cooper (2011) points out, Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development (for earlier discussion see p.41) intrinsically links emotion to intellectual learning. Founded on the relationship between teacher and learner, with the aim of encouraging the student to venture into this zone, the actions of the teacher in eliciting an emotional response from their students is directly implied. Similarly, in advocating learning from experience, Dewey (1938) states that it is the 'educator's responsibility…that the problem…*arouses* [my italics] in the learner an active quest for information and for production of new ideas'. Additionally, in his research of self-efficacy Bandura (1985) advocates the *encouraging* of learners by others and of being in a physically and *emotionally* strong state when about to tackle a difficult task (see p.50).

Meanwhile, Zimmerman (2002) argues that students' self-regulatory strategies are paramount to their learning and that these depend upon factors that include the affective domain (for model see p. 310). As he states: 'One form of self-reaction involves feelings of self-satisfaction and positive affect regarding one's performance. Increases in self-satisfaction enhance motivation, whereas decreases in self-satisfaction undermine further efforts to learn' (Zimmerman 2002, p.68).

In a similar vein, Pekrun, Elliot and Maier (2009) test their model of integrated achievement goals, achievement emotions, and academic performance with psychology students. Their results confirm the following: mastery goals are positively associated with *enjoyment* and negatively with *boredom* experienced during activities; performance approach goals (i.e.

which aim to improve performance) are positively associated with *hope* and *pride,* which are a result of positive outcomes; and performance avoidance goals (i.e. which are strategies aimed at reducing possible harm) are related to emotions of *anxiety*, *hopelessness*, and shame, which are a result of negative outcomes.

More recent research gives further recognition to the role of positive emotions and strategies for teachers to consider in their teaching, a move which is welcomed by some educational researchers (Villavicencio and Bernardo, 2013). Thus, Cooper (2011) focusing upon the vital need for *empathy* between teacher and students cites the work of the neuroscientist Damasio, (1996) who states that in order for students to be open and ready to explore, they need to feel emotionally positive and safe. Developing the positive theme, with a view to the long term benefits these can bring, Fredrickson and Cohn (2008) propose their 'Broaden and build theory of positive emotions'. They discuss the importance of play, suggesting that it builds physical (Boulton and Smith, 1992) and social resources (Gervais and Wilson, 2005), and increases levels of creativity (Sherrod and Singer, 1989) in developing adults. Their model (Fredrickson and Cohn, 2008, p.783) depicts positive emotions leading to a broadening of novel thoughts, activities and relationships which in turn develop enduring personal resources of social support, resilience, skills and knowledge. They state these have additional benefits of supporting long term health, survival, and fulfilment of individuals, feeding back into an upward emotional spiral.

Repertoire of Positive and Negative Emotions

As further research occurs, so the available repertoire through which emotions may be classified expands, in both positive and negative terms. Thus, in a large-scale study of Chinese students, Lei and Cui (2016) identify the following: 'Positive High Arousal' emotions of *enjoyment*, *hope* and *pride*, 'Positive Low Arousal' emotions of *satisfaction*, *calm* and *relief*, as well as 'Negative High Arousal' emotions of *anger*, *anxiety* and *shame*, and 'Negative Low Arousal' emotions of *hopelessness*, *boredom*, *depression*, and *exhaustion-upset*. Again, emphasising the positive impact of emotions, in yet another large scale study (this time in the Philippines) (Villavicencio and Bernardo, 2013), echoing the findings of Pekrun, Elliot and Maier (2009), find that emotions of *enjoyment* and *pride* are both positive predictors of maths grades, with students who exhibited higher levels showing higher levels of self-regulation and grades.

Sociocultural moderators of emotions

The research of Lei and Cui (2016, p.1550), in considering students' emotions and their correlation to achievement, suggests that different cultural backgrounds (by Chinese region) in terms of the socially accepted 'testing' norms is associated with achievement; in particular that both positive and negative emotions appear to be more prevalent in regional cultures which place a high value upon test scores. This finding is consistent with the belief that emotions are constructed and negotiated in different social contexts (Helmich et al., 2017).

Applying the 'human touch' in the classroom

The latest findings of Loon and Bell (2018) on final year business students adds to research that indicates the 'direct way in which emotions moderate knowledge and cognitive skills and the indirect relationship between knowledge and cognitive skills via reflection'. Their study seeks to address the problem of teaching large classes (they had 161 students on a strategic management course at a UK university) which brings with it the problem of losing the 'human touch' between teacher and students. They state that the aim of their teaching approach/ their research is to 'influence students' learning by enhancing their positive emotions' (p.694). They acknowledge that their approach (students are organised into groups and use computer simulated games) is but one way of achieving this; as an example of other approaches they cite the research of Ward and Shortt (2013) which blends the cognitive and affective domains in management education, a trend that is becoming more common in management education (p.702) .

The research of Ward and Shortt (2013) has strong commonality with various aspects of this thesis in its aims, methodology and findings: it considers 'a visual approach to drawing out emotion in student learning' in a fashion which is similar to the use of drawings in this doctoral research. Their aim is to evaluate (management) students' learning experiences during their degree and to offer them a 'voice' to influence the design of future programmes. Using a qualitative methodology they interpret 'participant-produced drawings' and propose that this method offers their students 'space to emotionally respond' (p.435) to their learning. They state that using drawings in this qualitative way gives a more effective way of deriving meaning from rich affective data compared to traditional, quantitative methods.

Proactively crafting pedagogic spaces through emotion to unite feeling, thinking and life-self student discourses

Finally, and of significance to the over-arching 'becoming' nature of this thesis – i.e. developing students as aspirant researchers and the teacher as guide – is the tentative framework of positive transformational affect following students' achievement through their learning transition in their course, proposed by Beard, Humberstone and Clayton (2014). They suggest that they obtain positive emotion of pleasure from achievement – ie of knowing more, doing academic work, and getting feedback from their tutors. At the same time they experience feelings of belonging from being part of class groups. They propose that gradually a process of transformation can occur in which emotions 'broaden out'; they gain pleasure from increased self-awareness, of challenging and reconstructing self; this is an ontological process of being and becoming (**Appendix 7.5**, p.311 illustrates their framework). Significantly for the aims of this thesis, they state:

> *Our contention is that higher education might proactively craft pedagogic spaces so as to unite the feeling discourse, the thinking discourse (epistemological self) and the wider life-self (ontological) discourse.*

<div align="right">

Beard, Humberstone and Clayton (2014, p.630)

</div>

2.2 BEING AND BECOMING THROUGH UNIVERSITY TEACHER/ STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

2.2.1 Introduction

This section supports the assertion that teaching is essentially a relationship-driven process, and the nature of that relationship is dependent upon what teachers and learners can bring to the teaching and learning scenario. As such, the teacher/student relationship plays a vital role in helping students manage their dissertation journeys and deal with their emotions, as outlined in the previous section (2.1). It takes the position that knowledge is co-constructed during the interaction between teacher and learner. It will begin by looking generally at Teacher-Student relationships and then consider supervisory relationships. The aim of reviewing this literature is to discuss the relationship requirements/issues pertinent to 'The Guide Process'.

2.2.2 Teaching as a Relationship

The belief that teaching is a relational process which takes place between the teacher and the learner is not something new, as the seminal work of Dewey (1916) shows. That which is to be learned, he states, may be anything from 'ready-made ideas' to 'perceived meanings or connections'. It is with the latter that he has most to say, describing how:

> *the teacher has provided the conditions which stimulate thinking and has taken a sympathetic attitude towards the activities of the learner by entering into a common or conjoint experience.'*
> (Dewey, 1916, p.160).

This is not the language of someone who advocates (only) a simple learning-by-rote approach, nor is it the attitude of the strict schoolmaster who operates in an impersonal way, at arm's length from students. Whether or not teachers of the time followed these principles, is a debate which lies outside the scope of this thesis, but the pedagogical thinking was certainly there. Dewey goes further; he states that the teacher does not just act as a passive bystander when it comes to students learning to think problems through, saying:

The alternative to furnishing ready-made subject matter and listening to the accuracy with which it is reproduced is not quiescence, but participation, sharing, in an activity. In such shared activity, the teacher is a learner, and the learner is, without knowing it, a teacher…
(Dewey, 1916, p.160).

The notion that teachers learn from their students as they share experiences could have been taken from a present-day educational journal. For instance, Wenger (1998, p.226) outlines some of his principles of learning. In particular, he advocates that learning is 'fundamentally experiential and … social', once again emphasising the importance of a sharing of experience in a very human way. He talks of learning as 'becoming' (p.5, p.227) in that it changes who we are in the context of our communities. Thus, at a basic level, the teacher learns from class feedback. At Master's level there is much scope for the teacher to learn from students' research work; this could be a reference noted, a website discovered, a new perspective on a topic. When a teacher sits down with a student embarking on their research project there is a meeting of minds. In terms of Vygotsky (1978) their 'zones of proximal development' overlap. The student may initially regard this as one-way but the good teacher recognises the student's prior knowledge and abilities – aspects of what Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001) refer to as '**presage**'- which is brought by them to the teaching and learning interaction [see **Appendix 7.3, p.308 for details of Biggs' '3P'** model of teaching and learning].

Fitzmaurice (2008, p.348) states that 'values of care, responsibility, respect and trust' are essential in teaching. These values are all indicative of, and can be developed through, a healthy student/ teacher relationship, which is itself indicative of shared experiences. Meanwhile Frymier and Houser (2000, p.207) list the following interpersonal variables that researchers have found to be positively related to learning:

- Immediacy (Andersen, 1979; Chrisophel, 1990)
- Communicator style (Norton, 1997)
- Affinity- seeking (Frymier, 1994)
- Self Disclosure (Sorensen, 1989)
- Solidarity (Nussbaum and Scott, 1980)
- Humor (Wanzer and Frymier, 1999)
- Caring (Teven and McCroskey, 1997)
- Compliance gaining (Plax and Kearney, 1992)

For instance, 'immediacy' considers the ability of the teacher to connect with their students and to be 'close' to them via their verbal and non-verbal mannerisms, eye contact, and

general demeanour (Benson et al., 2005, p.237); also, teachers will recognise that they need to 'gain compliance' of their students if they are to learn – being able is insufficient, they have to be willing; and a further example of the above list is that those classes that are a joy to teach are often the ones where teacher and students can share a sense of humour along the way. Again, the pivotal nature of the student/ teacher relationship is demonstrated. Later in this section I will return to the use of 'self-disclosure', as listed above. This has relevance to sharing of personal examples as a means of developing rapport (Smith, 2011) between teacher and students.

2.2.3   Supervisory relationships

The term 'supervising' carries different meanings, so it is worthwhile to consider some of the more common definitions. Thus, the role of the *supervisor* may be regarded in basic terms as providing performance feedback and coaching and guidance in certain tasks, or more broadly, as that of a 'multiple relationship incorporating aspects of teaching, personal therapy, collegial problem solving, apprenticeship, and formal performance evaluation' (Davidson, 2006; Schindler and Talen, 1996, cited in Johnson, 2007, p.259). This multitude of options is problematic; the question of what the supervising relationship should be is one which is often asked by both students and new supervisors (Grant, 2005). As my 'Guide Process' is underpinned by my own pedagogical and philosophical beliefs, some time will be spent now on examining the literature of a number of supervisory models which have informed its construction. Thus, one of the essential premises of the 'Guide Process' – to all intents hidden from view like the 'basic assumptions' of Schein's (Schein, 2004) cultural model – will be made visible.

Different types of supervision dependent upon teaching beliefs

When it comes to supervision of Master's research students, Grant (2005) delivers a useful 4-category clarification of philosophical approaches: 'the psychological', 'the traditional-academic', 'the techno-scientific', and 'the neo-liberal'. Despite the terminology, these are all types that are recognisable in practice to many teachers. 'The traditional-academic' (p.341) stems from the academic culture of professors who challenge students with highly intellectual debate; their relationship, though academically intense, is deliberately impersonal. My 'Guide Process' does not adhere to this approach. 'The techno-scientific' (p.342) is similar but focuses on the processes of teaching research methods, often in a positivist manner. My 'Guide Process' includes the teaching of research methods as an aim but does not seek to

achieve this in such an impersonal manner, and it also has other student development aims. 'The neo-liberal' stance (p.343) is a one of negotiated contracts between teacher and students set amid the context of fee-paying students attending universities who promote the instrumentality of their course provision to employability prospects for their students. My 'Guide Process' model is pragmatic to the extent that it accepts that students probably have a mix of motivations, both instrumental and transformative (see thesis p. 66), and so allows for this. However, it is 'the psychological' approach that my 'Guide Process' aspires to; this is defined as 'the process by which, through a supportive interpersonal relationship, the expert sensitively and flexibly guides the novice along a trajectory to maturity as an independent researcher' (Grant, 2005, p.341).

Different types of supervision dependent upon Student Maturity

An interesting early model of teaching supervision in adult education is the (Grow, 1991) Staged Self-Directed model. Based upon the earlier (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982) Situational Model of Leadership , this model advocates that the supervisory style adopted by a teacher should be determined by the maturity of the candidate (i.e. learner) as defined by a combination of their ability, willingness, and confidence in performing a particular task.

The Grow (1991) model has 4 'stages', viewed as quadrants: in stage 1, the student is 'dependent' and the teacher should act as a 'coach'; in stage 2, the student is 'interested' requiring the teacher to be a 'motivator' or 'guide'; in stage 3, the student is 'involved' and the teacher is a 'facilitator'; and in stage 4, the student is 'self-directed' and the teacher is a 'consultant' or 'delegator'. However, the Hersey and Blanchard (1982) model, and by extension, the Grow (1991) model, have been criticised for lack of verifiable validity through experiments. It has been found to be only 'partially supported', although studies show that high maturity followers need less help from supervisors and new followers need more structure (Vecchio, 1987).

There is further research on supervisory styles with doctoral students. Thus Gurr (2001) considers the level of support that a supervisor might offer a doctoral student. Like Grow (1991) he acknowledges that students are individuals who may benefit from different levels of support. The dimensions he uses for his model are 'Student's Status (going from 'Dependent' to 'Completely Autonomous') and 'Supervisor's Recent Style' (going from 'Hands-on' to 'Hands-off'). Following on from this, Deuchar (2008) considers doctoral

supervision styles of 'facilitator', 'director' or 'critical friend', drawing on the 'Dynamic Model' outlined by Gurr (2001).

Recently, Foong, Nor and Nolan (2018) in a study of university teachers endeavouring to encourage reflective thinking of an undergraduate cohort of Malaysian student teachers, proposed a model aimed at collective (as opposed to individual) reflection by learners which refers to 'co-production in practice' (p.226). It has four increasingly autonomous supervisory quadrants of 'Master' [i.e. acting like an expert who gives closed instructions] , 'Coach', 'Navigator' and 'Collaborator' (p.237) designed to match the abilities of their students. In this regard the background students may differ according to 'orientations, knowledge of educational systems, expectations, priorities and their own learning interests' (p.227).

It is interesting to note from the last example (Foong, Nor and Nolan, 2018) that one of the stated aims of supporting student teachers in their reflective thinking is to enable them, in turn, to supervise their own (future) students. That this is accomplished via a range of supervisory styles dependent upon the stage of reflective thinking parallels much of the previous discussion on developing students as doctoral students across a number of *stages*. Further critique of the validity and usefulness of Stage Models is given in the Methodology.

Validity and Usefulness of Stage Models which illustrate Learner Maturity

The validity and usefulness of theories which incorporate stages of learner maturity and matching teacher styles needs to be held lightly; the models which they generate are not necessarily meant to be prescriptive, nor can they be, as the social situations to which they appertain are complex with a myriad of individual factors to be taken into account. However, Gardner (2014) provides a useful perspective on this when she states that consideration of stages of reflection is useful - even if they are not followed in the sequence shown in the models – because they 'identify different ways people reflect'.

On a related note, the prevalence of models which have two dimensions (i.e. typically in this thesis teacher styles versus student ability/ maturity) is itself a pragmatic approach to a complex situation: for instance, whilst three dimensional models may be drawn on the two dimensional medium of paper, these are far outnumbered by the two dimensional variety.

On an exploratory note, there is research to suggest that the human brain views three dimensional physical objects in terms of a series of snapshots in two dimensions and then creates recognition by a process of interpolating them (Bulthoff and Edelman, 1992). Were

the same logic to be applied to the 'object' being a model, then it would suggest that two dimensional models would predominate, on the basis that the human brain finds it natural to make sense of dimensions in this way. Taking this a stage further, the way in which dimensions are 'measured' would determine the format of the model; for instance, each dimension could simply have measures of 'high' and 'low', which would infer four possible categories across the two dimensions (e.g. the Grow (1991), Foong, Nor and Nolan (2018) models of student maturity vs teacher style). In this case the models are not so much determined by the initial identification of categories but by the choice of which two dimensions to correlate. As such the resultant categories may be regarded as states of being which the theorist then gives meaning to by giving them names (e.g. Grow's (1991) Coach, Motivator, Facilitator and Consultant) and then builds a narrative around to justify their terminology. However, by using 'low' and 'high' on each dimension there are further implications: firstly that the teacher or student can somehow measure individuals/ themselves on these dimensions so as to place them in either the 'low' or 'high' classification; next, the question of whether or not an individual may move between 'low' and 'high' (for instance, in terms of student maturity) and if so, what conditions might favour this, including timescale. Taken at face value, testing of the 'variables' is characteristic of a positivist approach to research in the manner of Grant's (2005) 'techno-scientific' approach (see Grant's categories (p.64) to teaching research methods). However, if the aim of the model is to provide a means of holding a visual two-dimensional picture, with categories which can have meaning attributed to them, then the argument here, as previously referred to by Gardner (2014), is that such categories provide the basis for a sharing of the descriptive nature of the social phenomena. As such they can inform the qualitative researcher, especially when considered alongside other theories.

Thus, the needs for supervisors to adopt different approaches to their students has been consistently identified through the above models and covers a range from undergraduate to postgraduate levels. This challenges supervisors to be able to switch their supervisory/ teaching mode; as Carroll (2009) suggests: 'Supervisors, not supervisees, are the ones who accommodate, who move, become flexible and adapt their supervisory interventions to meet the learning styles of supervisees.'

In summary, the situational approach, whereby the supervisor/ teacher adopts different relationship approaches to their students dependent upon the latter's present maturity with the

task at hand, appears to be alive and well in research circles. Criticisms relating to the weak 'verification' of the 4 quadrants approach via positivist-influenced research are likely to remain. However, it would seem to lend itself to constructionist (Crotty, 1998) debate and certainly appears to appeal to the intuitive feelings of its practitioner-researchers.

Accepting the premise that teachers should use different relationship styles according to the situation does, however, raise the issues of consistency of teaching perceived by students, and perhaps more significantly, the teacher's ability and agility in using different relationship approaches. The latter is a possible area for further research, within the specific realm of the dissertation.

Having established the concept of different types of teacher-student relationships, the following sections devote some time to further discussion of the mentor, transactional versus transformational relationships, and relationship-enabling issues such as rapport, openness and vulnerability, which in turn are dependent upon trust: these are all relevant to informing the 'Guide Process'. in this section on relationships, consideration will be given to how power differences between teacher and learners can influence their relationships.

Mentorship

As discussed above, the initial focus in supervising dissertations is often task specific, necessitating a directive approach. Mentorship, on the other hand, is more concerned with the development of the whole person, and therefore more forward-looking. Thus, the relationship between mentor and mentee is psychologically deeper:

> *Mentor relationships are dynamic, emotionally connected, reciprocal relationships in which the faculty member or supervisor shows deliberate and generative concern for the student…beyond mere acquisition of clinical skills*

Johnson, 2007, p.259

According to Johnson (2007, p.260) a mentor 'provides the *protégé* with knowledge, advice, counsel, challenge, and support in their pursuit of becoming a full member of a particular profession'. Morton-Cooper and Palmer (2000, quoted in Fulton, 2013, p.5) include role model, teacher, and guide in their qualities of mentorship. There is thus less emphasis upon the mentor acting in an assessment capacity and more of an ongoing dialogue between parties, particularly as the mentee grows in their personal and professional stature.

Transactional and Transformational Relationships

Johnson (2007) and Johnson et al. (2018) liken the process of *mentoring* to transformational leadership (Bass, 1998), which includes 'Individualized consideration'; this involves leaders coaching, mentoring, and providing feedback …to challenge followers to embrace new ways of thinking and doing, and to reassess values and beliefs' (Anderson, 2017, p.4). In a similar way they liken the process of *supervising* to that of transactional leadership (Bass, 1998) which focuses on subordinates achieving particular task-oriented goals. Thus, they talk of the supervision relationship as a continuum from transactional to transformational. They are keen to point out that students will lie along this continuum, starting at the transactional end and tending to work their way towards the transformational as they mature. However, the mentor/ mentee relationship is dynamic, and different situations (for the same mentees) may require a difference in approach along the continuum.

The reciprocal relationship between supervisor/ mentor and supervisee/mentee becomes deeper traversing the continuum from transactional (supervisory) to transformational (mentoring) approaches. Given the right circumstances the relationship may grow through interaction between supervisor and supervisee, nurtured by trust which is gained over time. However, a word of caution should be sounded at this point: a transformational relationship is not always feasible, nor may it be always desirable, Johnson (2007, p.263). Assuming that it is, as trust develops both parties begin to share deeper-held beliefs and more personal experiences. This leads to the issue of *vulnerability* (Johnson et al., 2018, p.15) which is both a precursor to and a requirement of deeper trust.

2.2.4 The role of Rapport, Openness, Trust and Empathy in Supervisory relationships

Rapport, Openness, Trust

The word 'rapport' is often related to friendliness and caring within a close or sympathetic interpersonal relationship and suggests agreement or harmony (Wilson, Ryan and Pugh, 2010, p.246). Benson et al. (2005, quoted in Smith, 2011, p.234) found that rapport between teacher and students was the result of various factors including: *immediacy*, defined as the ability of the teacher to connect with their students and to be 'close' to them via their verbal and non-verbal mannerisms, eye contact, and general demeanour (Benson et al., 2005, p.237); open-mindedness (i.e. willingness to consider different ideas or perspectives); and

approachability of the teacher. There is evidence to suggest that students tend to rank rapport more highly than teachers, who tend to focus more on teaching content (Benson et al., 2005, p.237). However, Lowman (1994, quoted in Wilson, Ryan and Pugh , 2010, p.246) states that rapport is a 'crucial part of effective teaching'. A key aspect of this relates to rapport's usefulness in encouraging students to tackle deeper transformational challenges. Significantly, rapport is associated with students who are more likely to 'engage in pro-academic student behaviors as well as positive affect toward teachers and course content' (Benson et al., 2005, p.238).

'Openness' might be defined as being 'genuine' in a relationship, of being 'real with one another' and is regarded as essential for encouraging student participation (Smith, 2011, p.237). To be open means being willing to self-disclose. In the teacher/ student relationship a teacher may decide to lead the process with the intention of sparking a reciprocal openness from their students:

> *Students also appreciated tutors who were willing to self-disclose by, for example, using themselves as examples, 'sharing their views with humility' and who were willing to be 'vulnerable' in their work with students.*
>
> Smith, 2011, p.237

In this way the teacher is also modelling behaviour and skills. This may even include elements of *reflexivity*. For the purpose of this thesis, reflexivity is defined as a 'philosophical self-reflection: an introspection involving and inward-looking, sometimes confessional and critical self-critical examination of one's own beliefs and assumptions' (Lynch, 2000, as quoted by Bryman, 2012, p.394).

In order to participate in such an open way, students need to feel secure in a safe, supportive environment (Smith, 2011, p.239). For this to occur they need to be able to feel trust towards their teacher. As previously discussed, teachers play a leadership role in the dissertation, a task which is regarded as challenging and risky by many students. Also, the metaphor of the 'Guide Process' alludes to both challenge and risk. With this in mind, a parallel may be drawn with the work of Clark and Payne (2006) who consider leadership determinants of trust in medium to high risk work situations. Thus, if students are to trust their teachers as a guides, they need to feel confident in their teachers' *ability*, perceive that they have *integrity*, that they treat students with *fairness*, and are willing to share in the spirit of *openness*, as these are all determinants of trust (Clark and Payne, 2006).

For the teacher too, there are sensitivities to be addressed. Being open may lead to being vulnerable, as discussed. Teachers vary in their attitude towards how open they are prepared to be; there are professional identity expectations at stake here, as well as personal readiness to disclose information to others (also refer to vulnerability of self as a researcher, p. 149). In particular there are certain boundaries that need to be maintained between teacher and students from an ethical viewpoint to safeguard the wellbeing, integrity and sense of self-respect of both parties (Johnson et al., 2018, p.18). Thus, whilst openness is a facilitator of rapport, teachers need to balance this with the requirements of maintaining professional boundaries, appropriate to the maturity and experience of their students.

Empathy

Going deeper into an important psychological enabler for teachers to develop the rapport, openness and trust outlined above, is their ability to *empathise* with their students. Empathy may be defined as:

> *a sense of understanding between people – an area of common ground, a sharing of feeling and emotion, an ability to feel and see things through the eyes of others – and understanding that, while hard to define and measure is too important for human relationships to ignore.* (Cooper, 2011)

Whilst the act of *empathising* appears to have overlaps with that of developing rapport, the definition of *empathy* as 'an ability to feel and see things through the eyes of others' suggests something deeper. As Cooper (2011, p.7) points out, empathy in this sense must be one of degree – for we can never be the other person, and therefore never fully feel and see things in exactly the same way. However, it suggests we attempt to do so. We reach out to the other for an emotional connection, perhaps by way of sharing a time when we, or others we know closely, had experienced something similar; perhaps by simply imagining how we might feel as the other, and saying how we imagine we would feel. In this sense empathy is demonstrating a commitment to *caring* (Noddings, 1986). The question thus arises of why we might do this. At one level it may be that we believe that empathising allows us to build the necessary rapport as teachers with students, giving time, attention and acting with enthusiasm, thus favouring a fruitful teaching and learning outcome for both parties – what Cooper (2011, p.50) calls 'fundamental empathy'.

At a higher level the emphasis is not so much *functional* as one of a genuine desire to let the other see that we value them as individuals, seek to boost their self-esteem where necessary,

and that we have their best interests at heart (although ready to tolerate differences between us). This approach is characteristic of who we are and aspire to become in terms of our values (Harris, 2008) and moral stance . Such relationships are characterised by a deep emotional attachment between teacher and students and a climate of mutual respect (p.63); Cooper (2011, p.87) refers to this as 'profound empathy'. It is interesting to note that anecdotally and personally, teachers occasionally emerge from the finish of a teaching session brimming with bonhomie. What they have experienced is a mix of 'pleasure, happiness, fun and humour' whilst teaching and learning with their students, one of the characteristics of developing profound empathy (p.60), and clearly the relationship is of mutual benefit. Reflecting in and on (Schön, 1987) such interactions may facilitate both students and teacher developing in their respective flourishing and authentic becoming (Kreber and Klampfleitner, 2013). Another hallmark of such relationships is that teachers seek to give individual quality time to help and guide individuals; however, their ability to do this is dependent upon factors such as the 'massification of HE' (Nimmo, 2018).

2.2.5   Teacher and Student Relationships: Power Imbalance

Finally, it would be naive to think that power imbalances do not occur between teacher and students as indicated by recent studies on relationship-based reflection which draw upon critical social theory (Ruch, 2009). National cultural norms may play their part – for instance the seminal work of Hofstede demonstrated 'power-distance' (Hofstede, 1980) as one of the dimensions that differentiate various nationalities. Hofstede and other researchers have identified cultural dimensions for many nationalities including both Western and Eastern countries. Thus, students from different countries will have a tendency to differ in their preferred psychological closeness to their teachers. Whilst a high-power distance may be quite relaxing for a teacher in a lecture situation wishing to simply give an interruption-free monologue, the potential for barriers associated with such a gap can create problems for the free and open dialogue representing the ideal environment for the University Teacher as Guide.

More recently Rousseau (2001) has researched the 'psychological contract'. Much of this work relates to the employment contract, but the parallels between work supervisor and worker, and project supervisor (i.e. Teacher) and student would appear likely to have similarities as both involve a dyad, a supervisory relationship, a power imbalance, a task to be

achieved, and mental calculations by each participant of how much time and effort they are prepared to input to the relationship.

Interestingly, Rousseau (2001) uses the schema of what it is to be 'a professor' as an example of how a University Teacher may regard herself for her students according to the two opposing views: 'students are our customers' versus 'students are supposed to sit at the foot of the master'. The schema itself is composed of Elemental beliefs, Associated Meanings and Higher-Level Abstractions regarding employment exchange (P. 518). She refers to the difference in 'associated meanings' between transactions and relationships (p.518). And most revealingly she states that schema need time to develop trust (p.520). The ethical considerations of power-based relationships are discussed further in the methodology – see pp.158 - 158.

2.2.6 Teacher: Identity Development

The intention of educational researchers in exploring empathy, and in particular that of *profound empathy* (Cooper, 2011, p.87), as discussed, appears to be not only to inform teachers but to encourage them to delve deeply into their own professional identities (Ibarra, 1999), reflecting upon and questioning their values and practices.

However, there is another role that teachers may undertake when they wish to improve teaching and learning practice, as is the case with myself in this doctoral research: that of teacher-researcher. This can be challenging due to tensions between the roles of teacher and researcher. According to Bullough (1997, as cited in Taylor, 2017, p.23) 'teacher education must begin by exploring the teacher self'. However, as far as the teacher-researcher is concerned, Taylor (2017, p.18) states that "the process of *becoming* [my italics] a teacher researcher involves shifts in both activity and identity" which suggests that 'becoming a teacher researcher can be a lengthy process, one that benefits from the support and collaboration of colleagues' (p.22). In the terminology of this thesis, Taylor's (2017) becoming for me as a 'University Teacher as Guide' involves 'activities' that include the entire enactment of my doctoral research and its teaching and learning interactions, combined with changes in my own professional identity, which in turn requires reflexivity (Somekh, 2009). To this end, many of the challenges facing dissertation students as previously outlined in the literature review, may be applied to myself as a teacher-researcher; for like them, I am on a journey, a climb, through thresholds (Land, Rattray and Vivian, 2014) and can attest to the emotional demands and the need for support. The suggestion here is that the emotional

demands may be likened to those experienced by teachers who are faced with educational reform, as demonstrated by (Reio, 2005) in Fig. 2.2.4
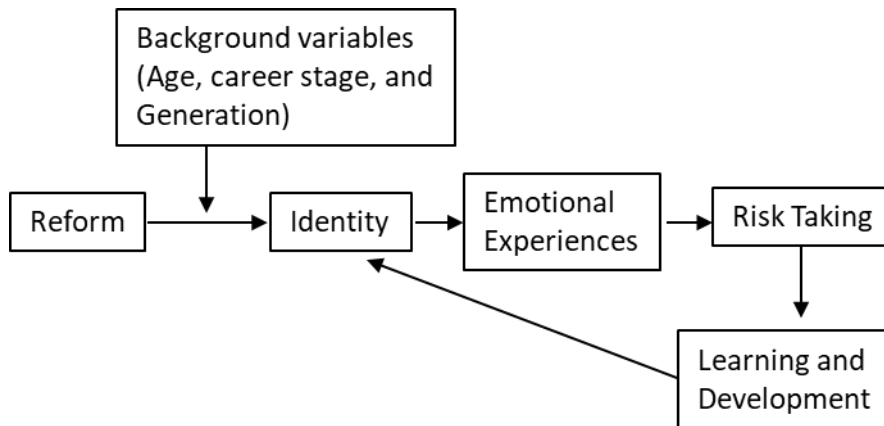
Fig 2.2.4 A conceptual model of the influence of reform on teacher identity, emotions, risk taking, and learning (Reio, 2005, p.992)

Replacing the 'Reform' box with one of educational change as considered by the teacher-researcher makes this a useful visual reminder of some of the key factors. As shown identity is influenced by a variety of personal (biographical) background variables (covered later in sec 2.3.4, p.77) and the 'risk taking' equates to the issues that I have encountered with particular focus on openness (see pp. 65, 66, 67) risk-taking (see pp. 158, 199) and vulnerability (p.149). However, before moving on, it is worth noting that according to Taylor (2017, p.17) 'there is a lack of empirical research that explores how teachers might be supported in constructing identities as teacher researchers'.

2.3 TEACHING AND LEARNING APPROACHES THAT USE STUDENTS' AND TEACHER'S EXPERIENCES AND AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL DATA

2.3.1 Introduction

As discussed in chapter 1, the conceptual framework for 'The Guide Process' has a number of phased activities that utilise the students and teacher's experiences and autobiographical data (also see Chapter 3, Methodology for further details). This section collates various literature which is applicable, under the following sub-headings:

2.3.2 The experiential approach

2.3.3 The use of critical incidents to analyse students' dissertation journeys

2.3.4 Using Biographical Data for Reflective and Reflexive Practice

2.3.5 Using Drawings for Reflective and Reflexive Practice

Thus, this section includes the work of various educational theorists who advocate that teaching with the intention of promoting meaning is often best accomplished wholly, or partially, through relating what is to be learned to the students' own knowledge and experiences. This is not a new idea. For instance Dewey (1938) states 'students should be introduced to scientific subject-matter and be initiated into its facts and laws through acquaintance with everyday social applications'. This is a view backed up by Baxter Magolda (1999) who states that 'experience from students' everyday lives should be the starting point' and that 'Problems for reflection must be situated in students' experiences rather than imposed by teachers for the purpose of teaching a particular school topic' (p.15).

When it comes specifically to learning research methods, Lewthwaite and Nind (2016) advocate 'connecting learners to research, giving direct and immersive experience of research practice and promoting reflexivity' (Lewthwaite and Nind, 2016, p.427). Their view is echoed by other, current writers. Thus Conway (2017) and Hesse-Biber (2015, p.464) advocate the need to make research visible. They state that students need to be engaged in exercises which make it obvious to them how research may be used; secondly, they promote 'learning by doing' (Conway, 2017) or 'to have students conduct their own research' (Hesse-Biber, 2015, p.464); thirdly they state the importance of reflection – 'on seeing the different ways in which research can be engaged' (Conway, 2017). Going further, Hesse-Biber (2015, p.464) suggests that 'students critically reflect on their own research praxis'. These three

principles underlie much of the discussion to follow, including the use of critical incidents. The section leads up to a more detailed discussion (Sec 2.3.3) of the literature pertaining to the nature of the 'biographical' experiences and data as covered or intimated in the chapter, and the linked sub-section (Sec 2.3.4) of using drawings for reflective and reflexive practice.

2.3.2   The experiential approach

The 'learning by doing' approach mentioned above by Conway (2017) has been written about extensively, so will be addressed first. 'Learning by doing' is often related to the theories of such experiential theorists as Kolb, with his 'experiential learning cycle' (Kolb, 1984), and Schön with his work on 'the reflective practitioner' (Schön, 1987). Cowan (2006) adapts these models and uses a series of connected cycles of learning, very much in an action-research approach (Zuber-Skerritt, 1996).

The essence of the experiential approaches outlined above is that students learn through doing. Kolb (1984) describes a series of 4 stages in this process, the first being that of having a 'concrete' experience; in a research methods workshop. Critics of the experiential approach attack what they regard as its over-simplification of the process. However, its widespread use in management training and in universities attests to its popularity amongst trainers and teachers. As Cowan (2006) is keen to point out, the 'concrete' experience could be any experience that the learner had, or any experience of some event that had happened; the experience could be anything which sparked learning – from planned events such as lectures, tutorials, reading a book, group discussions – to unplanned events such as failing at something, or something happening accidentally or unexpectedly. To those critics who dismiss the theory as being very action-focused, experiences may be cognitive – for instance a flash of inspiration. They may also be emotional experiences – for instance the joy of success, the embarrassment of being ridiculed. Reflection on these experiences (i.e. the 'Reflective Observation' stage of the Kolb (1984) cycle) is necessary for learning to occur according to the experiential theorists, albeit that some people are better at this stage than others.

The third stage of the process is termed 'Abstract Conceptualization' by Kolb (1984). This is the point at which the student attempts to attribute meaning to what has happened. Cowan (2006) has a very interesting variation on this stage – he calls it 'generalising' (along the lines of the learner saying inwardly "so, *in general*, this means that so-and-so would appear to be the case"). At this point, according to Cowan (2006), the learner may recall other learning

experiences or retrieve other information which builds the case; this breaks out of the confines of the cycle (which, after all, is only a theoretical model and as such can only exist as a metaphor for the complexity of the learning that is taking place).

The 4th stage of the Kolb (1984) cycle is 'Active Experimentation' which sees the learner experimenting with (hopefully) better ways of doing things and then planning to incorporate them into future experiences.

Often teachers will ask students to 'reflect upon' their learning experiences. Foremost amongst the theorists who support this approach is Moon who gives advice on how to keep learning journals (Moon, 2006).Thus the 'learning by doing' principle links to the reflection of 'ways in which research can happen' (Conway, 2017) and reflection on 'own research praxis'(Hesse-Biber. 2015, p.464).

Application of experiential theory to the teaching of dissertations

Although individual teachers have no doubt used them, there appears to have been little published academically which directly applies theories related to the experiential development of the individual within the teaching of research methods. One model (Simon, 2010) does use a Kolbian-based model to direct students to ask a series of questions as to what to address as they engaged with their dissertation: this appears to give students a workable aide-memoire to the process. However, as outlined earlier, studies have shown that students are experiencing difficulties which may be explained in terms of affective as well as cognitive terms. Thus, Stedmon and Dallos (2009) state that:

> *learning from experience 'involves the whole person including thoughts, feelings and senses and …that learning is this way is a holistic process and that the process of learning is influenced by the social emotional context in which it occurs'.* (Stedmon and Dallos, 2009, cited in Gardner, 2014, p.20)

Models such as Simon (2010) do not do much to address *how* students (or teachers) should cope with these problems. Thus, there appears to be scope for the application of a range of experiential and reflective techniques which have already been developed, especially when the assertion that there has been little published in the area of emotions and their impact upon the teaching and learning process in Higher Education (Quinlan, 2016). Not least amongst useful techniques that may be gainfully explored, within the teaching of dissertations, is the use of 'critical incidents' (Tripp, 1993). This is one of the 'guided activities' within my

'Guide Process'. Critical incidents are defined as being experiences which individuals reflect upon and modify their behaviour in future situations; in the eyes of the individual, these experiences represent significant turning points in their learning.

2.3.3 The use of Critical Incidents to analyse students' dissertation journeys

The use of critical incidents has been mentioned at various places within this literature review as a means of student recall of their experiences, as a teaching and learning intervention. My doctoral study uses critical incidents within Phase 3 of the 'Guide Process' intervention [see methodology: p.136]. This section considers further details of critical incidents and the relevant literature.

Mention has already been made of the metaphor of students being on a journey of discovery as they engage with their dissertations. The telling of such journeys is often captured by the protagonists in stories. Particular incidents emerge as important in some way for the individual; if they have led to significant change within that person, they may be regarded as 'critical incidents' (Flanagan, 1954). These are often emotionally charged events. Using the analogy of the 'Guide Process' metaphor for the journey, mountaineers who are the first to summit great peaks will probably recall their experiences and often commit them to print. For many the experience is essentially one of struggle against not just the mountain but the prevailing conditions; for some it is also a time of deep inner reflection and lessons learnt from particular experiences (Simpson, 1988; Thompson, 2010). No one tells them to write about their experiences or to reflect upon the impact it has had on them. No one told Robert Falconer Scott ('Scott of the Antarctic') that he must write down the details of his epic journey to the South Pole and of his failure to return (Scott, 2008). It is something which people in these situations often just feel compelled to do – something completely natural; firstly, as a record of the experience; secondly to make sense to themselves of what has happened; thirdly to tell others of what they have experienced; sometimes to discuss the appropriateness of their actions to others within their community, perhaps by way of justification or to provide guidance for others. Carrying this analogy forward to the journey that students travel during their dissertation and the challenges they face, academic writers talk of 'critical incidents'(Tripp, 1993) which students learn from through deep reflection and which they may share with others in their community.

Vachon and LeBlanc (2011, p.894) describe a critical incident as 'the thorough description and analysis of an authentic and experienced event within its specific context'. Tripp (1993,

p.8) states that 'incidents happen', but critical incidents are produced by the way we look at a situation: a critical incident is an interpretation of the significance of an event …it is a value judgement'. He also states that critical incidents for teaching professionals do not have to be based upon earth-shattering events but can be 'the unremarkable and everyday events make up our routine professional lives' (Tripp, 1993, p.40).

Tacit Knowledge and connection with Critical Incidents

According to Tripp (1993, p.9), whilst observing an event is part of the critical incident process, it is our development of our understanding of the event and the 'deeper structures' that produce the incident, which signify it as critical. This suggests that we may bring to the surface aspects of *tacit knowledge* or reappraise our basic assumptions – for instance, about why or how something happens, or why people behave as they do. According to Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995, p.8) tacit knowledge is normally knowledge that is not 'easily visible and expressible', that it is highly personal, subjective and 'deeply rooted in an individual's actions and experiences'. They go on to say that tacit knowledge may be related to the skills we develop as 'a master craftsman', or more broadly in terms of how we view the world in terms of 'schemata, mental models, beliefs, and perceptions' (Nonaka and Takeuchi ,1995, p.8). Nonaka and Takeuchi's views on tacit knowledge appear to be consistent with Tripp's suggestion (Tripp, 1993, p.8) that a critical incident is associated with value judgements, and is essentially constructivist in nature – i.e. we construct our own understanding of the event (this could be as individuals or groups). Cooper, Fleischer and Cotton (2012) argue that critical incidents may be 'pivotal' (p.1) to students learning qualitative research, and state that it is a very emotional experience. Thus, they say that students exhibit excitement when they gain research experience, anxiety and confusion when learning to analyse data and humility when listening (p.2). They state that telling (research) stories to each other builds connections.

Pro-active approaches

Critical incidents may happen at any time with no prior planning or intention on our behalf – Cotton 1995) uses the term 'accidental learning' to describe this. This seems to suggest a reactive stance by the learner. However, by keeping a watchful eye on events as they unfold before us we start to move into a more pro-active approach (Bandura, 1997). Tripp (1993, p.26, p.32) devotes a whole chapter of his book to 'The Creation of Critical Incidents' in

teaching, suggesting a purposeful approach by teachers, although he is adamant that what makes an incident critical is our interpretation of it, so this will vary from one individual to the next. However, for students to be ready to participate in the classroom on their critical incidents the teacher needs to carefully foster the right atmosphere, as Gardner (2014) advises:

> *The culture of critical reflection stresses the importance of creating an atmosphere that is accepting and non-judgemental so that people feel able to explore at a deeper level how they are feeling and what they are thinking. This is essential given the process encourages being vulnerable [my italics] by sharing experiences that are generally at least puzzling but may well be uncomfortable or painful.* (Gardner, 2014, pp. 23,24)

Moreover, critical incidents may thus be used in a deeply reflective way to explore learners' (includes both students and teacher researchers) assumptions (Brookfield, 1990, pp 177-193). Gardner (2014) states that, as these influence their practice, practitioners are then able to 'consider how they can act in line with their preferred assumptions and values' (p.3).

2.3.4   Using Biographical Data for Reflective and Reflexive Practice

Definition

Biographical data (often referred to as *biodata*) has been defined in a variety of ways according to the purpose for which it is intended. It has traditionally been used in an employability context to assist decision-making in recruitment. For instance, the 'Personal history blank as a salesmanship test' (Goldsmith, 1922 as cited by Breaugh, 2009, p.220) included the recording of age, marital status, education and belonging to clubs. Moving on to more modern times, the use of biodata continues to feature in the recruitment field; thus , researchers have cited computer skills, foreign languages, academic and professional qualifications, work experience and extra-curricular activities (Breaugh, 2009; Sulastri, Handoko and Janssens, 2015). Others have focused upon biodata as behaviours and events or experiences (Nickels, 1994). In this sense, such data records individuals' experiences and their achievements. It has been proposed as an alternative means of measuring the (Digman, 1990) 5 factor model of personality (consisting of Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to experience, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness) for recruitment purposes, on the premise that past behaviour is one of the best predictors of future behaviour (Sisco and Reilly, 2007) .

However, a note of caution should be sounded in terms of the ethical use of such data. For instance, a sensitive area for its use relates to historical and existing physical and mental health conditions of individuals (Mael, Connerley and Morath, 1996).

Use in Autobiographies

From a personal experience perspective, individuals' biographical data may be used in various ways, including biographies and autobiographies. As autobiographical data is incorporated into a narrative concerning the whole of ,or a particular time in, a person's life (Hatch and Wisniewski, 1995) by the individual concerned, some researchers would argue that it carries with it a particularly favourable bias. For instance, Lejeune (1975, as cited by Chamberlayne, Bornat and Apitzsch, 2004) succinctly defines the essence of autobiography by the equation 'I = author = narrator = hero of the narrative'. The term 'hero' suggests that the self as the leading protagonist in the story, is engaged in a life struggle over time as it unfolds and that the story is constructed by the self through the selection of particular aspects of experiences, memories, feelings and emotions as perceived by the self. However, our self perceptions are subjective and, what is more are based upon our degree of self-awareness, which can never be complete according to the 'blind' spot of the so-called 'Johari Model' (Luft and Ingham, 1955).

Further, the assumption that we see ourselves as 'hero' is a moot point; a full debate on the philosophical knowing of self and the authentic 'goodness' of that self lies beyond the scope of this thesis. However, it is sufficient to note that Ralph Waldo Emmerson (1803-1882), an avid supporter of individualism, regards the notion of 'good' and 'bad' as inappropriate and that the only 'right' for the individual's inner truth is what supports their 'constitution' and the only 'wrong' what is against it (Lindholm, 2013). Despite these reservations, the act of reflecting on one's actions by committing them to narrative serves to illuminate individual awareness necessary for personal development. It can reveal aspects of our innermost selves that are buried beyond our immediate retrieval; as Richardson (1994, quoted in Moon, 2006) explains 'I write in order to find something that I did not know before I wrote it'.

Use in Learning Journals

One obvious means through which students may create their narrative of their personal learning journey is by writing a learning journal (Moon, 2006). As indicated earlier, some students will focus on what actually happened – the representational story – for instance upon discovery, of possible cause and effect, and this will essentially be a process of reflection in

and on action (Schön, 1987). This is extremely useful for students in informing their practice and helping them to understand and develop particular skills, as it grounds their learning experience in a familiar context (Dewey, 1938; Baxter Magolda, 1999). It enriches their understanding of the subject matter of the curricula which is essential for their learning. Other experiential theorists such as (Kolb, 1984) and (Cowan, 2006) advocate approaches for teaching and learning which may be applied through reflection upon learning journals and analysis of critical incidents (Tripp, 1993).

Representational and Ontological Stories

 However, there is a further level of analysis which students may achieve. For this to occur, students need to move from *representational* historical story to *ontological* narrativity (Somers, 1994). In ontological narrativity they begin to question their own being and becoming – i.e. their identities- through the medium of the story. In this respect the learning journal must be crafted by the student into a story which attempts to make sense of their experiences with regard to them as individuals – for instance, their beliefs, values and attitudes.

However, this is not just a cognitive process as Egan (1992, p.50 cited in Norman,2000) explains: 'Whether and how we learn…is affected by the complex of meaning structures we already have in place, which in turn are affected by our *emotions* [my emphasis], intentions, and so on'. Norman (2000) supports the argument that the mind integrates the cognitive and affective as it makes sense of and creates meaning from experiences. He states that in critically reflecting upon experiences, individuals create narrative and readily make use of metaphor (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003), previously discussed. This appears to support the use of learning journals and critical incidents (previously discussed in section 2.3.3) to tell students 'stories' in ways likely to evoke the mind to free itself for ontological reflection.

Augmenting Written and Drawn Metaphors

Crucially, Norman (2000) also advocates the following:

> *Immersion in an aesthetic or artistic experience can lead to imagining alternatives, especially for people who normally think in linear problem-solving ways. (Norman, 2000)*

Thus, telling stories through artistic media – itself often rich in metaphor (as is language) - can be very effective, although it may not come naturally to some people. The question of

which is better when it comes to making sense of one's learning experiences – narrative or artistic endeavour, is thus dependent upon the individual. However, combining the two methods appears to be a sensible strategy. Thus, Bessette and Paris (2016) in their research on the role of metaphor in promoting reflexivity (i.e teachers ' who question what they already know about their practice, and deliberate deeply on what they do, why they do it, and how they can improve it') ask their participants to write a metaphor about their teaching practice and then create a drawing of the same. Citing Miles and Huberman (2014) they argue this provides a richer overall method of eliciting meaning, as drawing and narrative are complementary. More specific literature on drawings as a method of providing insight is provided presently in section 2.3.5.

Students as Researchers and Biographical Data

The concept of using biographical data as a means of learning and personal insight has been extended to neophyte students as researchers. Thus, Hesse-Biber (2015, p.464) advocates that 'students critically reflect on their own research praxis'. This latter point requires students to be 'reflexive…which means to interrogate one's own values and attitudes'. There are various ways of achieving this, as outlined by Fook and Gardner (2007) who cite the following approaches: Crawford (2006) uses 'learning moments' for students undertaking research studies; McDrury and Alterio (2002) use stories; and Finlay and Gough (2003) use discourse and narratives. The approach here has its roots in those narratives, stories and discourse which are based upon the researchers themselves. Thus, (Winter, 1987, cited in Fook and Gardner, 2007, p.165) states that researchers reflecting upon their own research practice are engaging in a 'form of inquiry located in biographical experience'.

Teachers and Biographical Data

However, it is not only students who create their own narratives; teachers do too, as previously mentioned (Bessette and Paris, 2016). According to Kincheloe (2005) 'becoming a critical practitioner [i.e. a teacher] necessitates insight into the construction of selfhood and personal transformation' and the use of autobiography is a powerful means of achieving this. He proposes that this may lead to transformation in which the individual questions deeply held ideological beliefs and attitudes. A relevant area for the teacher of research methods/ dissertation supervisor is to question the objectivist paradigm of formal thinking and research and the contextual limitations that typify positivist approaches. For instance, in the classroom

the teacher is faced with a range of individuals from different backgrounds and cultures, at different stages in their lives. As teaching is essentially a relationship-oriented activity with associated power imbalances between teacher and students and all the ethical implications that this brings (Kincheloe, 2005), search for a definitive answer for success lies not only in solving problems but in negotiating the relationship process.

Crucially, becoming a critical practitioner means to recognize the complexity of the phenomena at play in the teaching and learning environment; Kincheloe argues the need to avoid what he terms as 'reductionism' whereby solutions are sought via a simplistic focus upon elements as discrete entities, rather than seeing them as part of an interactive whole. As previously discussed, research by Bessette and Paris (2016) asks teachers to create written and drawn metaphors of teaching, making parallels or comparisons between the role of the teacher and students; the findings of Bessette and Paris (2016) show that this approach draws heavily upon the biographical data of individual teachers, and would appear to go some way to providing a means for Kincheloe's (2005) 'construction of selfhood and personal transformation'.

2.3.5   Using Drawings for Reflective and Reflexive Practice

As discussed in the previous section, participant drawings can be an effective way of eliciting feelings and emotions. In the first instance they also foster the imagination and creativity, encouraging the use of metaphor. They may also engender a sense of humour into the teaching and learning environment. However, useful though the use of drawings is as 'imaginative and humorous activities', the real power of them for this doctoral research lies in their ability to 'reveal the inner self', thus allowing for deep learning. The literature in this sub-section outlines theory on the use of drawings for reflective and reflexive teaching and learning practice. As such it is relevant to both the methodology of this thesis and to the interpretation of its findings.

Drawings as an imaginative activity

Researchers have also noted that drawings can help students to learn through being able to use their imagination. Norman (2000, p.2) refers to 'narrative capacities' through which 'imaginative learning' is achieved. Egan (1992, quoted in Norman, 2000) provides the following quote, which succinctly summarises the methodological use of drawings and

metaphors used in the 'Guide Process' and its integration of cognitive and affective aspects of learning:

> *The development of the narrative capacities of the mind, of its ready use of metaphor, of the integration of cognitive and affective, of its sense-making and meaning-making, and of its overarching imagination, is of educational importance because these capacities are so central to our general capacity to make meaning of our experiences.* (Egan, 1992)

According to Norman (2000) the 'immersion in an aesthetic or artistic experience' can be extremely useful for students who normally think in a logical, linear fashion, as it allows them to identify, challenge and break free from their usual assumptions. Asking a group of non-arts students to draw a picture does require that teachers themselves are willing to use their imagination (Norman, 2000) and to use strategies to overcome any hesitation or shyness (Martin and Thomas, 2000) of students.

Drawing as a humorous activity

'Making and creating images and symbols is fun' for students states Clover (2006). Perhaps this is pushing its benefits too far, given that some students are initially rather shy, as just described. However, getting started is often the biggest hurdle to overcome and there is no doubting that fun activities have a place in the classroom. For instance, according to Garner (2006) the effects of humour and laughter have been shown to reduce anxiety, decrease stress, creating a positive emotional and social environment. Thus, humour can 'increase the motivation, attachment and socio-cultural embeddedness of students…and enhance academic achievement' (Van Praag, Stevens and Van Houtte, 2017, P.393). Humour in the classroom can also unleash creative (more divergent) thinking which may have been 'suppressed by the critical traditional self' (Korokbin, 1988, p.154). However, there is the caveat that not everyone finds the same thing funny, so teachers have to be adept at recognising when to rein in the humour, especially if it might cause offence (Van Praag, Stevens and Van Houtte, 2017, P.396).

The power of drawings to reveal the inner self

Gardner (2014) uses visual images in her teaching; these include drawings which she states 'encourages accessing different and unconscious aspects of a person's beliefs, feelings and thoughts'(p.64). Sometimes it is a case of 'I don't know what I think until I draw' (Barrett

and Hussey, 2015, p.55). Thus, drawings can add another dimension to our ability to understand and to express ourselves.

Drawings often use metaphors (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003)[for more on metaphors see p.46]. Such visual metaphors have been used as 'an effective way of sharing key concepts' amongst students engaged in their research journey (Gardner, 2014, p.53, p56; Barrett and Hussey, 2015, p.55). Fig 2.2 (see p. 46 of the Styles and Radloff (2000) study for a good example of this. They may be effective across a wide range of research contexts. They have also been used to allow for deep reflection on life journeys associated with professional practice and are quoted as 'especially relevant for research agendas that focus on participants' perceptions of complex, dynamic and personally 'charged' experiences (Orland, 2000). Orland's (2000) research with teachers depicts participants' line drawings (i.e drawings in the form of a continuous line) annotated with critical incidents and feelings along their professional development. In an autobiographical account of her professional development in education (Hunt, 2006) uses the metaphor of a turtle to depict her linkage of her private world to the public world.

More recently Beltman et al. (2015) ask student teachers to draw pictures of themselves prior to their development, which they use to interpret elements of their 'inner world' (p.227) professional identities. As an example of a 'methodology where the unconscious speaks through metaphor' (Armstrong, 2018) drawing is also being used increasingly with other research with personal, emotional components. Thus Kamens, Constandinides and Flefel (2016) outline research on Palestinian children in which they ask them to draw pictures of how they foresaw the future (some depict the horrors of war but others showed their hopes and wishes for a better future). In another study on a group of students, researchers use a standardised drawing known as PPAT (Person Picking an Apple from a Tree) and are able to identify a correlation between problem-solving ability and self-efficacy [previously discussed – e.g. p.77], as well as indicate possible signs of depression (Eytan and Elkis-Abuhoff, 2013). Additionally, a useful point to note when teaching groups of students, is that the use of drawings means that ability or willingness to express oneself verbally is not a hindrance for participants (Kamens, Constandinides and Flefel, 2016).

2.3.6 Using my own Stories

As previously discussed (p.80) , according to Kincheloe (2005) 'becoming a critical practitioner [i.e. a teacher] necessitates insight into the construction of selfhood and personal transformation' and the use of autobiography is a powerful means of achieving this. In the attached Professional Portfolio may be found an account of 'My Story' (p.319) which considers some of the formative experiences of my life which have had an impact upon me. These experiences, and how I perceive them within 'My Story', are something which I carry with me as a teacher and a researcher. They have influenced my knowledge, skills and behaviour; as will be discussed shortly (see p. 97) they are part of what Biggs, Kember and Leung (2001) refer to as 'presage'.

Until this point 'My Story' has not been committed to print. However, this does not diminish its relevance to my literature review, as it was used during my research to inform my positioning with my students (see methodology , p.117 onwards).

Chapters of my published textbooks also inform my presage (Biggs, Kember and Leung , 2001) as a teacher and researcher, and hence my positionality as a researcher (see methodology, p.107 onwards). Generally, my textbook writing has been conceived with the purpose of connecting with students in a quest to enthuse them with a desire to learn from reflection upon the academic outlines I provide and the learning activities I suggest they do for themselves.

An increasing interest in helping students handle their emotions

However, in a more specific fashion, my textbook writing demonstrates an increasing interest on my part to write about the effect that emotions play in students' learning and development. This is entirely consistent with the tenor of my doctoral research which emphasises the symbiosis between cognition and affect, as discussed earlier in the literature review (p.41). Again, relevant sections from my books are attached in my Professional Portfolio, supporting my doctoral report.

Anxiety with Presentations

Recognising that many students suffer from anxiety when giving presentations, one section of my skills textbooks (Gallagher, 2010, 2013, 2016) features several pages on an adaptation of Williams (2003) 'Five Areas Approach' to overcoming anxiety (see Portfolio sec 8.7.2, page

332). At the same time, students are given further contact details for useful websites on dealing with anxiety and stress.

Encouraging Empathy at Work

In my textbook writing at post graduate level I have used my personal experience of returning to work after debilitating illness as the basis for a case study (See Portfolio **Appendix 9.3**: 'Returning to work as a cancer survivor', page 348). The aim of this case study is to promote awareness in students – many of whom are aspiring Human Resource managers - of the physical and psychological long term affects that often accompany significant illness and injury. By so doing, the intention is to build empathy of readers with staff returning to work.

2.4 SUMMARY OF LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature reveals a complex picture of interconnecting considerations pertaining to the teaching and learning processes surrounding the dissertation (Wagener, 2018). It demonstrates the challenges facing dissertation students include both cognitive and affective problems (Ahern and Manathunga, 2004; Hunt, 2001, 2006, Onwuegbuzie et al, 2012). It suggests there is still a tendency for the cognitive aspects of learning to dominate, at the expense of the affective (Levykh, 2008; Bertucio, 2017).

The research shows how the metaphor of the students' journeys, especially in terms of their feelings and emotions, can serve as a lens through which to address their dissertation experiences. In so doing, it emphasises the importance of immersing students in the research process itself via personal experiences as a means of understanding and gaining meaning. The assertion is that capturing these experiences via critical incidents can be a powerful method for students to learn as well as providing a window into the minds of students for researchers, especially when combined with psychological theories such as self-efficacy (Bandura, 1985) and self-regulation (Zimmerman, 2002); these address psychological factors relating to effort and performance for students facing the rigours of academic study.

Other research indicates that university study in general can be very stressful (Selye, 1976, Damasio, 1996) resulting in some alarming mental health-related statistics for students in recent years (Deasy et al, 2016; Galante et al, 2018). However, of growing importance in the literature is the recognition that, important as it is to address stressful emotions in the educational setting so that students feel emotionally safe (Damasio, 1996), educators also need to recognise the importance of positive emotions, as exemplified by a variety of researchers (Bouton and Smith, 1992; Sherrod and Singer, 1989; Gervais and Wilson, 2005; Frederickson and Cohn, 2008; Pekrun, Elliot and Maier, 2009; Cooper, 2011; Villavicencio and Bernardo, 2013; Lei and Cui, 2016). From the teaching perspective this demands teachers commit to developing their abilities to empathise with students (Cooper, 2011).

The philosophy adopted in 'The Guide Process' (see **Fig. 1.1** is that the learning journeys of students and teacher do not have an end point: they are journeys of *being* and *becoming* which are dependent upon *teacher/ student relationships* which are played out in the context of the classroom. Both teacher and students bring their prior knowledge and abilities (Biggs, Kember and Leung, 2001) to the 'zone of proximal development' (Vygotsky, 1978) of the learning situation. The research shows that developing rapport between teacher and student is

positively related to various factors which the teacher can promote via example; these include empathy, caring, openness, self-disclosure, and humour.

Recognising the uniqueness of each student's learning a number of leadership/ teaching models (Grow, 1991; Gurr, 2001; Foong, Nor and Nolan, 2018) outline how the students' journeys may lead to increasing maturity, suggesting teachers adapt their relationships with students accordingly. Thus, the teacher may act in various roles, such as 'coach', 'facilitator', 'mentor', or 'delegator'. However, a note of warning needs to be sounded, as research shows that the power imbalance between teacher and students needs to be handled with care if it is not to be an impediment to learning.

In terms of considering how teachers might go about creating a climate of openness, in which critical incidents can be used as an aid to developing critical thinking of both subject and selves, attention has been given to the use of biographical data. The use of participant drawings in particular (Norman, 2000; Gardner, 2014), shows great promise in allowing both conscious and unconscious thoughts, feelings and emotions to be elicited (Armstrong, 2018), often with the use of metaphors (Egan, 1992); once brought to light, the teacher may encourage dialogue and further reflection in a supportive environment.

Using the Literature Review

The literature review is used to inform this research thesis in two ways: the following section: 'Constructing The Conceptual Framework for The Guide Process' draws from it in depth to explain the reasoning behind the 'Guide Process' and how I envisaged it working from a theoretical perspective. The same framework serves as the basis for the analytical frame of my Case Study design, as outlined in the following Methodology chapter.

Following on from this the chapters relating to Findings and Discussion, Conclusions, and Personal Reflections, of the 'Guide Process' conducted as case study research, are all informed by the literature review in the usual way.

2.5 CONSTRUCTING THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE GUIDE PROCESS

2.5.1 Introduction

My conceptual framework was developed in preparation for my research study. Originally, I intended to consider the cognitive and affective challenges faced by students in their dissertations and to construct and evaluate a teaching and learning intervention to address these in practice. However, the scope of my research was broadened through my subsequent realisation that the teaching and learning process (i.e. the 'Guide Process') was also a means to develop the higher order goals of students *becoming* 'aspirant researchers' and teachers *becoming* 'guides': as it seeks to encompass both learning and personal transformation in students it is an attempt to 'proactively craft pedagogic spaces so as to unite the *feeling* discourse, the *thinking* discourse (epistemological self) and wider *life-self* (ontological) discourse' (Beard, Humberstone and Clayton, 2014). It was an emergent framework. I have continued to refine it, with a view to depicting a clear representation of the key actors and processes involved in the 'Guide Process'. The fully titled Fig 1.1 – 'The University Teacher as Guide and Students as Aspirant Researchers' is shown again below; it was conceived through a deep reflection of theories in the literature review, and influenced by my extensive experience as an established skills textbook author and university teacher. In this section I explain the reasoning behind my conceptual framework, how I envisaged it working in both practical and theoretical senses, and how it has been informed during its construction by the literature in this review. Fig 1.1 is a basic diagram, a visual map to be used for introducing what is, in effect, a complex process. In just the same way as a map is not the land, but merely a crude device to find one's way around the land, so to appreciate the conceptual framework it is necessary to understand the reasoning, principles and assumptions behinds its construction.
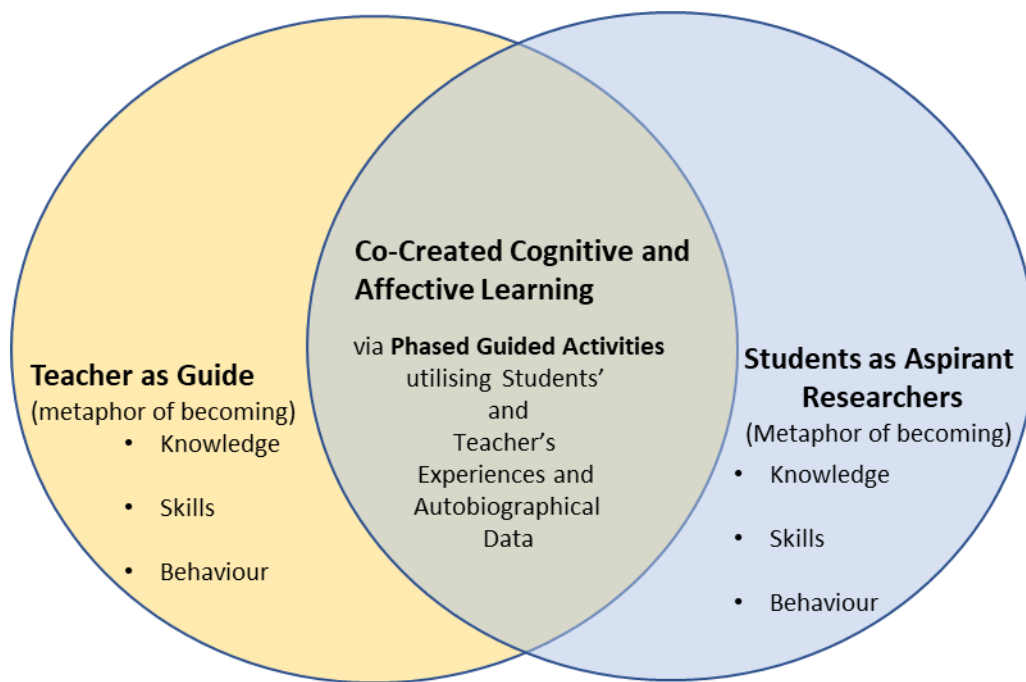
Teacher as Guide
(metaphor of becoming)
- Knowledge
- Skills
- Behaviour

Co-Created Cognitive and Affective Learning

via **Phased Guided Activities**
utilising Students'
and
Teacher's
Experiences and
Autobiographical
Data

Students as Aspirant Researchers
(Metaphor of becoming)
- Knowledge
- Skills
- Behaviour

Fig. 1.1 Conceptual Framework: The University Teacher as Guide, and Students as Aspirant Researchers

The following discussion is often, though not exclusively, theoretical in nature and draws from my literature review. This is tempered at times by my own reflections upon my own educational experiences with my students, other teachers, researchers and authors in higher education.

2.5.2   Constructing the Conceptual Framework

The Metaphor of Becoming University Teacher as Guide and Students as Aspirant Researchers

As outlined in the literature review, the use of metaphor (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) allows the mind to free itself of conventional thinking and explore concepts in new, exciting ways; upon reflection, this was what first appealed to me in using it for my conceptual framework. As emphasised in chapter 1, the 'University Teacher as Guide' is a metaphor of being. This suggests that the teacher is already a skilled practitioner but is always in the process of becoming a better teacher. Likewise, the student is pictured as an aspirant researcher, intent on becoming (Bryans and Mavin, 2003; Dall'Alba and Barnacle, 2007, p.683-687; Anderson, 2009) someone who can carry out a given level of independent research commensurate with the requirements of the Master's degree. The Process of Teaching and Learning which

facilitates this 'becoming' of both parties, has been developed as the Conceptual Framework for the research case study. Marton and Booth , considering learning as two elements - 'what' is learned and 'how' it is learned - state:

If we consider the learner to be internally related to the object of learning, and if we consider the teacher to be internally related to the same object of learning, we can see the two, learner and teacher, meet through a shared object of learning.

(Marton and Booth, 1997, p.179)

The creation of knowledge is achieved through an interactive, relationship-oriented process. My conceptual framework allows for both transactional and transformational (Johnson, 2007) learning to take place. Thus Franke and Arvidsson (2011) state "Research supervision can be regarded as a knowledge and relational process, which takes place in the encounter between student and supervisor". Hence the model shows the University Teacher as Guide, and Students as Aspirants overlapping. These elements coalesce as the 'Co-created Cognitive and Affective Learning' in the framework. It fully allows for rapport (Benson et al., 2005) to occur. The assumption here is that knowledge is 'constructed by social actors' according to a constructionist ontology (Bryman, 2012, p.33).

Learning occurs through the Phased Guided Activities, organised by the teacher. They take place over time during a number of stages, because deep learning requires students to have time to mull over their experiences – a fact reinforced by the various models of reflection outlined in the literature review (Schön, 1987; Cowan, 2006; Moon, 1999).

A defining feature of my conceptual framework is that students and teachers use their own experiences and autobiographical data. My initial reason for doing this was one of relevance, as Marton and Booth explain:

teachers mold experiences for their students with the aim of bringing about learning, and the essential feature is that the teacher takes the part of the learner, sees the experience through learner's eyes, becomes aware of the experience through the learner's awareness.

Marton and Booth, 1997, p. 179

And in terms of pedagogy, by using students themselves as data, the model fulfils the requirements of providing structure for the learner, as Marton and Booth state:

Any learning situation has a structure of relevance for those who experience it, aspects of the situation that indicate what it is aimed at, what it demands, and where it will lead

Marton and Booth, 1997, p. 180

My intention had always been for students to reflect upon their own critical incidents as a means of providing them with experiences which they could relate to in their learning. I knew that this was likely to generate deeper questions about their self-development. The initial Phased Guided Activities (i.e. self-questionnaires, focus group, drawings) were originally intended to provide them with examples to enable them to understand the principles of research methods techniques, as well as being a gentle introduction to the idea that they would benefit from sharing their reflections with others in class.

Reasons for choice of Guided Activities

Guided Activities were chosen on the basis of their alignment to the prescribed research skills of the student participants' module 'Investigating a Business Issue from a HR Perspective'. The module was closely informed by the CIPD advanced level specification of the same title (see appendix 5, p.312). Students' dissertations were centred around analysing a particular strategic business issue, requiring them to obtain primary research data from an organisation/s in addition to carrying out secondary research. In particular, they had to: 'Compare and contrast the relative merits of different research methods and their relevance to different situations; Undertake a systematic analysis of quantitative and/or qualitative information and present the results in a clear and consistent format' (CIPD, 2014, p.11). The timeframe for this was relatively short, as they had to progress from proposal to report submission over the course of the academic year. This elicited the advice from the recommended textbook (Anderson, 2013, p.60) to adopt research strategies such as: cross-sectional research, comparative research, case study research, or action research. The underlying intent of the module was to develop Masters students who would be capable of small-scale, meaningful research within the workplace.

Thus, in terms of research *methods*, students were to cover in the classroom, as a minimum, the following: conducting questionnaire surveys to collect and analyse descriptive statistics; and conducting focus groups and interviews for qualitative data. The congruence of this to the guided activities, which covered the basics and more, is apparent. For the sake of clarity Fig 1.2 is re-produced below:

Phase and Date	Phased Guided Activity	Data recorded
1. 20th Nov 2015	'Diagnosing my own self efficacy as a student researcher'	Participants' self-efficacy questionnaires
		Chart and mean scores of all participants (anonymous)
2. 11th Dec 2015	'My 3 words and picture of my research journey to date'	Participants' words and pictures
	Focus group discussion on 3 words and picture	Focus group transcript
		Focus group audio
3. 29th Jan 2016	Critical incident – interviewing each other on video	Transcripts of participants interviews
		Participants' Videos
4. March – April 2016	One-one interview/ reflection (of Participant with Teacher as Guide) of all Guiding Activities completed	Teacher (Guide)/ Participant Interview transcripts

Fig 1.2. The 4 Phased Guided Activities used for the Thesis Research

However, by deciding to ask students to use their own experiences and biographical data for *all* guided activities – something which was more inspirational than planned, and not fully appreciated until after I had analysed my findings, I allowed students to start to explore their becoming as aspirant researchers from the very first guided activity. That I had already decided to use my own critical incident to model the later critical incident technique (one of the guided activities), coupled with my natural teaching style of using my own experience as examples, meant that I too was contributing to the 'Co-created cognitive and affective learning' of my conceptual framework. The following sections give further details of the framework, beginning with the cognitive and affective nature of the dissertation.

Cognitive and Affective Challenges

The conceptual model was created for the purpose of addressing the cognitive and affective challenges faced by students in their dissertations and is cognisant of a number of research studies, as discussed in the literature review, which highlight that significant problems exist (Lie and Cano, 2001; Ahern and Manathunga, 2004; Franken, 2012; Pringle, Barnes & Cheng, 2018).

Cognitive and Affective integration

The term 'Co-created Cognitive and Affective Learning' in Fig. 1.1 is deliberately chosen to emphasise the importance of both aspects of learning. It draws upon the following sources whose research is outlined in the literature review: the learning taxonomy of Bloom (1956) and others who sought to establish affective as well as cognitive domains of learning; researchers who emphasise the holistic nature of the affective and cognitive in learning, e.g. Vygotsky (1978) and Levykh (2008), and later Wenger (1998) and Cooper (2011).

One of the early concepts I considered, which addresses learning in a holistic way is that of of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1985). This includes both mastery of skills as well as beliefs which can be moderated by others, concerning an individual's self belief that they are capable of performing a task. It is a factor in Zimmerman's (2002) theory of student regulated learning (discussed later in this section). Consideration of students' own self-efficacy in doing dissertations also served in the introductory Phase 1 of the Guided Activities, and so remains relevant.

The centrality of the teacher-student relationship

The term 'Conceptual Framework' suggests the creation of something new. In the case of my 'Guide Process' this is a synthesis of pre-existing ideas and theories applied to a particular scenario, that of educating students during their dissertation journeys. As discussed in the introduction, a prime driver for me as a teacher-researcher and as a textbook author is to get close to students so that communication between us is possible, which in turn means I can help them in various ways. As discussed shortly, my 'Guide Process' expounds a number of relationship-mediated teaching and learning roles, but for all to be truly effective there is one pre-requisite, one *sine qua non*: being able to connect with my students. It is part of my teaching identity (Taylor, 2017), echoing my personal values. Without it I am just a talking book, what Brew (2006, p.19) citing Prosser and Trigwell (1999) refers to as 'a teacher-

focused, information-transmission way' of teaching. Thus, the overlapping central area of my conceptual framework is symbolic in taking centre-stage.

Firstly, it should be noted that the teaching and learning relationship between teacher and students has been represented as overlapping circles with the area of overlap being where co-created learning can take place during the 'phased guided activities'. The theoretical underpinning for this overlap derives from Vygotsky's (1978) social development theory (see p.41); according to his theory, there exists a 'zone of proximal development' in which the teacher can encourage the student to further development through their relationship, to an extent which the student would be unlikely to achieve on their own initiative. Dewey (1916, p.160) extols the virtue of teachers participating and sharing (see pp.59-60) with students. As to why I used the work of Vygotsky, and Dewey to inform my framework, my reasons were twofold: firstly, their ideas struck a welcome chord with my experience as a teacher - and they *inspired* me to develop ways of teaching based upon their principles, i.e. an *emotional response* (Ekman, 1992), an area which is covered in the literature and is of direct relevance to my findings; secondly, they are regarded as seminal writers within the realm of   teaching and learning in higher education and thus I might venture towards using them from a generally accepted credibility point of view as suitable referential base. For instance, Gardner (2014) in her work on being critically reflective (included in my review), credits Dewey as 'the person who initially articulated the value of learning from personal experience, which is now firmly embedded in thinking about how people learn both as students and practitioners'. Likewise, Cooper (2011, p.36), included in my review for her research into empathy in education, makes specific reference to Vygotsky (1978) and his assertion that both emotional and cognitive aspects of learning are interlinked in his zone of proximal development, shown in my conceptual framework as 'Co-created cognitive and affective learning'.

Other writers in my literature review add to the view that effective teacher-student relationships are essential. Wenger (1998) develops the perspective of learning as a 'social phenomenon' (p.5) . Benson et al., (2005, p.237) state that such relationships encourage immediacy, self disclosure (Sorenson, 1989) and rapport (Smith, 2011) which are all positively related to learning (Frymier and House, 2000, p.207) (see p.60). Following on from this is the importance of teachers building empathy (Cooper, 2011) in order to develop an emotionally safe space; this is something which Damasio (1996) says is required for deep learning. Damasio (1996) has demonstrated this from the perspective of neuro-science,

imaging areas of the brain which respond to stimuli of threats and the impact of this upon the thinking parts of the brains (e.g. the neo-cortex) and has led the way in this field. This also carries with it the values of caring for students from a counselling perspective (Noddings, 1986).

Creation of a Safe Place for Learning

The alignment of the educational, psychological and neuro-scientific perspectives, as outlined above, around the importance of the teacher-student relationship in creating this safe space for learning, lie at the heart of my conceptual framework. Pictorially this can be seen in Fig. 1.1 as the 'Co-created Cognitive and Affective Learning' area. This 'safe place' is one of psychological safety, fostered by the teacher as guide and enacted via the phased guided activities. It is a place which is intended to allow students to share their concerns about their dissertations; these may be basic technical difficulties but are also likely to include the bigger learning picture of 'becoming' aspirant researchers and other external issues (e.g. cultural) and responsibilities (e.g. family). Importantly, as a safe place it provides students the opportunity to open up to others about the stresses they face, and appreciate that they are not alone in their feelings. Hence in my literature review I have included an entire sub-section on 'Stress and well-being along the dissertation journey' which documents the scale of the problem facing higher education today. I have referred to the classic work of Selye (1976) and the fight/ flight response because this shows the physical response of the body to mentally and physically threatening stimuli, and is built upon by Goleman's research on emotional intelligence (Goleman ,1996) and social intelligence (Goleman, 2007). This literature features strongly in the discussion of the findings of my report.

Considering communities of practice

The research of Lave and Wenger is often cited in educational practice (Hodkinson and Hodkinson, 2004), in regard to how communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998) may be encouraged for the purposes of learning. However, I decided not to include communities of practice as such, in my final version of the conceptual framework, although certain aspects of their work on social learning theory do reinforce it. For me, the emphasis had to be upon how I, as a teacher, could develop my relationship with students. The concept of communities of practice, as developed by Wenger (1998) often uses the context of learning within the workplace, and has been criticised as underplaying the disposition of managers and workers (Hodkinson and Hodkinson, 2004); the equivalent

people in my case would be teachers and students. However, such dispositions are very important within my framework, as my aim is to guide students of differing abilities and at different stages of their development. Therefore, I chose to recognise this aspect by inclusion of literature regarding the various supervisory relationships between teachers and students, which in turn were mediated by students' learning maturity (Grow, 1991) and the differences in power between them – considered in detail under 'ethical considerations' in the methodology.

Thus, I did not set out with the intention of engineering communities of practice. Having said this, the groups of students who took part in the later, more intimate interviews in my research were self-selecting on the basis of friendship. Further notes on this can be found in the findings and discussion.

The Constructivist/ Constructionist nature of the 'Phased Guided Activities'

Further discussion of the 'Phased Guided Activities' (as shown in Fig. 1.1 of my conceptual framework) follows in the Methodology, when I explain the philosophy and methods used for my research. However, all activities share similar principles: learning through experience and reflection (Dewey, 1916; Cowan, 2006; Moon, 2006; Fook and Gardner, 2007) so as to develop meaning and understanding, through social interaction (Vygotsky, 1978; Lave and Wenger, 1991) and through the active efforts of the teacher to seed constructive learning contexts for students (Baxter-Magolda, 1999).

The use of critical incidents (Flanagan, 1954; Tripp, 1993) is a feature which runs throughout. Phase 3 of the Guided Activities was specifically focused upon students' recall of critical incidents and their discussion with each other about them; this technique was chosen because, by definition, these are memorable events of significance to the learner and embody thoughts, feelings and actions which the individual can learn from as they occurred, and upon later reflection (Schön, 1987). I particularly favoured the approach of Tripp (1993) because he was advising teachers on how they could use critical incidents for student learning; in addition, he stated that these did not have to be traumatic or life events but more usually events worthy of note - and that the 'critical' part about them referred to students critical thinking, to the extent that they derived significant meaning and learning by reflecting upon them. Thus, this definition could apply to all sorts of experiences and associated thoughts, feelings and emotions in any of the Guided Activities.

Presage

The conceptual framework embodies a number of theoretical assumptions. Firstly, implicit in Fig 1.1 is the concept of 'presage' (Biggs, 1996; Biggs, Kember and Leung, 2001) occurring in both the Teacher as Guide and Students as Aspirants circles (see **Appendix 7.3**, Biggs' 3 P Model, p.308). According to this theory, students do not begin their dissertations as 'blank slates', nor do they enter the 'Phased Guided Activities' of the Guide Process in such a fashion; they bring with them a unique combination of innate abilities (Pinker, 2002) and individual personality profiles which may influence their choice of research approach (Werner and Rogers, 2013). They bring with them attitudes, values and beliefs forged through their interaction with their environment and through their experience they already possess prior knowledge, skills and behaviours. Recognition of such student input is recognised by Biggs in his in his 3 P model of teaching and learning (Biggs, Kember and Leung, 2001) as 'Presage'. This consists of 'Student Factors' and 'Teaching Context' – both of which are directly relevant to my 'Phased Guided Activities': student factors include their prior knowledge, ability and preferred approaches to learning; teaching factors include objectives, assessment, climate or ethos, teaching and institutional procedures. And, just as students have presage, so do teachers. *Presage* precedes the *process* of teaching and learning (the second 'P', which is annotated as 'Learning-focused activities') and the *produc*t (i.e. learning, which is the third 'P', learning outcomes).

Self-Regulated Learning

Self-Regulated Learning (Zimmerman, 2002) is perhaps the ultimate teaching and learning goal (see **Appendix 7.4**, p.310 for Zimmerman's model of self-regulation). Learners who behave in this manner are pro-active, setting their own learning agenda dependent upon either the task in hand or their personal development – or both. The 'Phased Guided Activities' that I used in my 'Guide Process' had this as an ultimate goal but recognised that many students were not yet prepared for this, either in terms of their knowledge and skills or their emotional security. Thus, the teaching and learning intervention of the 'Guide Process' followed a natural progression along the students' research journeys, as shown in Fig 1.1. In this regard my thinking was influenced by the situational learning models of Hersey and Blanchard (1982), Grow (1991), Gurr (2001), and Deuchar (2008) which have previously been discussed in the literature review. Thus, the 'teacher as guide' might be called upon to act in

different roles (e.g as instructor, facilitator, mentor, or critical friend) depending upon the situation and the abilities of the 'student as aspirant researcher'.

Phased Guided Activities

These have already been mentioned (p.91). However, just to reiterate: the 'Guide Process' was designed so that there was always an element of student input, even for more basic Phased Guided Activities, inasmuch as *all used personal experience as their data source* (Barnacle, 2004). The Phased Guided Activities were designed to initially provide students the opportunity to develop their knowledge and skills in research methods and to begin to build a level of *trust* (Goh, 2012) based upon the teacher's perceived ability, loyalty and fairness, integrity and openness (Clark and Payne, 2006).

The 'Guide Process' afforded students the opportunity to become much more aware of themselves as researchers through a process of individual reflection and discussion with others. This is a *process that takes place over time.* It is individual and dynamic (Gurr, 2001). As it concerns others – teacher and group members- it is dependent upon *relationships*.

The building of trust in an atmosphere of non-judgemental open-ness is considered here to be of prime importance in allowing such relationships to develop, as it has been shown in various studies that feelings of emotional security are conducive to the deeper levels of reflexivity, which are the hallmarks of the being a critical thinker and reflective practitioner.

A key determinant of the level of trust that can be established between teacher and student is the power differential between them and how this is managed. The concept of the 'psychological contract' (Rousseau, 2001) is useful in exploring the relevant factors; of particular note are the 'schema' that both teacher and students have of the role of themselves during the research project (for instance, is learning a transaction or a relationship?) and the building of the psychological contract over time. As previously discussed with the metaphor of the aspirant climber with their alpine guide, some climbers and guides regard the process as a fee-paying transaction, whilst in other cases this has progressed to one akin to that of a mentor relationship. I would argue that this analogy extends to the 'the neo-liberal' stance (Grant, 2005) which is a growing trend in universities whereby some students (and universities) regard themselves as both customers and learners with the ultimate transaction being the award of their qualifications. My conceptual framework pragmatically accepts the reality of this situation to some extent, whilst not diminishing my own encouraging of

students to learn and develop personally to their full potential, echoing Grant's (2005) 'psychological' stance.

Using Students and Teachers Experiences and Autobiographical Data

As mentioned above, both students and teachers used their own experiences and autobiographical data within the 'Guide Process'. As discussed in Chapter 1, students often find undertaking their research projects to be a complex, arduous task. In their 'becoming' they are developing theoretical knowledge, knowing how to do a task, and knowing how to 'be' (Dorfler, Stierand & Zizka, 2017). They are breaking new ground – crossing new thresholds (Meyer and Land 2005) academically and, especially for overseas students, culturally. Therefore, I would argue that this is wholly consistent with their *becoming* aspirant researchers. The concept of being on a learning journey, navigating and overcoming difficulties was apparent from my secondary research as something which other researchers have adopted (e.g Styles and Radloff, 2000) and that of climbing a mountain was one which featured (Lamm et al, 2006), adding support to my own metaphor of the teacher as guide helping students up their own dissertation mountain.

Using students experiences while engaged in climbing their dissertation mountains was thus something which appeared to offer new insight to their actions, thoughts and feelings from my perspective as a teacher-researcher. By asking students to reflect upon each of the 'Guided Experiences' I was prompting them to critically analyse their self-development in both cognitive and affective ways. However, although at no time did I (knowingly) foist my mountaineering metaphor of the Guide Process upon them, my subsequent findings did show that many students already recognised that they were on some sort of learning journey and, indeed, some chose to depict this in mountaineering terms. The 'Guide Process' is intended to serve as a metaphor for teachers to consider; discussing it with students was not the intention – however, perhaps this is a question for the future.

As my secondary research into the use of one's own experiences and autobiographical data progressed, the more that I became aware of the potential they had for personal reflection. Perhaps the most telling quote was from Winter (1987) cited in Fook and Gardner, 2007, p.165) that researchers reflecting upon their own research practice are engaging in a 'formal inquiry located in biographical experience'. All the while I was cognisant of the advice given by Lewthwaite and Nind (2016) about 'connecting learners to research and giving them direct

and immersive experience of research practice and promoting reflexivity' (p.427). This supported my use of biographical data.

I was also aware of the use of critical incidents and how a large-scale project (Popovic et al, 2010) had incorporated this into learning practice by creating and using a bank of student video recordings. This had been the initial catalyst for my 'phased guided activities'. However, at the time I was not prepared for the power which simple drawings had in allowing for student insights to their learning process, as evidenced by my findings. Thus, when I say that the 'conceptual framework' has been an emergent one, this aspect has been one area that has necessitated a re-iteration of the literature, which in turn has bolstered it further: as a way of demonstrating one's becoming, the simple use of drawings now plays a leading role, rather than that of an icebreaker, as I originally intended. Thus, I have now included further literature on drawings' - for instance Orland (2000) who used drawings to research 'dynamic, personally charged experiences', and recent research which shows how 'the unconscious speaks through metaphor (Armstrong, 2018). I have recognised through literature on traumatic events (Kamens et al., 2016) and developing professional identity (Beltman et al., 2015) how drawings can be used to elicit emotional experiences of individuals; these often appear to play such a key role in students' learning and development. Thus, I have come to regard reflection through drawings within my Guide Process as an important enabler of deep learning (Moon, 1999).

However, another aspect of the literature which relates to students' and teachers' experiences which became more important to me as I progressed is the *positive* roles that emotions can play in learning. Thus, the work of Zimmerman (2002) regarding students self-regulatory strategies and researchers who consider achievement emotions (Pekrun, Elliot and Maier, 2009; Lei and Cui, 2016) was relevant to my Guide Process and my research upon its use in practice. For instance, would students report positive emotions during the various guided activities? Would my Guide Process actually engender any such emotions, and would such emotions moderate cognitive skills with my students as Loon and Bell (2018) report with their business students?

Concluding Remarks

In conclusion, construction of the conceptual framework for the 'Guide Process' has been a multi-faceted, emergent process. Each of its elements has been derived by careful consideration of theory from the literature and iteratively refined throughout the course of the research, from its inception until the findings stage.

Links to the Methodology

Finally, it should be noted that, as the conceptual framework for the Guide Process is also the basis for the research, which was centred around its implementation in a specific case, it has direct relevance to the Methodology chapter which follows. Here, further reference to literature is made with regard to the methods used in the research: in effect these were the 'guided activities' of the Guide Process.

Chapter 3:

Methodology

3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 FOREWORD

As this is a professional doctorate and I am in the 'continual process of becoming' the Teacher (Dall'Alba, 2009; Clarke, 2009, p.186) and Researcher I aspire to be, I have written the Methodology of my research in such a way that it shows the interconnection of me, as a Teacher and Researcher, with my Research. As outlined in the introductory chapter, this involved me as a teacher-researcher carrying out research on a teaching and learning intervention with a group of my Master's students.

Accordingly, Section 3.2 sets the scene and gives the rationale for my research. As such it draws upon the 'Conceptual Framework: The University Teacher as Guide, and Students as Aspirant Researchers', which was developed in the previous chapter. Acknowledging the active role of myself within my research process, Section 3.3 then gives my researcher positionality – i.e. how my background influenced my research design and interpretation of the data. This is followed (Section 3.4) by consideration of how I positioned myself with my students during the various phases of the teaching and learning intervention ('the Guide Process').

Getting in to the actual research design proper, Section 3.5 discusses my overarching research methodology (Case Study). This is followed by discussion in Section 3.6 of the various research methods used, and split as follows: Sec. 3.6.2 Structured Questionnaire; Sec. 3.6.2 Words and Drawing ; Sec 3.6.3 Focus Groups; Sec 3.6.4 Critical Incidents; Sec 3.6.5 Interviews; Sec 3.6.6 Video.

Following on from this Section 3.7 considers how the data was coded. Finally, Section 3.8 covers the ethical implications of the research, and Section 3.9 considers the limitations of the research.

3.2 INTRODUCTION

3.2.1 Setting the Scene

My overarching methodology is that of the case study – i.e. a small-scale, in-depth analysis from multiple perspectives (Tight, 2017; Thomas, 2011). Its primary focus is upon exploring the experiences of students and teacher within a particular teaching and learning intervention from an interpretive, qualitative stance (Stake, 1995; Yazan, 2015). In terms of perspectives the case study is viewed through the lens of becoming (Dall'Alba, 2009; Clarke, 2009) during the experiences of the intervention and via reflection on autobiographical data for both myself, as teacher as guide, and my students as aspirant researchers. Research methods included: the use of critical incidents (Flanagan, 1954; Tripp, 1993), metaphor (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) and drawings (Bessette and Paris, 2016) , and stories of (teachers') lived experiences (Kissling, 2014).

As such, the research design has two, inter-connected roles: firstly, to enable me to gain deeper insight to the learning experience, feelings and emotions of students relating to their research skills and self- development along their dissertation journeys; secondly, to explore the benefits and limitations for both my 'students as aspirant researchers' and me, 'teacher as guide', when adopting 'The Guide Process' for the dissertation process. The intervention was conducted on a voluntary, non-credit basis with students who were undertaking a module which required them to complete individual research-based projects. It worked alongside the module and comprised a number of phases spread over the course of one semester during 2015-16.

3.2.2 Rationale

As described above, the research design had to satisfy two simultaneous roles: to explore in real time how students experienced their learning of research skills and their associated dissertation journeys; and to research the benefits and limitations of the adoption of my 'Guide Process' in action, as a means of enhancing the dissertation experiences of both 'teacher as guide' and 'students as aspirant researchers'.

The teaching and learning philosophy of the 'Guide Process' thus essentially informed and determined the research methodology. A detailed discussion of the design of the intervention has been given already (see p.88 onwards). However, as it is central to the discussion, the

conceptual framework of 'The University Teacher as Guide and Students as Aspirant Researchers' (Fig 1.1) is shown again below; it was conceived through a deep reflection of theories in the literature review, and influenced by my extensive experience as an established skills textbook author and university teacher.
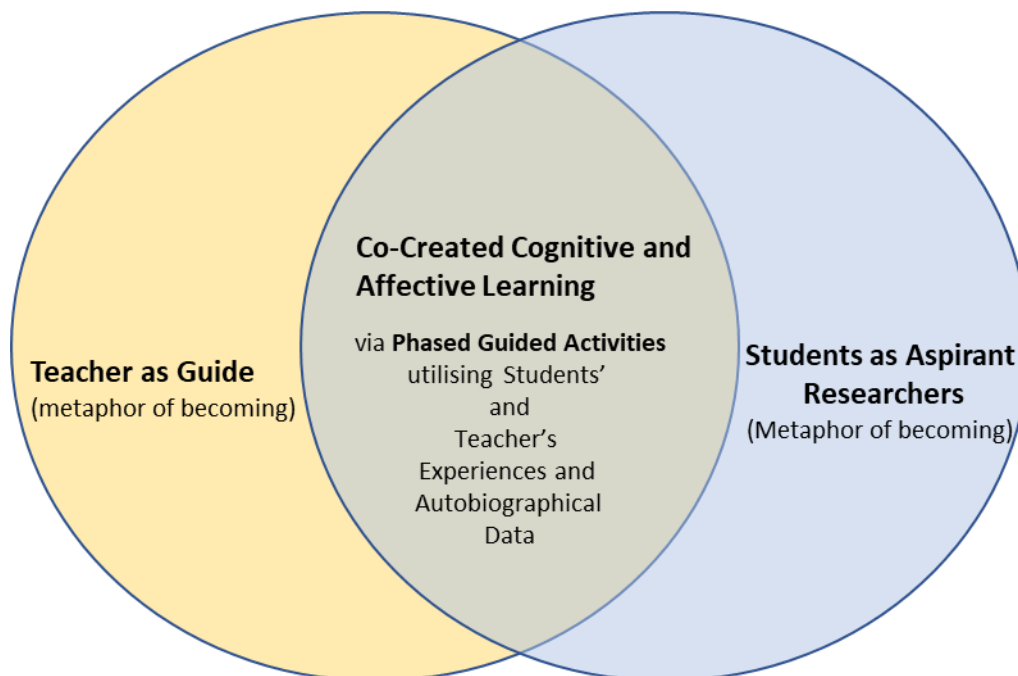
Fig. 1.1 Conceptual Framework: The University Teacher as Guide, and Students as Aspirant Researchers

The choice of research design was heavily influenced by the nature of the phenomena being investigated – in this instance, the social interactions between myself as Teacher and the participants as Students, within a learning context. The aim of the 'Guide Process' intervention was to engage students in a highly reflexive dialogue with me as Teacher and with fellow Students for the purpose of encouraging development of research skills and ultimately, in Heideggerian terms, the 'transformation of self' (Dall'Alba, 2009). The important questions were not concerned with the testing of hypotheses but an inductive exploration of the 'Guide Process'.

The research design had to allow for individuals to be reflexive and to convey their thoughts to the researcher. It did not matter if a finding deemed as 'significant' by the author was to emerge from only one individual. What mattered was the understanding and meaning which that finding might elicit for the author. As discussed previously, students' development of field skills in research, their ability to problem solve, and their further development of these

into generic research skills , represent different *ways of knowing* which may be viewed from an epistemological viewpoint (Barnett, 2004).

The assumption within the research, as introduced above, was that 'knowledge was constructed by social actors' according to a *constructionist* ontology (Bryman, 2012, p.33). The 'Guided Activities' of the 'Guide Process' intervention were prime examples of this constructionist approach in action.

Epistemology of the research: Interpretivism

The means of finding meaning in the interactions between participants of the teaching and learning intervention which comprise the basis for this doctoral research, was predominantly through an interpretivist epistemology. The phenomena being investigated were centred around how knowledge was created by the social interactions between participants involved in the teaching and learning processes; these phenomena were highly subjective amongst and between individuals, depending upon a variety of factors. They included the following: participants' personal, educational and cultural backgrounds; their academic and work knowledge, skills and experience prior to the teaching and learning intervention; self-efficacy in research methods throughout their study ; motivation to learn in instrumental and transformational ways and to participate in the intervention; their initial level of and ability to grow in self-awareness; and ultimately, individuals' views of their nascent or ongoing professional identity with its links to the concepts of 'being and becoming'.

3.3 RESEARCHER POSITIONALITY /INSIDER RESEARCHER

3.3.1 Introduction

Researcher positionality

Thomas (2009, p.110), states that in interpretivist research 'the researcher has an undeniable position and this position affects *the nature of the observations and the interpretations that they make*' [my italics] as the knowledge is *situated* (p.109). According to Thomas (2009) researchers' likes and dislikes, their backgrounds and their pastimes, their vested interests and expectations are all important in forming their research position, and therefore need to be clearly acknowledged in the research (p.110). In addition to these positionality factors, Werner and Rogers (2013) propose that personality plays a major role in how researchers view themselves and how they see the world.

Accordingly, in this section I address my positionality. Firstly, I give a summary statement of my positionality in my research. By way of exploring this I then devote the rest of the section to the following: an analysis of my own positional influences; developing my positionality as a researcher; the concept of insider/ outsider researcher; and finally, my vulnerability as a researcher.

3.3.2 A Summary of my Researcher Positionality

I am approaching my research from a predominantly qualitative viewpoint as a 61 year old, white, male, university teacher-researcher. As such, I am also an insider-researcher within the teaching profession – in my case the majority of my time (including my research) has been spent in a post 1992 'new' university in North East England. My research is influenced by my teacher identity, which itself has been influenced by my personal biography; I want to understand more clearly the problems faced by my research participants (my students) during their dissertation experience. I also care for my students, wanting to guide them where necessary. I regard students' learning during their dissertations as journeys and see teachers' roles as guides. I respect overseas students coming to study in a new culture, feeling a particular affinity with African students; I believe this is because I emigrated to South Africa as a young man on my own, working there for two years, and regard this as one of the most challenging experiences of my life. In fact, I want to become a better guide.

I see this research as a potential gateway to a 'third life' of semi-retirement where I am still involved in education. Thus, I hope to publish my research and discuss my findings with present and future academic peers regarding best practice. I would like my research to be useful to dissertation teachers and supervisors, and ultimately for this to be useful for their students. Thus, my research gravitates towards a problem-solving approach of finding out the 'how' and 'what' is happening through a participatory experience with them.

As a textbook writer of study and employment skills, I often use critical incidents, stories and metaphors to explore concepts with students. I believe they are powerful ways of bringing hidden meaning to the surface through providing creative other ways of seeing oneself in the world. I take the stance that the learners' experiences may be transactional *and* transformational, with both cognitive and affective demands which are inextricably linked. I view deep learning as meaning , and that learning is essentially influenced by emotions.

3.3.3   My Positional Influences

NOTE: This section is an analysis based upon my personal biographical details (also see 'My Story' in my Professional Portfolio, p. 319), and reference to my Personal Profile and Personality Test (p.356).

Personal Biographical Details

I am a 61 year old, white, North-Eastern, middle-class male, married for 34 years to a former school teacher and father of three daughters, two of whom have careers in teaching and the other in human resource management (recruitment). I went to grammar school as a youth, and enjoyed a comfortable early life. My father was the co-owner of a demolition company and I worked for him from an early age during my school holidays. I was the first in my immediate family to go to university at Edinburgh to study civil engineering in 1981. Whilst there I met my future wife. Both of us have made significant career changes from our first degrees to education. Thus, I have had three distinct careers: civil engineer, business development manager, and university teacher.

Exploring

My lifelong pastime is being amongst the hills and mountains, either with a few close companions, or by myself. Proximity to the Scottish mountains played a major role in my choice of university. I am someone who loves to explore and learn about other ways of life; for instance I chose to work for several years overseas (South Africa) with peoples of very

different cultures. When going on holiday abroad, the first thing I will do is buy a map and historical guide, then I will learn the language basics and engage in simple conversations with the locals. I like to take calculated risks and push my boundaries.

Positionality implications of my 'exploring' are reflected in the conceptual model of the 'Guide Process' which is also the basis for my research analytical framework.

Personal Development

I am interested in all aspects of personal development, physical, mental and spiritual. I value experiences over material possessions and status. I like to learn, as I am a naturally curious person with a desire to know more about those things which interest me; my preferred leisure reading is historically-based novels or non-fiction, or books on mountaineers' exploits. I have studied successfully for two post-graduate qualifications in management as a part-time student which have proved to be gateways to new careers.

Positionality implications of my interest in 'personal development' are reflected in the nature of the 'guided activities' of the 'Guide Process', which aim to develop students as aspirant researchers.

Arts and Creativity

I have a strong artistic side to me, and as a youth my hobbies included painting in oils, and playing folk guitar. Recently I joined a guitar class at my local arts centre, thus combining my passion for learning with my love of music and meeting like-minded people. I am a published author of several successful university skills textbooks, demonstrating my interest in student self-development; this also shows my interest in writing and being creative. Other creative hobbies I have enjoyed are landscape/ mountain photography.

Positionality implications of my interest in 'arts and creativity' are reflected in my use of research methods. These include the use of metaphor, drawings, and video.

Personality

I am an introvert by nature, in that I enjoy some time alone to mentally 'recharge my batteries' (see **Portfolio Appendix 9.7** , Personal Profile, p. 356 and **Appendix 9.8**, My Personality Link -INJF, p.359). As a child I was always the boy in class who was picked last for the football team, and even now prefer to watch individual sports rather than team events. My answer to my childhood sporting inadequacy was to take up something I could be

successful in by setting my own challenges -walking in the hills; and the climbing clubs I joined seemed to have quite a lot of people like me. I am sometimes prepared to go against group norms which I do not embrace. However, I can be outgoing in company, and willing to make the first moves in social situations when I sense that others are feeling shy. I think that perhaps this stems from my own empathetic experiences such as having to overcome a stammer as a child (I attended elocution lessons).

Werner and Rogers (2013) have an interesting theory which posits that, in the social sciences, personality of doctoral researchers should be considered as a factor in formulating dissertation research (see **Portfolio Appendix 9.8**, p. 359 for their Scholar-Craftsmanship model). They argue that personality plays a predictive role. They predict that an intuitive-feeling personality (i.e. applicable to my INJF profile) would be organically predisposed towards an understanding, problem-oriented research position which favours 'participatory-action or ethnography'. This is consistent with the participatory experience of my 'Guide Process' teaching and learning intervention, and so suggests that my research has been influenced by my personality.

Habituation in a Post-1992 University

When I began my teaching career in 1990, it was as a lecturer in a polytechnic's business school . I was employed on the basis of my managerial experience, my recent Master's qualification in business administration, my desire to teach, and my perceived potential to do so. I was, in effect, a manager who now taught. After the polytechnic became a university in 1992 a huge expansion took place in terms of student numbers, in line with the government's higher educational policy; this was in turn was influenced by the government-commissioned Dearing Report (1997) and Leitch Review of Skills (2006) which focused on producing graduates for industry who would supply the nation with skills to match those of graduates in countries overseas.

As a business school within a post -1992 university, the emphasis was upon expansion of student numbers to hit government targets and thus secure HEFCE (Higher Education Funding Council for England) government funding, and teaching was the over-riding priority for my school. A policy of inclusion for new students was much in evidence. Thus, for a long time my orientation was towards teaching – a fact to which authorship of my textbooks attests. A further contextual factor in higher education was the long-standing, non-inclusion of pedagogical research as a valid category for the government funding under the Research

Excellence Framework (REF), meant that there was little incentive for senior management to promote pedagogy as a valid area of research.

For a short while in the early 2000's there was some time allocation given to lecturers to carry out doctoral research. Although this was short-lived, I was fortunate to secure a teaching and learning fellowship for two years during this time. Thereafter, whilst funding for doctoral studies into the pedagogy of teaching was forthcoming, the time to do this was largely down to the individual candidate's spare time. Research into teaching and learning was something which a core of interested individuals volunteered for within schools. Thus for a while I represented the Business School at the university-level 'Learning Enhancement Board'. By contributing to annual teaching and learning conferences within the university I managed to foster my interest in teaching and learning pedagogy.

In summary, I would suggest that in spite of (because of?) the various barriers to undertaking research into teaching and learning pedagogy, my time spent with other teaching and learning 'champions' has helped me to forge my professional identity. And, as Thomas (2009) points out, this is one of my positional determinants for my research. Thus, for me, my research needs to satisfy both research and teaching goals.

3.3.4 Developing my own Identity and Positionality as a Researcher

From a research stance, Hoskins (2015) argues that the journey of self-identity and positionality of the researcher impacts upon the research process, stating 'Positionality also relates to the impact of my own identity on the research' (p.400). Hoskins pays tribute to the earlier work of Banks (1998) entitled 'The lives and values of researchers: Implications for educating citizens in a multicultural society'; this is an anthropological/ educational study of the representation of 'African Americans'. In the article he makes the defining statement:

> *I now believe that the biographical journeys of researchers greatly influence their values, their research questions, and the knowledge they construct.*

(Banks, 1998, p.4)

The ways in which I used my own biographical career stories within my research interactions with my participants are discussed shortly under the title of 'positioning'. As demonstrated from the previous discussion, positionality is of prime importance in my methodology, although I now believe that I was not consciously fully aware of its impact when I commenced my doctoral research; in the beginning my interactions in class were planned

more upon the *processes* of gaining rapport with my participants, rather than being an in-depth consideration of *myself*, as the person, the teacher researcher, my personal agenda, and how all of these things would impact my research with my participants.

My positionality journey is one in which I have grown throughout my educational career and particularly within my doctoral studies. This accords with the view of Taylor (2017, pp.17-18) that construction of identity through social positioning within interaction is continual and can be a lengthy process.

3.3.5   Positionality and Outsider/ Insider Researcher

An important consideration for my positionality concerns the concept of insider and outsider researchers. As Humphrey (2012) states:

> *Insider research may be defined as research conducted by people who are already members of the organization or community they are seeking to investigate as a result of education, employment, social networks or political engagement.*

> (Coghlan and Brannick, 2005, as cited in Humphrey, 2012, p.572)

If the university is viewed as 'the organization or community' comprising its teachers and its students, then the term 'insider researcher' may be applied to the teacher researcher who is researching their own practice with their own students.

Using this definition, *outsider* researchers are not members of the organisation or community they are seeking to investigate. However, there is an alternative, non-organisational way to define positionality which is multi-faceted in terms of identity, as stated below:

> *By "insider" research, we mean…conducted between researchers and participants who share a similar cultural, linguistic, ethnic, national and religious heritage.*

> (Ganga and Scott, 2006, p.1)

In yet a more expansive fashion, Banks (1998) in his typology of 'crosscultural researchers' (i.e. of insiders and outsiders) focuses upon the extent to which the values, perspectives, behaviours, beliefs and knowledge are endorsed and/ or adopted by the researcher and the community being researched, and the extent to which that community accepts the researcher. Interestingly he also includes social class as another possible factor of positionality.

We are all both insiders and outsiders

Further, to regard ourselves as insiders or outsiders as researchers is too simplistic, for as Banks (1998, , p.7) states ' Depending upon the situations and contexts, we are all both insiders and outsiders'. Heath (2018, p.73) reinforces this viewpoint, saying 'a researcher's position is not simply ascribed to them but is a process of ongoing evaluation…this can result in a researcher's position shifting with experience and across different research contexts'. And Herod (1999, p.313), in his geographical work on interviewing foreign elites, goes even further, berating what he views as a 'dualism' of 'insider knowledge and status versus outsider knowledge and status', suggesting that to categorise as 'insider' or 'outsider' is 'in many ways meaningless', as the researcher's positionality may change due to context and due to those aspects which the researcher chooses to emphasize (p.321). Picking up on Herod's (1999) point, Heath (2018, p.73) in her article on researchers dealing with the sensitive subject of interviewing parents whose children had experienced burn injuries, introduces the notion of being '*other*' (rather than insider or outsider). The important thing, she says about being 'other' in positionality terms as the researcher, is to be able to *empathise* (Cooper, 2011) with research participants, irrespective of whether or not one has had the same experience.

University Teachers as Insider Researchers

Although the benefits and disadvantages of being an insider researcher have been analysed from the racial/ ethnic viewpoint (e.g. Banks, 1998), according to Humphrey (2012, p.573) there has been little research into the dilemmas facing those conducting insider research within universities, despite a 'long history' of it being used there. Humphrey (2012) suggests that the ethical (e.g. in using students as research participants) and political (e.g. the power structure within universities) considerations are likely candidates for further investigation. Cognisant of these considerations, section headings 3.3.3 to 3.3.4 outline my positionality as a teacher researcher concerning a number of these issues, as I thought relevant to my methodology. The following section provides an introductory background to that debate.

3.3.6   The vulnerability of myself as researcher and teacher

Finally, under positionality I had to consider the vulnerability of myself as researcher. As indicated in my Portfolio (see. p.356) , my personality is an INFJ. This has many upsides, including the desire to help others, but one of the downsides is a tendency to overthink possible difficulties; for instance, trying to faithfully represent the participants' stories in my research. A revealing quote from Josselson (1996, cited in Etherington, 2007, p.604)) was of some reassurance:

> *I would worry if I stopped worrying, stopped suffering for the disjunction that occurs when we try to tell the Other's story.*

> (Etherington, 2007, p.604)

However, perhaps the most significant issue to my vulnerability lay in my approach to be, to some extent, open and transparent to my participants though self-disclosure of selected personal learning experiences (Taylor, 2017, p.20). Here I was positioning myself as a story-teller (Huber et al., 2013). This was to encourage a mutual sharing of experiences between participants and myself. I did this in my research as something that I commonly do within my everyday teaching. On my part it was a conscious act. Most of the examples I used in my research were ones that I had tried successfully in my past teaching, as previously discussed, but some were ad hoc. For me, teaching needs to be dynamic and have some edge; I enjoy an element of (calculated) risk, a new learning journey where process is as important as content. In fact, very much in the mode of the guide, climbing the mountain with his clients. Getting the balance right, however, is key. Etherington captures the risk (and the 'buzz' feeling) of this approach when she cites the following comment by Clandinin and Connelly (1994) on the researcher using a personal voice and self-disclosure, as follows:

> *The researcher is always speaking partially naked and is genuinely open to legitimate criticism from participants and from audience. Some researchers are silenced by the invitation to criticism contained in the expression of voice.*

> (Etherington,2007, p.612)

Working with a cultural diversity of students I had also to be open to participants' emerging values and be careful not to cause unintended offence which might lead to student complaints against me. According to Doyle Corner and Pio (2017) the supervision of international students doing their Master's or PhD remains an under-researched area, with cultural issues

identified (p.25) at the top of their list (other being use of English, referencing issues, and pastoral care). In some cultures it is unusual for students to ask for help from their tutors (Irizarry and Marlowe, 2010, p.103), so the issue of expectations between teachers and students needs to be made transparent. This was something that I tried to do from the beginning, although the line between being patronising and helpful is a fine one, touching upon the ethical implications of the power relationship between teacher and students which is discussed presently. Thus, as an 'older worker' I joked about my minor, annoying 'dad-like' habits when teaching (for instance, genuine errors in pressing the wrong keys on the interactive white board, exiting a presentation by mistake etc.) saying that the end result was what really mattered – and that everyone needed help at some stage, including me.; I encouraged them by saying that if 'their dad', or 'uncle' (i.e. me) could do it, then so could they – but if they couldn't, I would help them anyway. And I turned this around sometimes by asking for their advice on the latest technical innovations, admitting that in this regard at least, some of my students knew more than me – and that I was pleased to learn something new that day.

I would argue that pastoral care and the role of the teacher does pose questions for the teacher's sense of vulnerability. Following on from the previous 'dad'/'uncle' discussion it is interesting to note that the issue of vulnerability in this regard may be greater for a female teacher (perhaps an area for further research) judging from the title of an article by Cree (2012): '*I'd like to call you my mother'. Reflections on supervising international PhD students in social work*. The female, white, middle-class teacher (at a UK university) admits she was at first 'aghast' (p.456) when a male PhD student from Bangladesh asked this after she had helped him, but later encountered a similar situation when her Nigerian (female) student kept addressing her as 'Ma' (mother). However, as Cree (2012, p.456) later appears to reconcile her feelings on this after talking with her students, with the realisation that this relationship is not one of looking after the other, but looking *out* for them. As the literature attests (Doyle Corner and Pio, 2017: Cree, 2012; Irizarry and Marlowe, 2010) international students often feel alone, and even more so if they are used to a supportive, collective cultural environment, so the need for support is there, even if as Cree (2012, p.461) states, lecturers may be unsure how to respond to such students.

As mentioned earlier, using tried and tested examples helped me from this point of view. Also, as participants gradually developed their personal understanding with me, possible problems became less likely. An ability to recognise and handle any potential issues was,

however, something that I still required, as every interaction with my participants was a unique occurrence.

3.4 POSITIONING MYSELF WITH MY STUDENTS DURING MY DOCTORAL RESEARCH

3.4.1 Teacher/ Student Positioning

Whereas my *positionality* as a researcher impacted my research stance and how I interpreted my data, my *positioning* was my strategy of teacher interaction with my student/ participants during my intervention. There are links between the two, as the following discussion illustrates:

Palmer and Martínez (2013, p.286) state that *positioning* is enacted in the classroom through discourse and is thus an interactive process, as well as being something which is created within oneself. It is thus concerned with how others see us as teachers, how we wish to be seen by others, and how we see ourselves; and, as it is a relational position, it is at the same time, concerned with how we view others (e.g. students), how they wish to be viewed and how they view themselves. It is linked to the concept of self-identity as expressed in the classroom, which includes markers of gender, class and ethnicity (Maher and Tetreault, 1993; Banks, 1998). My positioning with my students during the 'Guide Process' intervention was as a teacher; but as I was researching the intervention, students also recognised that I was simultaneously a researcher who was interacting with them.

3.4.2 Teacher as 'Story Teller'

I positioned myself with students by telling them about my experiences. Some of these experiences were brief and by way of introducing myself to my students in class; I continued along this path on an ad hoc basis during subsequent time spent with them; and I used examples directly in a presentation of one of my critical incidents. In effect I was using the power of stories and I was the story-teller. My personal experience told as stories belongs to the 'simple genre' of story which is told orally, and is based upon real incidents in people's lives (Hamer, 1999). I was the embattled hero of this narrative (Chamberlayne, Bornat and Apitzsch, 2004). My purpose, as previously mentioned, was to achieve *adequation* – i.e. a sufficient similarity with my student participants in terms of positionality for interaction purposes (Bucholtz and Hall, 2005). It was thus an act designed by me as a teacher to engender a sense of community with my student participants, for, as stated by (Pereira and Doecke, 2016):

> *Storytelling presupposes a sense of community identity and shared experience from which everyone can learn*

<div align="right">(Pereira and Doecke, 2016, p.539)</div>

Kissling (2014) advocates that teachers use the 'messiness of their experiences' (p.90) to teach, and supports the view that we not only learn from stories but come to understand more deeply – as both listeners and story teller. He states:

> *We learn from stories. More important, we come to understand – ourselves, others and even the subjects we teach and learn.*

<div align="right">(Kissling, 2014, p.90 citing Witherell and Noddings, 1991)</div>

N.B. To read a stylised summary of the stories which I told my research participants, please refer to my Portfolio under the heading of 'My Story'(see p.319). The sections which follow give my further, at times more academic, thoughts upon my positionality and are clearly related to '**My Story'(see p.319).**

3.4.3   Experienced teacher and author but aspirant doctoral researcher

Throughout my doctoral research I attempted to position myself with my participants as a teacher researcher. That is to say that I positioned myself as an experienced teacher but an aspirant doctoral researcher. This was not only to represent the 'truth' as I saw it, but a deliberate positioning of myself as someone who was enthused by learning for myself and helping others to learn. My inherent message as a teacher, was that learning was a continual, rewarding process throughout a lifetime of education; that I had been through many of the experiences, as a student, that they were now experiencing, and that I could thus help to 'demystify' (Taylor, 2017, p.21) the dissertation process and guide them along their likely emotional learning journeys. By doing this I was adopting the more nuanced approach of Banks (1998) of being an *insider* in his typology of 'crosscultural researchers'. I was thus showing that I had inside knowledge of their experience, as I too had been a business master's student with a dissertation to complete.

Also, as a doctoral student I was once more on a learning curve; I was using the same university research facilities. Yes, I had a lot of experience already in my role as a teacher, but was keen to pass on any new tips and techniques I came across as a researcher. Like them, I was still having to deal with the messiness of the research process (Hunt, 2001). I told

them, that as an ex engineer who liked definitive answers, I had found this hard to accept, but reluctantly had come to the conclusion that this was an inevitable part of what my sort of (qualitative) research was about. I repeated the advice to them that had been offered to me by a much-respected doctoral colleague, a national teaching and learning fellow, no less. She had said: 'Kevin, you like things in neat boxes. But you have got to learn to live with the chaos!'

3.4.4 Showing empathy and insiderness

As a part-time student I too had been faced with external demands of married family life, young children to support, a job to manage, and a close family bereavement. I had seen my class colleagues struggle with juggling their careers, home life and academic study, and I appreciated that most people did not abandon their course because they were intellectually incapable of completion but because of a combination of other competing factors. And I told my research participants this. I emphasised that the course could be tough, but that worthwhile things often were, and I was there to help them.

In the same way that I had written textbooks (e.g. Gallagher 2010, 2013 – see Portfolio, p.331) based around my teaching with my students, which subsequently benefited both myself and my students, so too, I suggested, would my research-based activities with them. In accordance with my usual introductory approach when teaching a class of multi-cultural post-graduate students, I spent some time over the first few weeks giving them some key background details and stories of my own learning journey in my various careers (i.e. civil engineer, business development manager, and university lecturer – see portfolio, p.319). In this way I was making the first steps in what I hoped would be a healthy, open relationship between us; I was positioning myself as someone who would share for the sake of their learning, that this was an acceptable if not desirable practice in my class, and that by implication they were being encouraged to also share their thoughts and experiences with others. It should be remembered that, at this point, I did not know how many of my students would agree to be volunteers (to various extents) for my research study. In sharing with my students/ would-be-research participants I hoped sufficient students would be able to trust me and appreciate the value of the study for them. What I was more confident in was my ability to connect with them as a teacher, and so I used my tried and tested approaches; as described above, this meant first of all sharing something of my values and experiences with them: at times this was through being a 'story-teller', as previously discussed.

Summary of Positioning

Summarising, I was open enough with my students in this research to share in my doctoral research journey by way of positioning myself as, at times, in a similar position as them – that I too had struggled with making sense of the dissertation 'chaos' (Hunt, 2001; 2006). Moreover, positioning myself with regard to the bigger picture of their careers, I shared other experiences of my own career journey. Realising that many of them were students from overseas and wishing to build empathy with them, I alluded to my own experience as an immigrant engineer in South Africa, with all the culture shock which that entailed. As a father with three daughters who had all quite recently been studying at degree and master's level I had direct knowledge of their learning journeys: as I had wanted to support and guide my daughters, I pointed out that I wanted to help them in the same way. Through my autobiographical stories (both ad hoc and planned) I was sharing my experiences with them and creating a new experience with them in the classroom. However, I was careful to maintain my credibility (Humphrey, 2012, p.574) as someone who had personally travelled their master's route, and had supervised many other master's students. In this respect I was demonstrating my willingness and ability to act as their guide on their dissertation journeys.

3.5 INTRODUCING THE USE OF CASE STUDY AS METHODOLOGY

Case studies are often used in educational research by the university teacher-as-researcher (Harland, 2014). Case studies may be defined in various ways but an apt working definition for my research is as follows:

> *An in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and reality of a particular programme in a real-life context. The primary purpose is to generate in-depth understanding to generate knowledge and inform professional practice.*

> (Simons, 2009, p.21)

One could perhaps take issue with the word 'reality' as individuals will perceive this differently. Thus, from a constructionist viewpoint this this may be better described as 'perceived reality' or even 'constructed reality' on the basis that we construct understanding and meaning through interactions with others in any 'localized encounter' (Bucholtz and Hall, 2005, p.605). The mention of 'context' is particularly significant: the following quote is an extreme view, which is unashamedly made in defence of the case study, but serves to hammer home the point:

> *Predictive theories and universals cannot be found in the study of human affairs. Concrete, context-dependent knowledge is therefore, more valuable than the vain search for predictive theories and universals.*

> Flyvbjerg (2006, p.224)

According to Flyvbjerg (2006) case studies produce the sort of context-dependent knowledge that is necessary for individuals to progress from 'rule-bound beginners to virtuoso experts' (p.221). This is relevant to my own 'becoming'. He states that experience is vital for this personal transformation and requires 'continued proximity to the studied reality and via feedback from those under study' (p.223). Applying the stance of Flyvbjerg (2006) to myself as teacher-researcher, my case study research provides me with the opportunity to further becoming a 'virtuoso'; as a publishable case study it provides a context-specific example for other teacher-researchers.

Methodology or Method?

In all other respects the case study approach captures the spirit of exploration and the purpose of my research to develop deeper meaning with future teaching and learning practice. But are case studies method or methodology? For instance, textbook writers Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) devote a chapter to case studies under 'Styles of educational research'. This classification suggests they are a methodology, as it distinguishes them from their section on 'Strategies for data collection and researching' which includes methods such as questionnaires, interviews and observations. In a similar vein, Denzin and Lincoln (2005) in the 'Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research' regard their use under the heading of 'Strategies of Inquiry', as opposed to 'Methods of collecting and analysing empirical data'. This classification may seem to be at odds with the view that case studies *are* research *methods*, as outlined by others such as Cameron and Price (2009) in 'Business Research Methods' who place it clearly in their 'Data Collection' set of chapters, and Crotty (1998) who shows it as a method.

This apparent contradiction may be partially resolved by consideration of Silverman (2017, p.ix) in his textbook 'Doing Qualitative Research', who lists its use under the heading of 'Choosing a Methodology: A Case Study' and *also* under the heading of 'Collecting and Analysing Your Data: How Many Cases Do you Need?' which is clearly method-related. This suggests that case studies may be regarded as both method *and* methodology.

Whether method or methodology, the use of case studies in the social sciences for research purposes appears to split researchers into two camps: advocates and detractors (Tight, 2010).

Tight (2010) appears to be exasperated by what he regards as a shallowness of thought applied by many researchers who claim to be using the case study approach; he accuses them of supporting their methodology with glib reference to the standard work of two of the most widely-cited authorities on case study, Stake (1995) and Yin (2009). Indeed, the thrust of Tight's (2010) pointed 'viewpoint' on the 'curious case study' argues that the definition of what is a case study is confusing because of the many different ways that various researchers describe and use it. As Tight is a much-published educational author and journal editor, this may appear rather alarming for any researcher considering adopting a case study approach. However, he then offers a glimmer of hope which is highly relevant to my own research (the 'Guide Process') by offering the following definition and possible application of an *educational* case study:

The essence of a case study is the detailed examination of a small sample – at its extreme a single sample – of an item of interest, and typically also from a particular perspective. Thus, the researcher may focus on some aspect of the experience of a specific school classroom (perhaps the introduction of a new teaching practice?)

Tight (2010, p.337)

He then follows this up by publishing a textbook 'Understanding Case Study Research: Small-scale research with meaning' (Tight, 2017), thus advocating the possible value of case study research in eliciting deep meaning from small-scale research. Indeed, he takes issue with Crotty (1998) by categorically stating that he disagrees with Crotty's (1998) depiction of the case study which is 'listed as a method rather than a methodology or a research design (as argued in this book)' (Tight, 2017, p.167).

In summary, the use of case study as a source of data collection (i.e. as a method) would appear to be relatively straightforward, with an emphasis upon the mechanics of carrying out this 'technique' However, if it is to be used as a methodology, it needs a much more sophisticated approach which emphasises its overarching nature in the research design, clearly demonstrating how this meshes with the philosophical research assumptions and the conceptual design of the research. Further, the overall quality of the inquiry is enhanced by integrating existing theory into the case study design (Harland, 2014, p.1116). The following sections outline how this more sophisticated, methodological approach was addressed in my research. As shall be discussed shortly, the case was 'a focus'(Thomas, 2011, p.9) for what was to be studied and was designed according to the aims of the research and the researcher's further choice of methods. The rest of section 3 shows my consideration of the following elements in my methodology and takes Thomas (2011) as its steer:

3.5.1 Definition of Case Study and Applicability to my Research

3.5.2 Case Study Subject and Analytical Frame

3.5.1 Definition of Case Study and Applicability to my Research

As previously mentioned, the research was based around Case Study Methodology. As suggested by the name, Case Study Methodology makes use of Case Studies. There are some pertinent points to be made about Case Studies which are relevant to the overall methodology. The first thing to note is that in case studies there is a close interaction between

Researcher and Participants. Moreover they allow for participants to 'tell their stories' and through these stories the researcher can gain a better understanding of the participants (Baxter and Jack, 2008, p.545). Such stories help participants to construct their identity through use of narrative (Taylor, 2017); this was precisely what I was aiming to do with my Students through the 'Phased Guided Activities' (i.e. '3 words' about their feelings activity, their hand-drawn pictures, the focus group discussion, their critical incident discussions, and finally the interviews I conducted with them). Baxter and Jack (2008, p.545) cite Stake (1995) and Yin (2003, 2006), as presenting Case Study Methodology from approaches which fit well with the constructionist ontology of my research.

My case study could be categorised as a 'Local Case' (Thomas, 2011, p.86) which used the experience of me as the researcher (Teacher) and the participants (Students). It allowed for me to influence the situation. As such it drew upon not only the experiences of the subject individuals of the case study but was informed by the existing relevant literature.

Deeper exploration of the Case Study Methodology can be made by considering a precise definition of 2 key characteristics of case studies. Therefore, for the sake of further discussion here, a definition of case studies is given below:

> *Case studies are analyses of persons, events, decisions, periods, projects, policies, institutions or other systems which are studied holistically by one of more methods. The case that is the subject of the enquiry will be an instance of a class of phenomena that provides an analytical frame – an object – within which the study is conducted and which the case illuminates and explicates.*

<div align="right">Thomas (2011, p.23)</div>

I applied this definition to my research as follows: The 'persons' were Students and me as Teacher at the University of Sunderland during one semester of their research project. The various research methods which I used for this are shown later in section 4.4. They were carried out at different phases and varied in format; I analysed findings from each method but then synthesised these into an overarching discussion so as to consider the implications of the intervention from a holistic viewpoint. The 'analytical frame' considered the learning experiences of Students interacting with me during, and later reflecting upon, the 'Guide Process' intervention. Thomas (2011) goes on to simplify this definition for working purposes, stating that case studies comprise 2 parts: the subject and the analytical frame. I adopted this approach and show further detail in the following section 3.5.2.

3.5.2 Case Study Subject and Analytical Frame

According to Thomas (2011, p.16) Case Study research methodology comprises 2 parts, each supporting the other: the 'subject' of the case study and the 'analytical frame'. The subject here was the learning experience of Master's students who were engaging with their research project and attending the voluntary sessions of the intervention. The analytical frame considered the context within which this happened and the conceptual model of analysis that was being used. Following the advice of Baxter and Jack (2008, p.553) this was used to group themes and relationships that emerged from the analysis of the Research Findings.

The case study was designed in accordance with the guidelines given by Thomas (2011, p.95) as shown in Fig 3.3 .

Subject	Purpose	Approach	Process	
Outlier Key Local				
	Intrinsic Instrumental Evaluative Explanatory Exploratory			
		Testing Theory Building a Theory Drawing a Picture Descriptive Interpretative		
			Single or Multiple	Nested Parallel Sequential Retrospective Snapshot Diachronic

Fig 3.3 Kinds of Case Studies Phases (Source: Thomas, 2011, p.95)

In terms of 'Subject' in Fig. 3.3, Thomas describes 'Outlier' cases as exceptions to the rule and 'Key' cases as well-publicised situations. The instance of the 'Guide Process' fits the next category – the 'Local' case study. Thomas (p. 36) considers the Case Study as an 'umbrella' that covers a range of ways of doing research. Further, the Thomas (2011) framework (Fig. 3.3) for designing case studies allows for more than one purpose, approach

or process. Thus, a number of pathways for a particular case study may be depicted upon the framework. He elaborates on this by saying that a case study offers 'a rich picture with many kinds of insights coming from different angles, from different kinds of information' (p.21). The Case Study for the 'Guide Process' followed this design as it incorporated a range of learning opportunities – referred to here as 'Phased Guided Activities'.

In my managerial past life (see my Portfolio for details) I was used to working on projects, including internal projects that introduced change to working practices. These were time-bound events which were complex and unique, involving a number of stakeholders. The quoted Thomas (2011) definition of case studies could easily fit many of these projects, were they to be the subject of research. As a 'change agent' I was used to the concepts of implementing change. Also, my experience was that, in many ways, the awareness-raising amongst the stakeholders in the project and the motivational aspects of leading the change with its participants were paramount factors for the projects' success. I was used to the '3 Phases of Change' model of Lewin (1947) of 'unfreezing, change, and re-freezing'.

Adopting a similar management of change approach, I decided on a deliberate strategy of using basic introductory Phased Guided Activities at the start of the semester; these were followed in due course by more demanding guided activities. This was to allow for the Teacher/ Student relationship to develop as time went on, and the building of rapport (Smith, 2011). A detailed account of how I positioned myself with my students (as research participants) has already been discussed in section (3.4). From a research point of view the various types of Phased Guided Activities provided a fertile ground for a richness of data to emerge as the teaching module progressed. The Phased Guided Activities comprised 4 phases, spread over the course of the semester, in which the 'Guided Activities' were experienced by the participants and the teacher.

3.6 CASE STUDY: METHODS USED

3.6.1 Case Study Subject and Analytical Frame

A number of methods were used for data collection. The reasoning behind the choice of methods was initially a pragmatic one, influenced by the requirements of the dissertation which my participants were undertaking as part of their module 'Investigating a Business Issue from a HR Perspective' and has been covered in detail already in discussion of the Conceptual Framework (see p.88). Guided Activities can be summarised according to the 4 phases of the research as shown in Fig 3.4:

RESEARCH PHASE	METHOD
1	• Questionnaire
2	• 3 Words • Drawings • Focus Group
3	• Critical Incidents • Interview • Video
4	• Interview

Fig. 3.4 Research Phases

3.6.2 Phase 1: Structured Questionnaires (Self-efficacy scale)

The first phase of my research was introduced during a scheduled module class workshop. At this stage students had been working on their research project proposals for some time. After discussion around the subject of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1985, 1997) students were invited to participate in the completion of a self-assessment questionnaire (see Fig. 3.5). The Questionnaire was based upon an adaptation of a previous questionnaire on self-efficacy (Phillips and Russell, 1994) which had already been tried and tested by other researchers. There were 20 questions for students to assess themselves against. To assist with some of the terminology (Bryman, 2012, p.233), each questionnaire sheet had an explanatory note of

terms with which students may have been unfamiliar. Students were asked to score themselves on a scale of 0 (low) to 10 (high). There was a box for self-identification, as I collected all questionnaires and then gave them back during the next workshop.

The purpose for Phase 1 was largely that of being *instrumental* – i.e. its prime purpose was not to gather knowledge but for some other purpose (Thomas, 2011, p.98). In this instance it marked the beginning of the 'Guide Process' learning intervention. It also served the purpose of encouraging participants to think about different aspects of their own research skills and which of these they might want to develop further. It was a *local* case as it was my own group of students being used as participants. It was *descriptive* as it used descriptive statistics to show key parameters. It was a *snapshot* as it represented the participants' self-assessment at one point (20th Nov 2015).

As a method of gathering data, the Questionnaire had the advantages of being convenient and quick to administer. However, it had the disadvantage in that it did not ask other questions and so was dependent upon the appropriateness of the ones set (Bryman, 2012, p.234). Additionally, it was entirely dependent upon students' understanding of the research process, and more pertinently their ability to assess themselves on their own level of ability. As, at this point, they would not be fully unaware of the extent to which they 'did not know' those areas of learning to be developed, this was perhaps somewhat problematic. The other issue with self assessments is that they prone to be perceptually biased and participants might thus tend to under or over rate themselves. The usual disadvantage of not being able to probe respondents for further information was partially alleviated by the follow-up workshop in class which reviewed the use of the questionnaire. However, this did not include all questionnaire respondents. Having said all of this, it should be noted that the questionnaire results *per se* were of secondary importance to my doctoral research, as self-efficacy ratings were not used to analyse students for my research thesis – their use was to pique students' interest by using data about themselves, and to promote understanding in the use of questionnaires in general as a research method. Returning to the questionnaire:

The questionnaire asked respondents to indicate how confident (0 was low, 10 was high) they were being able to do the following 20 tasks.:

Q.	ITEM	Confidence 0 - 10
1	Identify a particular concept	
2	Identify a particular context	
3	Propose a key research question(s)	
4	Select a topic which will be of interest to others	
5	Access secondary data	
6	Access primary data	
7	Identify models, concepts or theories to guide my research	
8	Conduct an effective and comprehensive information search	
9	Record and manage information including bibliographical details	
10	Identify suitable research approach/ philosophy	
11	Handle constructive criticism from tutor and others	
12	Identify new trends in your field	
13	Develop a convincing argument	
14	Persevere when faced with problems	
15	Reflect and seek ways to improve your research performance	
16	Work independently and take responsibility for own learning	
17	Produce a research plan/ schedule	
18	Identify the purpose of your research	
19	Recognise how your own background influences/ biases your investigation	
20	Select an appropriate research philosophy to collect and analyse data	

Fig. 3.5 The 20 questions of the Questionnaire 'Research Proposal: Self-efficacy'

The questionnaires were summarised in an Excel spreadsheet. This was presented to students/ respondents at the next workshop to demonstrate how data could be input. All respondents

were depicted with their responses to each of the 20 questions shown. Average scores (i.e. the arithmetic mean) and the standard deviation were calculated for the group for sets of responses to each question. Manipulation of the data to construct charts in Excel was shown to students/ respondents and results were discussed. This activity was thus the first one in which participant selves were used as data for the purposes of teaching and learning.

3.6.3   Using the 3 Words and Drawing exercises in combination

A week after participants had completed their self-efficacy questionnaires they commenced Phase 2 of the research. For the first part of this they were asked to complete 2 exercises. These were labelled 'My research journey so far' and the first task asked them to 'use 3 words to describe your research journey so far'. The second asked them to 'draw a picture of your feelings at the moment'.

The intention of both tasks was to elicit participants' thoughts and feelings about their research experiences. My initial reason for having two methods – words and drawings- was to allow participants to express and explore the same phenomena and was based upon a teaching and learning strategy of using multiple intelligences, something that I used frequently. According to Gardner (2011) people use more than one intelligence. Some people are more adept in one than another, whilst combining different intelligences can be synergistic. The '3 words' exercise was chosen for its verbal-linguistic use of intelligence, while the drawings (pictures) exercise was chosen for its visual-spatial intelligence (Gardner, 2011). I was hoping that both would enable some degree of 'intrapersonal intelligence'(Gardner, 2011) – i.e. personal reflection and learning by individuals, as well as an element of 'interpersonal intelligence'(Gardner, 2011) when comments on them were shared between participants in the focus group that was to follow.

Combining words and pictures

In addition to the above, studies carried out by Szalay and Bryson (1976) found that words and pictures were 'closely comparable but produced responses which were differently focused'. Thus, words-stimulated responses were more generic and picture-stimulated responses were more narrow and specific. They went on to say that 'for the assessment of perceptual and attitudinal disposition a good research strategy was to use both' (p.296). In a similar vein, Derry (2005) quoted in Bessette and Paris (2016, p.80) state that 'When drawings and text combine they have the potential to give the audience a multi-layered look

at a phenomenon and help foster an embodied understanding… a perspective that text alone cannot'. Thus, by using the '3-words' exercise and combining this (on the same page) as the drawing, my participant responses were likely to give a fuller indication of their thoughts and feelings towards their research journey up to that point.

The next 2 sections consider the '3 words' exercise and 'the drawings' separately and in more detail.

3.6.4 The 3 Words Activity

Breaking the Ice

The simplicity of asking participants to write 3 words was deliberate. My first priority was to give permission for them to tell me about their research experiences. I wanted a quick response that all participants would be able to complete. It was a symbolic 'breaking of the ice' before they engaged in the more abstract exercise of drawing a picture to represent their feelings. However, by wording it as 'describe your research journey', I was already suggesting some sort of story which they would tell me, albeit restrained by the 3 words. There was a link to the focus group that followed, where I asked them to elaborate on their 3 words. This simple exercise, I would argue, marked the beginning of their narration of their own research stories. It was appropriate to participants starting to make sense of their experiences. At a basic level it was a means of making them 'intelligible to each other' and offering 'vehicles for questioning all that is pregiven', while holding out the prospect that it could be 'effective in social and individual transformation' (Sparkes and Smith, 2008).

Affect Labelling: Putting feelings into words

Deceptively simple though it might appear, the act of putting pen to paper may also have other psychological benefits. For instance, Cron (2000) outlines a simple word game which prompts its participants to become aware of and express their feelings and emotions. She points to a host of other studies (p.402) that link good mental health to this ability.   In a similar vein, the act of putting feelings into words (known as 'affect labelling') has been suggested as one strategy for individuals to manage negative feelings by calming the part of the brain (the amygdala) involved in the fight/ flight response (Lieberman et al., 2007). And so, there is potentially more to the '3 words' activity than meets the eye. If it does, in fact, encourage a calming effect, then asking participants to write first is likely to lead to more favourable conditions for them to then construct their drawings.

Referring to

Finally, another point worth mentioning, is the psychological concept of 'referring to' (Akiko and Akira, 2003). If we are asked to describe our feelings we search for the appropriate word to use. Sometimes we change our words. For instance, to describe their confusion in embarking upon their research proposal, a participant may start off by saying it feels like being in a 'maze' but later changes this to a 'crossroads', which is subtly different: a 'maze' suggests an unmapped territory where the person is currently lost; a 'crossroads', however, suggests a decision to be made about which direction to take along a prescribed path. Thus, the act of deciding which word to use is part of the process through which the individual works out their true feelings about something. This, therefore, is another potential benefit of the '3 words activity'. By discussing their 3 'words' in the focus group to fellow participants have a further opportunity to explore their feelings. As Akiko and Akira (2003, p. 88) point out, personal growth in individuals is directed by the feeling process. Thus, through the act of referring to their feelings, participants were engaging with the process of personal growth.

3.6.5 The Drawings Activity (depicting Metaphors)

As previously mentioned, drawings were also used in Phase 2. According to Vince and Warren (2012) 'drawings can provide a succinct presentation of participant experiences', and moreover, citing Kearney and Hyle (2004) they state 'the approach triangulates well with other qualitative data generation methods'. Thus, the use of drawings fitted in well with the case study approach being used. When combined with the '3 words exercise' and the focus group discussion in which all students took part, it provided a robust multi-layered approach to exploring the research experience of students up to that point.

Conducting the drawings activity

Participants were asked to show their research experiences to date by means of individual drawings. These were constructed using simple pen and paper techniques. Participants were reassured at the beginning of the session that artistic talent was not required, as what was important was for them to depict their thoughts and feelings. The word 'drawing' was used very loosely – for instance words could be added to the drawing. All drawings were to be described by each participant in the focus group immediately afterwards. The following discussion gives further details on the use of drawings as a method. This is developed further

in the findings chapter when participants' drawings are analysed; in particular, structural and ontological aspects of emergent metaphorical themes are discussed.

Stages of analysis of the drawings

As they are visual and may often be abstract or metaphorical, drawings are open to interpretation in ways that the written word is not. It is a good idea, therefore, to use more than one assessor (for instance, Kamens, Constandinides and Flefel (2016) used six assessors). Accordingly, all drawings were initially scrutinised a number of times for their more obvious 'messages', and notes made on copies of the drawings. Further discussion of the drawings then occurred with my supervisors and colleagues over a period of several weeks.

Previous notes from the literature (p. 46) on metaphors informed the next part of the process which was to interrogate each drawing more precisely in terms of its metaphorical meanings. From this, metaphorical themes were identified. This process was similar to that employed by Beltman et al. (2015) and is described more fully in the findings (p. 185), as the metaphorical categories identified were used to structure the discussion of that section, and it was felt that by including them here they would be less clear. A sample of the drawings were chosen for the purpose of discussing the themes; they constituted a 'purposive sample' (Bryman, 2012, p.418). Selection of such a sample is sometimes criticised by researchers, according to the argument that the non-selected examples may yet yield findings. However, the 'sample' constituted most (10 out of 13) of the drawings and had been selected after an initial consideration had suggested they would cover a wide range of metaphors. Moreover, my focus was not on a statistical analysis of specific features, but on gathering meaning from drawings.

3.6.6   Focus Groups

A focus group was used during phase 2 for a number of reasons. Firstly, as Bryman (2012, p.504) states they provide an effective means of making sense of experiences through allowing individuals to discuss with others. Thus, it provided a platform for participants to talk about the '3 words' exercise and their drawings and thus their thoughts and feelings on their research experiences up until that point. Both of these activities were carried out immediately before the focus group and so participants came to the focus group with their already completed written comments and drawings. They would have had the opportunity to

briefly discuss these with their partners, but not in any great depth. This gave them the chance to talk to the whole group about them. The second reason was to partake in a focus group so that they could fully appreciate the mechanics of how a group was run; a number of participants were going to use focus groups in their own research, so this was likely to be of clear benefit. Thus, the focus group activity was both a means to assist my research interpretation of their '3 words' and their drawings, and a means of guiding participants in the use of the focus group method.

Generally, if well conducted, focus groups are better than surveys at exploring people's feelings and experiences (Kandola, 2012), with the proviso that the researcher has made their purpose clear. So, before the focus group recording started, I gave an overview to the participants of the method with further references should they want them. I explained that it was going to be rather like a 'group interview' (Bryman, 2012, p.501) as I knew that the majority would be familiar with the interview concept. I explained the additional difficulties of recording a group of people speaking (e.g. talking over each other, problems in identifying different speakers from the recording). I also stated that the number of participants in our focus group was not ideal. Morgan (1998, quoted in Bryman, 2012, p.507) states that 6-10 people was a recommended range; our group had 13 participants. I could have decided to run 2 focus groups to fit the recommended size of groups. However, this carried a problem of its own: I simply did not have enough time to run 2 groups. And so, I informed the class that we would still go ahead as it would serve to demonstrate the mechanics of running a focus group and also the experience of being a focus group member

With this in mind, to assist the problems of identification of speakers for the later transcription of the recorded event I asked all members to identify themselves by their first name whenever they spoke. Most remembered to do this but when they did not, as the focus group moderator I added a quick note of thanks including the person's name. I was thus modelling (Collins, Brown and Holum, 1991) the role of the facilitator/ moderator. I had prepared in advance for this role by viewing a number of university moderators discussing their technique. As a teacher, I believe I picked up on most of their tips, but ideally, I would have been trained in this technique by others. On the plus side, I did have a recording of myself acting as a moderator, so could carry out some self-reflection on my skills at a later stage.

Prior to recording, I explained that the focus group discussion would be based around a number of questions (Wilkinson, 2011) describing what they had written for their '3 words' exercise and for their drawings. For the purpose of modelling transcriptions, all participants received a transcript of the focus group discussion at a follow-on class meeting. They were told that this took me even longer than the time suggested by Bryman (2012) of 6 times the length of the actual recording. Trying to interpret 13 people's voices, some who spoke very quietly, others with strong regional accents, was not a fast process. Experiencing the focus group thus had a lasting impact. The message was that data collection was very time-consuming. They clearly did not really appreciate this from reading a book. The aim was to force participants to face up to the time realities and amend their own research plans, as many tended to be far too ambitious.

The constructionist nature of focus groups is stated by various writers (Bryman, 2012; Wilkinson, 2011; Kandola, 2012), in that meaning of experiences is created within the groups. Warr (2005, quoted by Bryman, p.515) states that focus groups reveal a mixture of agreements and disagreements among participants, allowing the researcher to draw out the various tensions. This was an aim of the focus group, but realistically to fully exploit this (some indications did occur), the group would have to have been smaller and more time allocated to its operation.

Focus Group Challenges

One of the challenges for the moderator of focus groups is to ensure that quiet participants get a chance to speak and that the conversation is not dominated by garrulous individuals (Bryman, 2012, p.518). I achieved this to some extent by firstly going around each person and asking for their comments before opening up the conversation to any who wished to contribute further.

Another challenge of the focus group relates to the ethics of confidentiality (Kandola, 2012) which often links to participants' reticence in self-disclosing personal details. The ethical issues of this research are discussed elsewhere within the methodology at some length but it is sufficient to say here, that as the issues discussed were not obviously of an intimate nature, then the procedures of prior informing and requesting their consent to take part in the research did appear to satisfy the requirements of these safeguards.

Finally, as discussed in sec. 3.8 the focus group activity was intended to be followed through to the analysis stage so that participants could experience this as well. As Wilkinson (2011, p.

181) states, focus group data readily lend themselves to thematic analysis. So, at a later stage, participants received copies of the transcript of their focus group and were asked (after further instruction on thematic analysis technique) to code the comments into themes. These were then discussed as a group, led by the teacher. Thematic analysis was used for all interview and focus group transcriptions, as discussed in sec. 3.7.

3.6.7   Critical Incidents

Critical incidents have already been introduced as a concept within the literature review (see sec. 2.3.3, p.75). However, as their use was central to the critical incident interviews of Phase 3, further discussion is given here.

The use of Critical incidents in educational settings appears to be favourably supported by researchers. Thus, Woolsey (1986, quoted in Bruster and Peterson, 2013) states that critical incident analysis has been 'shown be to both reliable and valid in generating a comprehensive and detailed description of the situation'. The definition which Tripp (1993) gives of critical incidents in education as being common occurrences which can be of a routine nature and positive or negative (see p. 75) is regarded as helpful for (social work) students in reflecting upon their own research experiences (Lister and Crisp, 2007). Tripp's (1993) definition was the one used in my pre-critical exercise presentation, and indeed was to be remarked upon later by one of the participants as being liberating, in the sense that she could then identify a suitable critical incident for discussion. Lister and Crisp (2007) go on to say that they offer a structured method which is flexible enough to be used in many situations (P.57) and is good for discussing 'values' and 'ethical dilemmas' (p.58). This supports their use for my research, as participants were likely to be asking each other why they had behaved as they did in their critical incidents.

As outlined later (see p.199), before engaging with their critical incident interviews, participants were shown a presentation explaining what critical incidents were and how they could be used for reflection in personal development. This accorded with the advice of Kraus and Sultana (2008) to build the framework of working within international groups before using critical incidents.

However, some limitations to the use of critical incidents amongst multi-cultural groups of students have been raised. These were relevant, as my own participants were predominantly

international. Thus, there were the more obvious differences of values between different members which may be deeply embedded through social processes from birth (i.e 'habitus' as defined by Bourdieu, cited in Kraus and Sultana, 2008, p.63). In terms of the critical incident activity of my research, the danger was that this might lead to lack of understanding between participants interviewing each other and could inhibit the building of the trust (p.73) essential for disclosure of their experiences. Finally, there was the issue of most participants having to converse in English as their common language. This sort of situation had been known to cause awkwardness or embarrassment amongst participants who felt that their English was not of a good enough standard for them to talk in front of others (Kraus and Sultana, 2008, p.74).

3.6.8 Interviews

As discussed, interviews were used during Phases 3 and 4. In Phase 3 participants interviewed each other about their critical incidents. In Phase 4 individual participants were interviewed by me, as the Researcher/ Teacher. This section evaluates the nature of these interactions, offering a critique of the interview as a method in both instances.

Interviews are used in a variety of work-related contexts as well as for research purposes. Interviews come in many different formats but most textbooks (e.g. Bryman, 2012) point to a series of stages between 'structured' and 'unstructured' (sometimes known as 'qualitative' , Bryman, 2012, p.470) interviews. Discussion of these 2 extremes reveals a number of important philosophical stances to which they most naturally relate. Both will be discussed here to examine and justify the choice of interview type used in my research, as their strengths and weaknesses tend to be complementary: discussion of each type thus highlights the other.

3.6.8.1 *The Structured Interview*

In Britain structured interviews became much used within the modernist era (from, say 1900 until WW2) and their use continues to be widespread to this day (Lunenburg, 2010). Such interviews could be viewed as an attempt to be somehow more 'scientific' in the selection of staff, and to be (seen as?) impartial and appear to be underpinned by a largely positivist philosophy.

Interviews for research purposes may be undertaken in a very structured way, using a designed format with pre-determined questions. Deviation from questions is to be discouraged (Bryman, 2012, p.470). Such interviews have their place. They can be very useful when there are a large number of subjects to be interviewed and the data gathered can be used for statistical purposes as part of a survey, or to provide the basis of providing coded responses that can be used to test research hypotheses. Generalisation of results to a wider population is thus possible. In these instances a positivist stance will usually have been taken for the research process; the standardization of the interview procedure makes eminent sense under such circumstances.

For instance, a recent research study investigating the uptake of medical students as future researchers, stated its goal was to 'explore the relationship between research self-efficacy beliefs on the intention to pursue an academic research career in the fields of medicine and life sciences specifically addressing disciplinary and gender differences' (Epstein and Fischer, 2017). This study had N = 1109 subjects who had been surveyed using a series of questions, many using Likert scales (e.g. scales of say, $1 - 5$). Time and cost factors would tend to promote an efficient, structured approach. Thus, this particular study was carried out as an online survey – i.e. as a questionnaire. However it could have been administered in the form of a structured face-face interview: in effect, a questionnaire with a human face, representing the most structured level of interview, or as Symon and Cassell (2012, p.241) put it 'Neo-positivism: …a modified oral survey'. However, while such a survey may reveal associations between variables it lacks the depth of the individual stories, thoughts, motivations and emotions behind the data. Perhaps there are responses waiting which are never brought out, as the relevant questions have not been asked. Moreover, it assumes the role of the interviewer as a 'miner' of data in the modernist tradition, aiming to 'uncover nuggets of truth' (Edwards and Holland, 2013, p.11). However, whilst it lacks the so-called rigour of the structured interview, the qualitative (i.e., semi-structured or unstructured) interview is often more appropriate to the gathering of deep, personal meaning from its participants. It suits a different philosophical belief – the ontology of constructionism. This was the type of interview used for my research and is discussed next.

3.6.8.2 *The Qualitative Interview*

According to Edwards and Holland (2013, p.15), if we are to make sense of 'how others interpret and make sense of their day-to-day life and interactions' then we must adopt an interpretive approach. In my research, participants were interviewing each other about their

experiences along their individual research journeys. Later I was interviewing participants in a similar way. This fits with the above purpose.

The qualitative interview is often the method of choice (as opposed to the structured version) in such investigations. As mentioned previously, this was the interview method used in Phases 3 and 4 of my research. It is fundamentally different to the structured interview which seeks to standardize and depersonalise the process. Instead the qualitative interview adopts a post-modern approach in which the interviewer is a 'traveller' (Edwards and Holland, 2013, p.11) who not only observes but is part of the interview process. Both interviewer and interviewee bring with them their own particular selves within a unique setting:

> *Both researcher and researched bring with them concepts, ideas, theories, values, experiences and multiply [sic] identities*

(Edwards and Holland, 2013, p.5)

Holstein and Gubrium (2011) argue that '*all* interviews are active, regardless of how neutral the interviewers and how cooperative the respondents'. They go on to outline not just the interactive nature of the interview but their belief that meaning is created through the interview process (i.e. in accordance with the ontology of constructionism), stating:

> *Meaning is not merely directly elicited by apt questioning, nor simply transported through respondent replies; it is assembled in the interview encounter. Participants are not so much elicitors and repositories of experiential knowledge, as they are constructors of experiential information.*

(Holstein and Gubrium, 2011)

To those who say that the interview is a somewhat artificial experience, as opposed to the opinion that naturally occurring talk may be regarded as being more 'authentic', they go on to argue that these sort of conversations are just another type of setting; what we say in one type of setting may not be the same as another but that does not necessarily indicate that 'seemingly spontaneous conversation' (P.162) is less biased or unstructured than the qualitative interview.

The research position on qualitative interviews which I adopted is best described as that of *romanticism* (Alvesson and Ashcraft, 2012, p.242). This term appears to have shades of idealism, if not naivety, when compared with the 'neo-positivism' position of the structured interview, which appears to be viewed in rather a negative light by the authors. *Romanticism*

in this context is best defined by consideration of the use of the term to describe 'a literary and artistic movement which began in the late 18th century and emphasized creative inspiration and individual feeling' (Oxford English Dictionary, 2006). Upon reflection I can appreciate the *romanticism* term inasmuch as when I am using the metaphor of 'University Teacher as Guide' and the notion of students' journeys there are definite nuances of inner thoughts, feelings and emotions. The *becoming* of students as 'aspirant researchers' as well as the onward development of the teacher illustrates this point.

The romanticist mode of working as an interviewer is also characteristic of my research:

> *The romantic interviewer, advocating a more 'genuine' human interaction, seeks to cultivate interpersonal relations founded on a rapport, trust, commitment and 'warmth' between researcher and interviewee, such that the latter feels free to express oneself openly.*

> (Alvesson and Ashcraft, 2012, p.242)

Thus, the deliberate design of the 4 phases of the 'Guide Process' intervention which seeks to establish all of the above is testament to my stance as a 'romantic interviewer' (a term I suspect not to be used lightly because of possible ambiguity with its more commonly used reference to love – perhaps the term 'empathetic interviewer' might have been more appropriate, and less likely to raise sniggers when spoken in self-declaration?). The term notwithstanding, Alvesson and Ashcraft (2012) press on to reveal other characteristics of the romantic interviewer, many of which are found within my own research stance. Thus, they quote (p.242) Holloway and Jefferson (2000, p,32) saying:

> *Researchers rely on interviewees' narratives about their lives as a way to understand them, since 'story-telling stays closer to actual life-events than methods that elicit explanations'*

> Alvesson and Ashcraft (2012, p.242)

During Phases 3 and 4 of my research, participants recalled their critical incidents. What were these if not stories about their lives? In Phase 2 participants elaborated on their research experiences as described by their '3 words' and as shown in their drawings; the latter were mentioned verbally by participants during the focus group discussion and visually told their own stories, often through metaphor.

Finally, the romantic interviewer seeks to establish rapport with their *participants* and, echoing Holstein and Gubrium (2011), seeks through 'active interviewing' to collaborate with the interviewee in the co-construction of knowledge. Wandering away from the question is accepted, indeed is welcomed, especially if it reveals new knowledge. The interview process is dependent upon the context, headed by the various contributions of both interviewer and interviewee (Edwards and Holland, 2013, p.5). This mitigates against the generalisation of findings from research to a wider context. However, for the purposes of a well-defined case study design, which seeks depth of meaning in thought, feeling and emotion, and based upon the discussion raised here, I propose that the romanticist approach to interviewing is an appropriate method for my research. In terms of the reflexive mechanics of conducting semi-structured interviews the 4 step iterative protocol of Arsel (2017) provides clear guidelines.

3.6.9   Using Video in Phase 3 Critical Incidents

Borko et al. (2008) are very interested in the use of videos to foster professional development via "productive discussion" in communities of practice – in this case, teachers who teach mathematics (i.e. other group members are teachers too). They suggest (P.419) that videos should be of participants themselves – citing work by Seidel (2005) that these are "more stimulating" and that this method "situates their exploration…in a more familiar, and potentially more motivating environment". However, Borko et al. (2008, p. 420) go on to cite the work of Sherin and Han (2002) which warns that some participants were "self -conscious about being video-taped" and that this approach "requires a higher level of trust and respect".

A number of studies investigate how teachers may use video recordings of themselves to analyse and improve their own teaching – e.g. (Tripp and Rich, 2012) – which give practical advice on how to analyse the videos in terms of different dimensions and further notes on the use of reflection as a process. Interestingly, another Tripp (Tripp, 1993) wrote about the use of critical incidents reflection for developing professional judgement.

Perhaps one of the closest related studies to my initial doctoral work was that of a CETL (Centre for Excellence in Teaching and Learning) project led by Birmingham City University. The project was called 'Creating Future Proof Graduates' and completed in 2009.The aim of the project ' (Popovic et al., 2010; Hill et al., 2010) was to provide 8 different resources, linked to critical incidents, to assist with the development of under graduate student skills. One of these resources was entitled "Ethical Dilemmas". It was

intended to promote learning of ethical awareness and behaviours in the work situation. It used video clips of a fictional case in which a graduate is confronted with an ethical dilemma at work. The video was used as a resource and is accompanied by notes; students discuss the case in class with their tutor. To summarise: this approach uses a fictional scenario of a plausible (problem) situation which is presented as a critical incident, acted out by professional actors as a sort of 'fly-on-the-wall' documentary. The class discussion is used to generate debate and learning amongst the community of students. Video allows body language and other cues to be observed/ analysed and the video can be replayed or stopped at appropriate points. The use of professional actors does give a more 'polished' video but does not allow for more direct student interaction other than as vicarious learners (Bandura, 1985) and is contradiction of Borko et al (2008) who advocate that the videos must be played by the students themselves. Moreover, this is a teaching *resource* (as stated on the website) and does not obviously allow for individual student input to the scenario.

3.7 CODING DESIGN FRAME

The recorded audio data collected from the focus group discussion (Phase 2), the critical incident discussions between participants (Phase 3 – this was video data), and the Researcher/ Participant interviews (Phase 4) were transcribed into MS word documents. The type of coding used was thematic coding. Bryman (2012, p.578) states that the term is used by qualitative researchers in different ways but states that a generally accepted viewpoint a thematic code is: 'a category identified by the analyst through his/ her data' and 'provides…the basis for a theoretical understanding of his or her data' (p.580). According to (Maitlis, 2012) thematic analysis is 'probably the most common kind of narrative analysis' and is suited to exploring the story behind the words, rather than the words themselves. She states (p.495) that it is suited to analysed interview transcripts. Both of these points are appropriate for my own research transcripts.

In terms of recent advice to researchers on how to code data, (Saldaña, 2016) gives researchers further useful advice. Thus, the approach of Liamputtong and Ezzy (2005, pp.270-3, quoted in Saldaña, 2016, p.21) suggests 3 columns for formatting and analysing the data: raw data, preliminary codes, and final codes .This is consistent with the approach given by Bryman (2012, p.576), which identifies each speaker in the first column, the words spoken in the next, then leaves space for a further two columns of initial comments and higher order

comments, to be completed by the researcher. An example of this for my data is shown below in Fig 3.6:

Higher order comments	Initial Comments	Transcript
	Setting the scene	**Kevin**: Well, Good Morning everyone, my name's Kevin Gallagher, I'm the tutor for PGB M85. Today is Friday 11th December, 2015 and I'm conducting em a rather large Focus Group session here today with students. So, the question is, "Now that you're soon to submit your proposal for PGB M85, em how do you feel about your progress so far?"
	Interest, challenge and stress (overwhelming) are all mentioned by same person. Supervisor has helped	**Person X:** My name's 'X'. It's been really ==interesting== and ==challenging== At first I think it was very ==overwhelming==, with just trying to get the structure right but by going to lectures and ==speaking to the Supervisor==, it kind of just breaks things down bit by bit.
		Kevin: OK, Thank-you.
'Challenge' seems to be a consistent feature of this and other comments	**'Challenging' mentioned 3 times** **'critical arguments' - part of the challenge?** **'good' = useful – not all bad!**	**Person Y:** My name's 'Y'. Em, Mine has been really ==challenging== because I'm kind of working on something that is widely discussed but yet I'm looking at the opposite side of it, so it's kind of ==challenging== getting the right ==critical arguments== to back up my own arguments for the research, so it's kind of ==challenging==, but ==so far it's been good== and I'm almost done with my proposal.
		Kevin: OK.
Metaphor has been used here in speech – see if this is shown later in Person 'Z' drawing	**'Constructive' = useful** **Interesting use of *metaphor* – surfing in the dark etc**	**Person Z**: My name's 'Z'. Em.., mine has been ==constructive and consistent==. At the beginning I had, em, it was like I was ==surfing in the dark, but suddenly I began to have glimpses of light and the puzzles that were in bits and pieces em, started aligning and coming together.== Ok, so I saw my Supervisor yesterday and I had a very good feedback, he just made some corrections and he said I should effect the corrections and I'm done; so I'm happy about that.

Fig. 3.6 Example of Initial Coding of my data by hand

The first pass of these documents was carried out by printing out the transcripts with only the speaker and text columns complete. Scripts were first of all read through a number of times. Then what appeared to be key points, phrases or words were picked out by underlining or highlighting. Initial comments were pencilled into the 'Initial Comments' column. Commonality in the form of categories between these was then denoted by highlighting sections with a particular colour and creating an initial codebook which gave codenames to

each category; for instance, in the example (Fig 3.6) the word 'challenge' seems a likely candidate for a category or theme. Transcripts were later considered by two other competent (doctoral) researchers who input their advice and comments.

Using a computer coding programme

The next phase of coding was to go through another cycle, this time using a computer coding programme (Quirkos ™). I decided to do this because of certain additional benefits that I had experienced in my trial-testing of the programme, coupled with the similarity of its visual representation to my coding by hand approach (as shown in Fig 3.6). The computer program was a useful tool in that categories (the bubbles on screen) could easily be split into sub-categories, or alternatively combined into bigger themes. Also, it allowed for easy changes to decisions on what type of code to allocate against different sections of highlighted text. And, at the press of a button a report could be generated which showed the codebook, quotes made by specific speakers gathered together by theme, and the relative importance in terms of numbers of comments of each category or theme. These themes, with quotes, provided the basis for sub-headings in my analysis. The programme thus allowed for flexibility and ease of presentation within the thesis. However, it did not remove the basic skill of the researcher who still had to decide what to code and how to code it.

In practice, the same MS word transcripts were loaded up. Then, in similar fashion to the pen and paper approach, sections of text were highlighted in different colours, according to category; these then appeared on the split screen as different colour bubbles or 'quirks' which represented the categories they were being placed in. As the number of comments highlighted in the same colour increased, so did the size of the category bubble. In this way an immediate visual representation of the number of comments became apparent. The basic transition from the paper and pen method to the computer coding programme was relatively intuitive and appeared to be well suited to thematic analysis of my transcripts. Fig 3.7 shows an example of my coding, relating to participants feelings on their drawings, which I will go on to explain now:

Themes (circles) showing summary of number of sections coded –size of circle increases with number

Coding Colour

Transcript Text with sections coded by theme
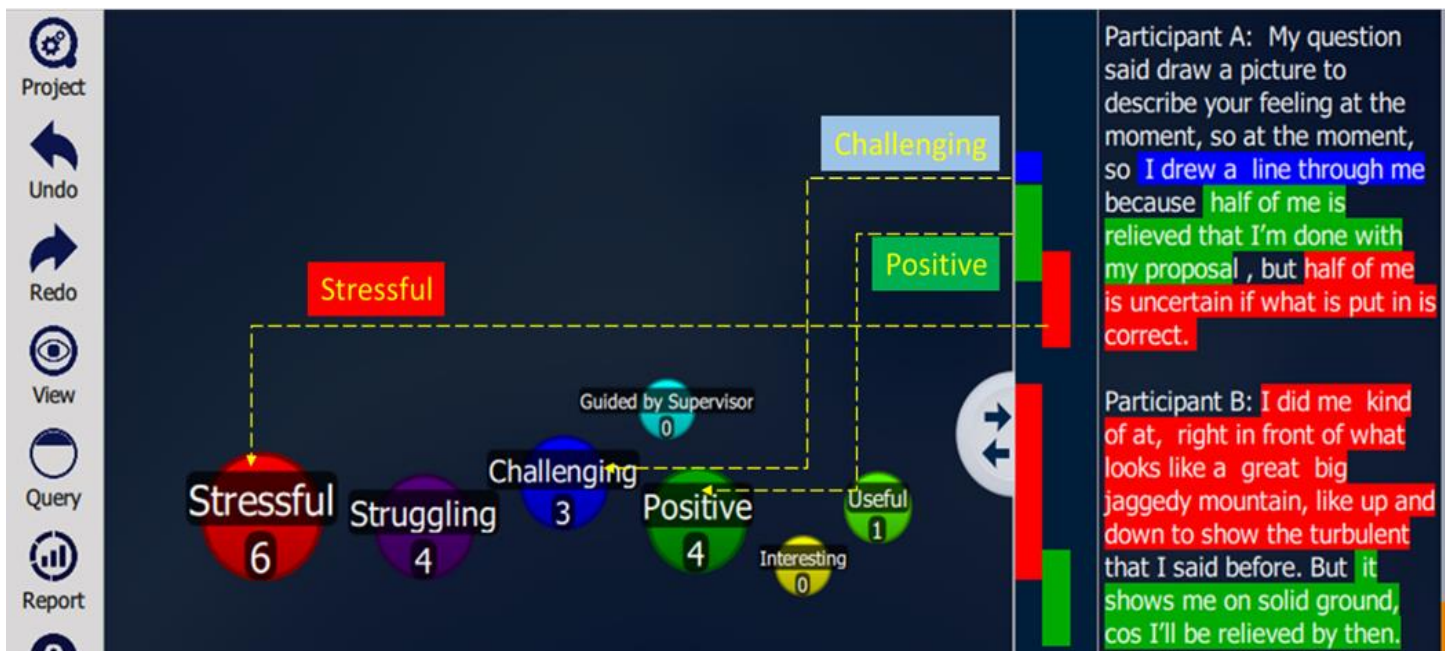
Fig. 3.7 Coding my data using the computer program (Quirkos ™)

The themes of 'Stressful; Struggling; Challenging; Guided by Supervisor; Positive; Interesting; and Useful' are shown. According to Muse, Harris and Field (2003, p.384) the word 'stress' carries with it negative connotations, whereas the word 'challenge' suggests something which is more wholesome. Therefore, for the sake of this analysis, the terms are defined in the following way: 'Stressful' is used to denote pressure, perceived by the individual, that is very high, outside of their immediate control and likely to lead to emotional distress if maintained; 'Challenging' is used to denote pressure, perceived by the individual, that is high but considered as likely to be within their capabilities, and therefore not as problematic; the term "Struggling" is used for the space between 'Challenging' and 'Stressful' – it may become either 'stressful' or 'challenging' in due course. Additionally, the words have been chosen to correspond with the 'Inverted U Theory' of stress versus performance (see Fig 3.8, overleaf); this theory proposes that at low levels of pressure, performance of individuals is low but rises with increasing levels of pressure up to some point at which further pressure (i.e. 'stress') leads to a rapid decrease in performance (Westman and Eden, 1996; Muse, Harris and Field, 2003).

The 'Stressful" and "Challenging" codes are consistent with different coping styles that have been identified in studies of expressive writing. Thus, the extreme stages of the "Stressful" code is redolent of 'Avoidance coping' , as characterised by a wish to escape (Lee and Cohn,

2010, p.251) : the "Challenging" code is redolent of 'Problem-focused coping' which seeks an active solution to the problem (Lee and Cohn, 2010). A third form of coping is emotion-focused (Lee and Cohn, 2010) . Here, the individual seeks not to solve the problem but to reframe it so it is less troublesome emotionally. It would be very neat to consider this to be equivalent to the "Struggling" code. However, whilst it could conceivably fit, there is insufficient evidence from an initial interpretation of the data to make the case for such a correlation.
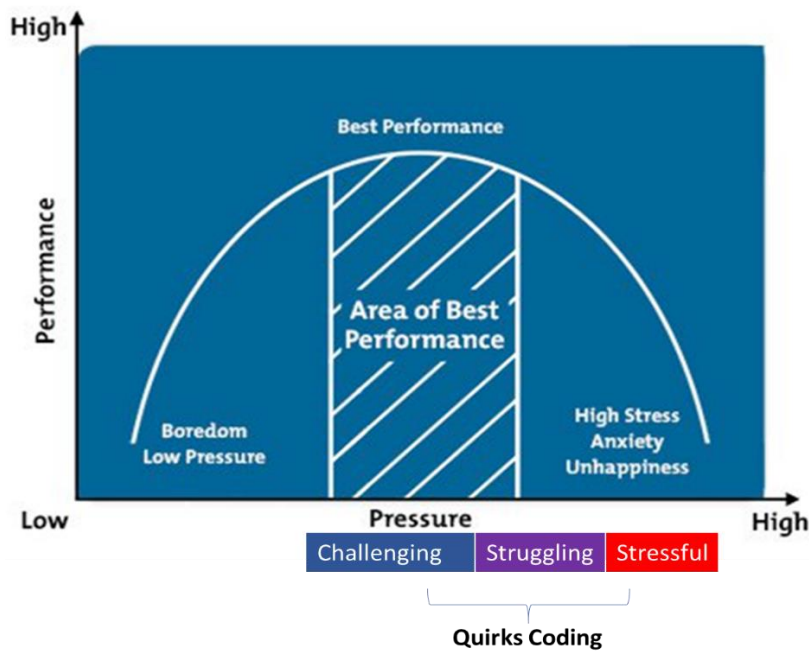
Fig 3.8 Categories (Quirks) Coding: Diagram adapted from MindTools (2017)

 Thus, in the example shown in Fig 3.7 Participant A describes her drawing which shows herself cut in two halves by a vertical line. I decided this represented some sort of 'challenge' and so highlighted the text in the 'challenge theme' colour (blue). She seemed to be in two minds: She said 'half of me is relieved that I'm done with my proposal', which I took as a 'positive' response and so highlighted the text in the 'Positive theme' colour (green); the next comment was 'but half of me is uncertain if what is put in is correct' seemed to be to indicate some sort of anxiety – so I highlighted the text in the 'Stressful theme' colour (red).

The decision as to which colours to choose for the themes (circles) is not something which the programme manual **(Quirkos ™)** covers. There does not appear to be a convention for them. I chose red for 'stressful' on the basis that when I asked my students in class what colour they would choose they went for 'red' because of its biological danger connotations of

blood and fire. However, had my class been predominantly composed of Chinese students, they may not have done so, as red is traditionally a colour denoting good luck, being used in weddings and traditional festivals (Wang, Shu and Mo, 2014, p.156). A cursory look at the literature reveals that colour 'influences the minds and behaviours of both animals and humans' and that it affects emotions of arousal and pleasure; thus choice of colour may be affected by contrary preferences. The colours red and blue have received most research attention (p.152). In the case of the Chinese culture and the colour red, social associations appear to play a key role in viewing it positively, even in the face of biological arousal factors (Wang, Shu and Mo, 2014, p.156). Suffice to say here, that the colours chosen appear to have been subliminally chosen by myself from a Western social stance.

Likewise, upon reflection, the positioning of the themes (circles) appear to have been chosen by myself as a progression from left to right, along a sort of continuum. This is consistent with the Western way of reading. Thus, in Fig. 3.7 I have placed 'Stressful' at the left hand side, trending through 'Struggling' and 'Challenging' to the 'Positive', 'Interesting' and 'Useful'. I could not quite decide where to place 'Guided by Supervisor' so placed it above the main continuum but between 'Challenging' and 'Positive' suggesting that they helped students address their challenges in a positive way (judging from the comments students had made in the focus group transcript).

In summary, colour and positioning of themes appear to reflect my own westernised, cultural behaviour. Pragmatically, colour differentiation soon becomes a problem in terms of differentiation as the number of themes increases, though this is perhaps a good thing as it forces the researcher to keep them to a manageable level, as discussed below.

Thematic Coding: Deciding on number of codes

The dilemma faced by the coder is often of how many codes to have. Saldaña (2016, p.23) talks of 'lumper coding' as coding large sections – e.g. a few sentences – under one code, as opposed to 'splitter coding' where data is broken down into smaller fragments. Looking again at my own coding, and comparing with his examples, I seem to lie somewhere between the two. However, I don't think this is too critical as long as the next point of number of codes is satisfied.

With regard to the number of codes, too few and there is insufficient dissection of the data to extract differences; too many and they become unmanageable in terms of being able to conceptualise the number of codes. However, he cites a good working rule based upon the

work of Lichtman (2013) and Cresswell (2013) is to aim for between five to seven major concepts or themes in which lesser codes or sub-categories may reside (Saldaña, 2016). My own coding generated between 6 and 10 themes, and I found this to be manageable. Deciding upon which theme to discuss first was influenced by the number of comments in each, especially for the largest, but it became a question of judgement as to how to prioritise them as sometimes a small theme might have something of real importance.

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

3.8.1 Introduction

Throughout my research process I drew upon my university ethics training, in the first instance, as my guide. I discussed my research with fellow academics and, taking advice from my supervisors, I recognised that there were additional ethical requirements pertaining to using students as research participants. In particular, the power relationship (Clark and McCann, 2005, p.45) between students as participants and me as the researcher and teacher had to be very carefully considered. These issues were also addressed at annual reviews of my doctoral progress before an official university panel which adhered to the University of Sunderland Research Ethics Committee guidelines. As my research relates to educational research within a business context, I also consulted the guidelines advocated by Bryman (2012, p. 146) which refers to the Economic and Social Research Council (ESRC) ethical guidelines for conducting research. These include the following 6 requirements:

1. the research should be of a high quality
2. participants should be informed of the purpose, methods and possible uses of the research
3. the need for confidentiality and anonymity of participants
4. the voluntary nature of participation and the ability to withdraw at any point without penalty
5. the need to avoid harm of any sort to the participants
6. the independence of the research concerning possible conflicts of interest

These guidelines apply to research with any type of participant and are echoed by the University of Sunderland research ethics guidelines.

I took a number of steps to ensure that these ethical concerns were fully addressed.

3.8.2 Addressing issues of confidentiality, anonymity and consent

According to Schrems (2014, p.830) informed consent is 'the tool' for ethical research, along with the use of institutional processes. Thus, Informed consent was sought and obtained from all would-be participants for my research. Students were firstly informed verbally in class of my research and were supplied with a **Participant Information Form** (**Thesis Appendix 7.7**, p.313) which stated the purpose of my research and what it entailed for their participation, should they choose to do this. Each student who participated was requested to

sign a **Participant Consent Form** (**Thesis Appendix 7.8,** p. 314).These forms clearly stated that all information would be kept strictly confidential and that students had the right at any point to withdraw from the research study without giving a reason.

To further protect anonymity, all data transcriptions of individuals' contributions were coded with fictional first names (no family names being used) which meant that only I had access to the real names. Thus, only fictional names appear in the doctoral report.

All hard copy and electronic data has been securely stored by myself and I have been the only one who has had access to it.

3.8.3   Selection of Student Participants

Research participants belonged to a full-time, one academic year duration (2015-2016), cohort of MSc Human Resource Management students. All students were given the opportunity to voluntarily attend a number of sessions in addition to their normal schedule, which were the basis for the research. Fig. 3.9, below shows attendance across all four phases of the research and the break-down of student participants by nationality and gender.

Fig. 3.9 table:

Phase and Date	Phased Guided Activity	Data recorded	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Student			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Gender			F	F	M	M	F	F	M	M	M	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	M	F	M	F
Nationality			British	British	Greek	German	Nigerian	British	Nigerian	Italian	Chinese	Chinese	Romanian	Nigerian	Chinese	Chinese	Bulgarian	Vietnamese	British	Nigerian	British	British
1. 20th Nov 2015	'Diagnosing my own self efficacy as a student researcher'	Participants' self-efficacy questionnaires		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
		Chart and mean scores of all participants (anonymous)		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
2. 11th Dec 2015	'My 3 words and picture of my research journey to date'	Participants' words and pictures	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓
	Focus group discussion on 3 words and picture	Focus group transcript	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓
		Focus group audio	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓
3. 29th Jan 2016	Critical incident – interviewing each other on video	Transcripts of participants interviews	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓													
		Participants' Videos	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓													
4. March – April 2016	One-one interview/ reflection (of Participant with Teacher as Guide) of all Guiding Activities completed	Teacher (Guide)/ Participant Interview transcripts	✓	✓	✓	✓																

Fig. 3.9 Student Participants: Gender, Nationality, and Attendance over Phases 1-4

Thus, it can be seen that there were seven males and thirteen females in the cohort, six out of twenty were British, followed by four Nigerians, four Chinese, and one participant each from Germany, Italy, Greece, Romania, Bulgaria, and Vietnam. In terms of gender this group had more females than males at 65%, compared with the national average of approximately 50% in business postgraduate courses for the research participants' academic year 2015-16 (Department for Education, 2017, p.8). In terms of nationalities, by categorising students as UK, Other European Union, and Non-European Union for 2015-16 UK postgraduate students (Universities UK, 2017), the following figures emerge: the number of my group's UK students was low at 30% (c.f. 68% average nationally), high at 25% for Other-European

Union (c.f. 7% average nationally) and high for Non-European students at 45% (c.f . 30% average nationally). Chinese students, who represent the largest sub-grouping of Non-European students nationally were equally represented in my group with Nigerian students. It should be noted, however, that any comparison between national averages of students and my group must be purely on a descriptive level (rather than statistical) due to the small sample size and the inherent differences in statistical compilation methods. Thus, the national statistics can only be a broad guideline, in this instance, to show national trends and they are by necessity an average. However, what can be inferred is that, the gender mix of my group was not heavily biased towards either sex, and that it comprised a wide range of nationalities.

3.8.4 The need for participation to be voluntary and how this was achieved

The first area of consideration was the exact nature of my educational influence with this group of students; the next was how I then went about designing an ethical approach to my research in the light of this and the ethical considerations previously listed.

Some writers advise against tutors carrying out research on their own students (although they may do so with students from another faculty) as they are wary of possible coercion regarding consent and possible bias regarding assessment practices (Comer, 2009). However, whilst cognisant of the potential hazards, others propose ways to steer an ethical course around these, for instance stating 'lecturers can carry out research on their own students, even at small campuses, in an ethical manner' (Clark and McCann, 2005, p.42). This was my approach as a teacher researcher. As will be seen in the following discussion, I steered this course through the following steps: encouraging students to volunteer because of the benefits which I truly believed it could offer them: involving them in the research process to some extent; and acting to minimise any possible coercion to take part. This latter point included: my stance on students opting out of the research; consideration of my influence on those students whose dissertations I personally supervised (four students); and the additional assessment safeguards which were built into the module design. These points are now discussed.

Potential Benefits to Students of Participating in the Research

The question of why people would volunteer to be participants for some else's research was one which I asked myself at the start. Individuals need to satisfy themselves that the benefit from attendance is worth the additional time required. According to Clary and Snyder (1999) people volunteer for a number of reasons; in their 'Voluntary Functions Inventory' (Clary

and Snyder, 1999, P.157) they propose a framework that comprises the following 6 factors: 1.) *Values* – for instance, helping other students at some future point; 2.) *Understanding* – the volunteer learns; 3.) *Enhancement* – the volunteer grows psychologically; 4.) *Career-* the activity helps the volunteer with getting a desired job; 5.) *Social* – helps the volunteer to develop a social network; 6.) *Protective* – protects the volunteer from feelings of guilt or acts as a means of mental escape.

Factors 2 (Understanding), 3 (Enhancement) and 4 (Career) were reflected in the Master's degree programme learning outcomes which encouraged the cultivation of all three; therefore, as I believed that my research would 'match' (Clary and Snyder, 1999, p.158) these learning outcomes, I pointed these out to students as possible benefits from participating. I should say at this point that from a personal ethical stance, I fully agreed with the programme's learning outcomes and so felt justified in promoting them in this way.

I thus promoted the potential benefits of the Phased Guided Activities to students. This included both better understanding of research techniques and growth in their personal development. Possible benefits were students' expectations of subsequent better assignment grades for this and other modules which demanded a reflexive approach. Another possible benefit was the growth of friendships amongst participants alongside a shared interest in learning.

I also pointed out that there could be further benefits: the programme had a follow-on module to 'my' research-based module, and this was based around a highly reflexive analysis of themselves as researchers (I was not a tutor in this module). Students were encouraged to use their experience on their research-based module as the basis for at least some of their reflection. With the agreed, prior permission of the module leader of the follow-on module, I offered to supply all students, upon request, full personal digital copies of any activities (e.g. their own text, drawings, videos, interviews with me) that they had participated in. They would then be able to draw upon this personal data for their future assignment.

Involving Students

I made considerable effort in getting to know students during 'normal' class time and in successive phases of my research. Through my enthusiasm, friendly and humorous approach (Van Praag, Stevens and Van Houtte, 2017), love of learning and honesty about some of my own learning experiences, I was attempting to encourage a response in students such that they would want to embark on a learning journey with me – to climb that 'mountain'.

As a teacher, I had greater academic knowledge than many of my students and also experience of teaching students over many years. I made use of this by indicating to students new areas of development that I could help them with, and by asking them if they had any areas they would want me to include in the 'Phased Guided Activities' within my research. In the event, a student suggested a session on critical incidents. This was fortunate as it happened to lie at the heart of what I was trying to cover. It served to reinforce students' commitment to the research programme.

3.8.5   Addressing possible Coercion

Wherever a power relationship exists between researcher and participants it is incumbent upon the researcher to be aware of the possible ethical implications for the research process and in particular for the well-being of the participants. In the 'Guide Process' I was acting as a guide/teacher as well as a researcher, so the ethical stance had to be carefully understood and then addressed. I thus took heed of Foucault's (1982) metaphor to show how control may be used in a mentoring relationship. For instance, he suggested that control may be effected when the mentor uses the relationship to monitor the performance of the mentee; in psychological terms he suggests the mentee may feel under a surveilling 'gaze,' as prisoners might from a guard in a watchtower (Fulton, 2013, p.2). Therefore, I designed my research so that it took the form of a number of phases over the course of the semester, thus allowing time for rapport to build – and so for students to believe that I was being genuine when I had said that the entire process was voluntary, that the intention was to benefit them and not to be used to judge or assess them in any way other than for the purposes of my research. Further, that all information would be anonymised and confidential.

My Stance on Students Opting Out

My stance was not to query students who did not continue with the ongoing phases of my research as to why they had chosen to opt out. Indeed, I informed them all at the beginning that I would not do so, as I did not want to put them under any pressure to justify their decision. To do so, I felt, would be contradictory to my written statement that all participation was purely voluntary and that participants had the right to withdraw at any point without any penalty whatsoever. Also, I felt that to question them would have been counterproductive to my quest for the maintenance of trust with my students. In the event, three of the seven students who had completed phase 3 decided not to continue with phase 4 – suggesting that they felt comfortable to do so. Out of courtesy they did tell me that they were not continuing

and I thanked them for their contribution for the first three phases and hoped that they had found their participation useful.

Possible influence over my own students

The issue of influence over students was addressed through a number of decisions made before teaching commenced. The first of these was that I was not the module leader of the group of students who were to be my research participants. My input was largely limited to providing workshop sessions on research methods, as one of three tutors under the direction of the module leader. As a member of the module team I did have four students who I advised and whose work I marked. In the event, only one of these students volunteered for the later phases 3 and 4 of my research. Considering that only 4 out of 20 students completed all four phases (i.e. 1 in 5) the participation rate of my own students was consistent with that of the overall class, most of whom were not my students. Had the final four students been only my own tutees, this would have raised concerns.

The decision of three of my four students not to participate may have had cultural (national) determinants, as they were all Chinese and may not have felt comfortable in taking part in the later, small group-oriented activities of Phases 3 and 4 – this point is covered later in the findings and conclusion; however, the fact that they did not participate suggests that they were not afraid to opt out of the voluntary phases.

Additional safeguard built into the module design

In terms of the marking procedures of the module, there was a further safeguard to students' participation or non- participation; this was the strictly monitored process of all student work being double marked by two members of the module team and overseen by the module leader. Where the mark differed by more than 10% between markers, the module leader as third marker would preside over the marking process. This university process was also subject to scrutiny by an external examiner and had also been designed to meet the requirements of the CIPD professional body (see **Thesis Appendix 7.6,** p.312) because of the module's contribution towards the programme and hence to professional membership.

Support for students who did not wish to participate in the different phases
Students who did not participate in any phase of the research were treated no differently to those who did in terms of the support which they received from their personal supervisors and their module lecturers. The teaching culture of the module pro-actively encouraged

students to seek advice on any aspect of their work from university tutors. At the regular supervisory meetings, supervisors might well pick up on issues to be addressed in students' work of which they were unaware.

Phases 1 and 2 were conducted at the end of normal workshops and all students present opted to stay for the session, so that in practice, the issue of students opting out was really only applicable to phases 3 and 4 of the research which were held at separate locations, at times agreed between myself and students. It should be emphasised that the 'Guide Process' sessions were *over and above the usual requirements of the module curriculum*, and held during available free time of myself and participants. These were promoted by myself as opportunities for further self-development. As opportunities, they were a choice which students could take or reject without prejudice, as was their right.

3.8.6   Other ethical considerations

On 'being friendly' as opposed to 'being a friend'

According to Morton-Cooper and Palmer (2000, quoted in Fulton, 2013, p.5) mentors may acts as 'Advisors' and 'Supporters' to students. Both of these are personally helpful roles and thus have friendship orientations; however, they do not mean that a friendship, as such, exists between the Teacher and the student. There are differing views on whether or not platonic friendships between university teachers and students are a 'good thing'. As mentioned previously , teaching is relationship-based and friendliness or 'affiliation' (Van der Want et al. 2015) is required in addition to 'control'. With regard to my research, the 'Guide Process' was based upon the basis of the Teacher being 'friendly' - but not a personal 'friend' of the student. Thus, my approach was consistent with the contingency approach to mentorship of Boehe (2016) who refers to 'support', as opposed to, say 'friendship', as the relational aspect of mentorship.

On participants telling stories and telling secrets – Relational Ethics

My research encouraged participants to reflect upon their experiences and to share these with myself and other participants. To the extent that they learned how they went about the process of doing their research and how they learnt as researchers; this was reflexive in nature. Ellis (2007) talks about the 'relational ethical' requirements in research that involves 'Telling secrets' and 'revealing lives'. She talks of participants as being 'intimate' others. I was asking participants to take what I considered to be a few risks by revealing apparent

weaknesses and situations which they might consider a little sensitive or embarrassing in respect of their learning experiences during their research projects. I considered this was likely to be relatively low to medium risk when asking participants to tell their stories, as opposed to secrets associated with death, bereavement, marriage difficulties or other personal problems of the sort that Ellis (2007) alluded to. However, I acknowledged that certain individuals may be feeling more sensitive than others and also that differences in culture meant that I should not take anything for granted. I did my utmost to follow the advice of Ellis (2007, p.4) who advocates treating all participants with 'dignity and respect'. I conveyed these sentiments to my participants so that they too might appreciate differences between them, and I emphasised the voluntary nature of any contribution.

On 'being friendly' as opposed to 'being a friend'

Finally, it is appropriate to mention my ethical stance on friendship with students. According to Morton-Cooper and Palmer (2000, quoted in Fulton, 2013,p.5) mentors may acts as 'Advisors' and 'Supporters' to students. Both of these are personally helpful roles and thus have friendship orientations; however, they do not mean that a friendship, as such, exists between the Teacher and the student. There are differing views on whether or not platonic friendships between university teachers and students are a 'good thing'. As mentioned previously , teaching is relationship-based and friendliness or 'affiliation' (Van der Want et al. 2015) is required in addition to 'control'. With regard to my research, the 'Guide Process' was based upon the basis of the Teacher being 'friendly' - but not a personal 'friend' of the student. Thus, my approach was consistent with the contingency approach to mentorship of Boehe (2016) who refers to 'support', as opposed to, say 'friendship', as the relational aspect of mentorship.

3.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH STUDY

Limitations will be discussed firstly from the broader issue of the overarching methodological stance and then from more specific issues relating to methods.

3.9.1 The use of Case Study

A critique of the methodological use of the case study has already been given in chapter 1 (see sec 1.7.2, p.29) and earlier in this chapter (see sec 3.5, p.121) for discussion of 'Methodology or Method? However, it is worthwhile to summarise that, from a predictive standpoint the use of case study in this small-scale, in-depth research is a limiting factor. The findings of case studies are usually considered to be unsuitable for generalisation to a wider population. However, they are good for getting a 'rich picture and gaining analytical insights from it' (Thomas, 2011).

As such, case studies are context-dependent. In my case study the main actors were teacher/ researcher (i.e. myself) and students/ participants. In quantitative research, strenuous efforts are made to ensure that the research is not influenced by the researcher. However, as stated, my research is essentially qualitative and dependent upon researching the interaction between myself as the Teacher/ Guide and my students as aspirant researchers. Therefore, the research is definitely influenced by the identity of the researcher. For instance, my personality profile (see **Portfolio Appendix 9.7**, p. 356) is that of an INFJ according to the Myers Briggs scale (Myers and Briggs Foundation, 2017) which is ideally suited to a counselling role (Passmore, Holloway and Rawle-Cope , 2010). It is also highly creative. The argument could be made that this personality type is well-suited to the 'University Teacher as Guide' role in that it shows a natural preference for a supportive, relationship-oriented approach to teaching students. The inference could be levelled against my study that other personality types might not be as naturally suited to the pastoral elements of the guided approach as used in my research.

In terms of my student/ participants, again the context was subject to a particular, given gender mix and range of nationalities and personal backgrounds – i.e. all of those students in the class were invited to the research. My research was not designed to specifically investigate any particular nationality in detail, beyond noting the participation of students

during the various phases (having said this, participants' comments have been noted and suggestions made for further research). Nor was it designed to focus on gender or age issues.

On a broader contextual front, this research was conducted within a post 1992 ('new') university in the North East of England. Teaching and learning in the UK within higher education has its own educational environment. Research within a 'traditional red-brick' university may well have given different results. The research itself was conducted during 2015-16 during a time of particular economic and political circumstances; not least of all would have been the state of the government policy of encouraging overseas students to study in the UK and the desire of such students to enrol in British universities.

The following limitations are generally related to research methods.

3.9.1.1 *Phase 1 Questionnaire – usefulness?*

Some self-efficacy instruments use Likert scales; e.g. Phillips and Russell (1994) use a scale from 1 to 9, and my research in Phase 1 used a scale from 0 to 10. Other scales use a score, e.g. from 0 to 100; e.g. Holden et al. (1999). It is usual for researchers to average candidates' self-efficacy scores as a way to describe the data; some researchers draw up hypotheses under a positivist paradigm and use inferential statistics to test these, based upon the score data. The findings from Phase 1, were based on a small sample and, therefore, were not suitable for inferential statistical analysis.

It is interesting to note that the use of self-efficacy scales does raise a general issue regarding the researcher's assumption that one person's confidence can be equated to another person's confidence; the researcher is assuming that self-efficacy is a nomothetic phenomenon (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000, p.7), rather than unique to the individual (an idiographic measure).

However, the implications of the above were not of particular relevance for my research because the results were only to be used from a *descriptive* statistical point of view (I was not interested in conducting quantitative research against hypotheses) – i.e. as another way of describing how my particular group of students felt about their confidence in doing dissertation-related tasks. As such, its purpose was intended more from a positioning point of view, to encourage them to begin thinking about their dissertation abilities in preparation for the qualitative research embodied in the following research phases. These would probe for the deeper meaning and understanding of my research aims and objectives.

3.9.1.2 *Phase 2: Non-attendance of Phase 2 – cultural reasons?*

It is interesting to note those students who did not attend Phase 2, which was also a scheduled class session. In particular, 3 out of the 4 Chinese students (refer to Fig 3.9 on p.164) were not present. Despite anecdotal observations by teachers, and the importance of overseas students numbers to the continued survival of post-graduate business programmes, there has been little research on the appropriateness of the Anglicised approach of supervision upon overseas students (Doyle Corner and Pio, 2017). Chinese students in particular may find problems due to 'culture shock' (Zhou et al., 2008) and lack of English language proficiency, despite meeting agreed standards (p.25). The need for warm, pastoral care for such students is recommended by Doyle Corner and Pio (2017). One of the aims of the 'Guide Process' was to forge closer, supportive relationships with students. For this to happen students needed to show up at sessions. This, in turn, required them to see the benefits of doing so. However, at this juncture the reasons for the non-attendance of students to the session are only based upon secondary reading and hunches from prior teaching experience. The recommendation here is that further research be carried out in the future to address this issue.

Phase 3: Critical incidents - Johari 'blind spot'?

The following exchange during my research is worthy of attention. It concerns the fact that people are often not very good at analysing their own strengths and weaknesses, and can often benefit from listening to how others perceive their behaviours (Gallrein et al., 2013).

Rachel: *"I like the fact you shared with us."*
Kevin: *"Why?"*
Rachel: *"Because it was interesting to know how the relationships are perceived very differently by either party. It showed that there was clearly a discrepancy there and there probably is for a lot of people. So I guess it was a good starting point to what we were about to do."*

My critical example had been about asking others (a previous group of students) which roles they thought I was acting out as their teacher. I had been surprised at some of the answers but gained awareness, reducing my Johari 'blind spot' (Luft and Ingham, 1955). I admit to not thinking of how my critical example could demonstrate the use of the Johari model when I gave the example to my participants– an instance of serendipity! However, it is something which I will now make specific mention of in future workshops. However, by definition,

there will always be a 'blind spot' even after some things are brought to the attention of the individual.

3.9.1.3 *Using Participant Videos to record critical incidents?*

The videos were a rich source of multi-modal data (LeBaron et al., 2017) to explore the critical incidents of participants. They helped the transcription process. Moods and emotions could be more easily discerned by reference to facial gestures and body language.

However, interpretation of videos as a research method lends itself to much more specialised analysis, for instance using a social semiotic approach (Bezemer and Mavers, 2011). This would have required significant researcher development on my part. Thus, there was a trade-off between time required for this and the benefits to be derived from any subsequent analysis. Where the use of video constitutes the main research method this might be justified. However, as one of a number of research methods as used in my case study, I made the compromise decision to view and listen to all data on video but to use standard methods of transcribing from the audio tracks.

3.9.1.4 *Implications of findings on using Participant Videos in class ?*

This comment from one of my participants during the Phase 4 interview applies both to my research and to using video in class in general:

> *"I felt like in my Undergraduate research and in this current research, that videoing people that I was talking to might be overstepping the mark, but with the students knowing each other so well and knowing the lecturers, then videoing suited, because it didn't feel like overstepping the mark in our scenario. I think video does have its advantages in that respect."* Source: *Rachel*

This shows that video has to be used with respect in class. Building rapport (Smith, 2011) and using empathy (Cooper, 2011) are essential. International students may have different cultural values (Gobo, 2011). It should be noted at this point that various potential issues relating to nationality and culture of students arose during the course of the research; these are discussed later, in areas for further work.

Chapter 4:

Results and Findings

4   RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Foreword

As discussed in Chapter 3 (Methodology) my primary doctoral research was conducted over a period of months from November 2015 to April 2016 and consisted of 4 phases.

This chapter starts with an introduction, after which it is divided into **two parts, followed by a summary:**

- **The first part is entitled ‘Results’**, and gives a description of the data collected from the various phases of the research. This covers sections 4.1 to 4.5.

- **The second part is entitled ‘Findings’** and discusses the meaning and implications of the data in terms of significant factors identified, and the extent to which they address the aims and objectives of the research. This is split further into **Initial Findings** (Section 4.6) and **Further Findings** (Section 4.7).

- The **Summary** of Results and Findings is given in Section 4.8.

RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Results for Phases 1, 2 and 3, are given in turn. Phase 1 is very much about participants getting used to the idea of sharing their experiences with each other; Phase 2 begins to deepen this; and Phase 3 has participants interviewing each other about their experiences. Phase 4 evaluated 1-1 feedback on the previous 3 phases. For the sake of clarity, Fig 3.9 (previously discussed – see p.151) is shown again below:

Phase and Date	Phased Guided Activity	Data recorded	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Student			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Gender			F	F	M	M	F	F	M	M	M	F	F	F	F	F	F	F	M	F	M	F
Nationality			British	British	Greek	German	Nigerian	British	Nigerian	Italian	Chinese	Chinese	Romanian	Nigerian	Chinese	Chinese	Bulgarian	Vietnamese	British	Nigerian	British	British
1. 20th Nov 2015	'Diagnosing my own self efficacy as a student researcher'	Participants' self-efficacy questionnaires		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
		Chart and mean scores of all participants (anonymous)		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
2. 11th Dec 2015	'My 3 words and picture of my research journey to date'	Participants' words and pictures	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓			✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
	Focus group discussion on 3 words and picture	Focus group transcript	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓			✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
		Focus group audio	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓					✓			✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
3. 29th Jan 2016	Critical incident – interviewing each other on video	Transcripts of participants interviews	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓													
		Participants' Videos	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓													
4. March – April 2016	One-one interview/ reflection (of Participant with Teacher as Guide) of all Guiding Activities completed	Teacher (Guide)/ Participant Interview transcripts	✓	✓	✓	✓																

Fig 3.9 (repeated) **Student Participants: Gender, Nationality, and Attendance over Phases 1-4**

4 Phases: Rationale

Reasons behind the choice of activities in the various phases have already been discussed - please see p. 91. However, it is useful to restate the rationale to the 4 phases: phases 1 and 2 were designed to be carried out with students towards the end of the scheduled two hour research methods workshops which I led for their project module. The emphasis was on students learning research methods through class participation in the methods, using their own data. Students were encouraged to reflect upon both the technique they had used and upon their own immediate consideration of self. One of the underlying aims of phases 1 and 2 with regard to my research was to pique students' interests in, and desire to learn more about, possible research methods that they might use in their own work. Thus, the intention was that they should begin to think more about developing themselves as researchers.

The other underlying aim of Phases 1 and 2 was to encourage students to become willing participants for phases 3 and 4 of my research. Phases 3 and 4 were designed to encourage the participants to think much more deeply about their experiences as researchers via a process of recalling their own critical incidents and discussing these with others; these phases were completely separated from the scheduled teaching environment, requiring participants' attendance for almost three hours during phase 3, and half an hour for phase 4.

Participation: Initial observations

Referring to Fig 3.8, Phases 1 and 2 reflect the attendance at the scheduled workshops for the project module. Thus, sixteen students were present for Phase 1 and thirteen students for Phase 2 (Source: Class Register). In Phase 3 there were seven participants; all of these had attended Phase 2. In Phase 4 there were 4 participants.

Participation: Implications for Analysis of my Research

Phase 1 required the 16 participants to complete a self-scored questionnaire. As this was anonymous the data have not be individualised.

Phase 2 required 13 participants to write 3 words to describe their research experiences to date and to draw a picture to represent them. Participants identified themselves. The results of Phase 2 have been analysed as a whole, with particular examples being chosen to illustrate certain points.

Phase 3 had seven participants. It required participants to interview each other, recorded on video. In the event, this led to 3 sub-groupings of participants, as agreed between them: two groups of two and one group of 3 participants. The results of Phase 3 have been analysed individually.

Phase 4 had four participants and comprised an audio-recorded interview between the Student as Participant and myself Researcher/ Teacher. The results of Phase 4 have also been analysed individually.

4.2 RESULTS: PHASE 1 : QUESTIONNAIRE OF RESEARCH SELF-EFFICACY

4.2.1 Introduction

As discussed earlier (Fig 3.9 – see p.164) the first phase of my research was introduced during a scheduled module class workshop. At this stage students had been working on their dissertation proposals for some time. After discussion around the subject of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1985, 1997), students were invited to participate in the completion of a self-assessed questionnaire. The Questionnaire used previous questionnaires on self-efficacy which had already been tried and tested by other researchers. There were 20 questions for students to assess themselves against. To assist with some of the terminology, each questionnaire sheet had an explanatory note of terms which students may have been unfamiliar with. Students were asked to score themselves on a scale of 0 (low) to 10 (high). There was a box for self-identification, as I collected all questionnaires and then gave them back during the next workshop.

As shown previously in the methodology (sec 3.6.1, p.127), the purpose for Phase 1 was largely that of being *instrumental* – i.e. it was not being done just to gather knowledge but for some other purpose (Thomas, 2011, p.98). In this instance it marked the beginning of the guided process in the 'University Teacher as Guide' learning intervention. It was a *local* case as it was my own group of students being used as participants. It was *descriptive* as it used descriptive statistics to show key parameters. It was a *snapshot* as it represented the participants' self-assessment at one point (20th Nov 2015).

The questionnaire is shown below:

Q.	ITEM	Confidence 0 - 10
1	Identify a particular concept	
2	Identify a particular context	
3	Propose a key research question(s)	
4	Select a topic which will be of interest to others	
5	Access secondary data	
6	Access primary data	
7	Identify models, concepts or theories to guide my research	
8	Conduct an effective and comprehensive information search	
9	Record and manage information including bibliographical details	
10	Identify suitable research approach/ philosophy	
11	Handle constructive criticism from tutor and others	
12	Identify new trends in your field	
13	Develop a convincing argument	
14	Persevere when faced with problems	
15	Reflect and seek ways to improve your research performance	
16	Work independently and take responsibility for own learning	
17	Produce a research plan/ schedule	
18	Identify the purpose of your research	
19	Recognise how your own background influences/ biases your investigation	
20	Select an appropriate research philosophy to collect and analyse data	

Fig. 4.2.1 The 20 questions of the Questionnaire 'Research Proposal: Self-efficacy'

Phase 1 (Questionnaire) Findings

The questionnaires were summarised in an excel spreadsheet. This was presented to students at the next workshop to demonstrate how data could be input. All 16 respondents were depicted with their responses to each of the 20 questions shown. An average score (i.e. the arithmetic mean) and the standard deviation was calculated for the group for sets of responses

to each question. Students were shown how to enter the relevant formulae in Excel. Fig 4.2.2 shows the completed spreadsheet.

Respondent	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q5	Q6	Q7	Q8	Q9	Q10	Q11	Q12	Q13	Q14	Q15	Q16	Q17	Q18	Q19	Q20
1	10	8	5	9	8	7	5	7	9	8	10	5	7	10	9	10	6	7	9	8
2	8	4	6	9	9	3	5	5	6	4	5	6	7	6	5	7	6	6	5	5
3	5	6	6	5	4	4	3	3	3	4	6	4	5	5	4	4	4	6	6	4
4	10	10	6	7	8	7	7	7	8	7	8	6	7	7	6	8	7	6	6	7
5	4	6	7	9	6	5	6	8	7	5	5	6	7	8	9	9	8	7	5	4
6	5	7	4	7	8	5	4	4	5	5	7	6	4	6	5	7	5	6	4	6
7	7	8	6	8	4	2	5	6	8	7	9	4	6	7	6	7	5	9	6	4
8	9	6	9	7	9	7	7	8	8	8	9	7	8	7	7	9	7	8	7	7
9	4	6	4	5	5	5	7	5	7	5	8	6	5	7	7	7	6	6	5	4
10	7	7	7	6	7	4	7	6	8	7	10	6	6	6	10	7	8	10	7	7
11	6	6	3	5	7	6	7	6	6	6	8	6	6	7	7	7	7	7	7	6
12	4	4	6	6	4	4	6	6	6	5	5	4	6	8	8	8	6	8	8	6
13	7	7	6	6	7	7	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	5	5	7	7	7	6	7
14	7	5	4	6	9	4	7	6	6	6	3	4	3	5	5	8	6	7	4	6
15	6	7	3	6	7	8	4	8	8	6	8	4	6	7	6	8	6	6	7	7
16	8	8	5	7	8	5	7	7	7	4	5	5	8	8	8	7	6	6	6	5
Mean Score	6.7	6.6	5.4	6.8	6.9	5.2	5.8	6.1	6.8	5.8	7.0	5.3	6.1	6.8	6.7	7.5	6.3	7.0	6.1	5.8
Standard dev.	1.9	1.5	1.5	1.3	1.7	1.6	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.3	2.0	1.0	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.3	1.0	1.2	1.3	1.3
	SURVEY 20th November 2015 PGB M85 Class																			

Fig. 4.2.2 Survey 20th November 2015

An initial scanning of the mean scores across the table did not reveal anything startling. The lowest mean score was 4.2 for question 6 (confidence in accessing primary data) , ranging through to the highest mean score of 7.5 for question 16 (confidence in ability to work independently and take responsibility for own learning).

To show the mean scores and standard deviations in graphical form, excel was used to produce the following bar chart (Fig 4.2.3)
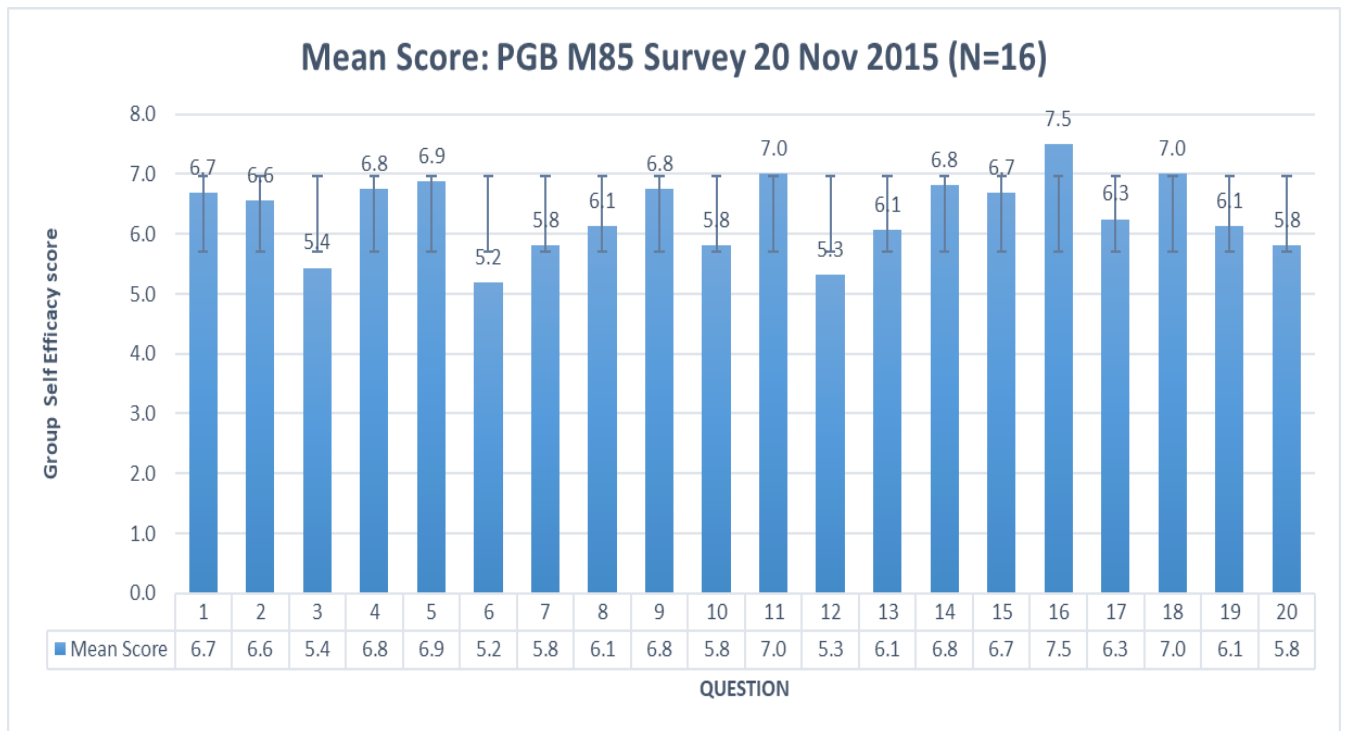
Mean Score: PGB M85 Survey 20 Nov 2015 (N=16)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Mean Score	6.7	6.6	5.4	6.8	6.9	5.2	5.8	6.1	6.8	5.8	7.0	5.3	6.1	6.8	6.7	7.5	6.3	7.0	6.1	5.8

QUESTION

Fig. 4.2.3 Bar Chart showing Group Self-efficacy for each of the 20 survey questions

From the bar chart it was clear that 3 questions had mean scores of just over 5. These were lowest of the 20 questions. On the basis that students may wish to discuss areas in which they had the least confidence I selected question 3(relating to their confidence to propose a key research question) for further graphical analysis. Using the Excel spreadsheet I produced the frequency chart (see fig 4.2.4) for question 3 and showed students in class how to reproduce this.
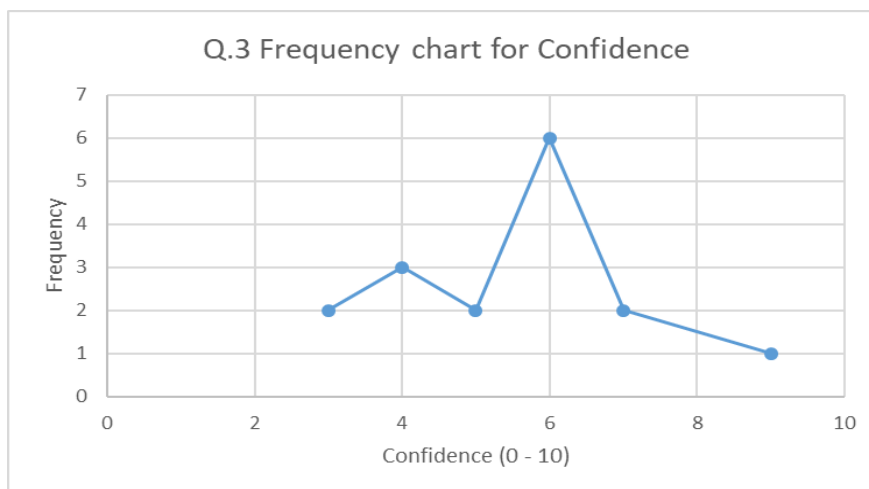
Fig 4.2.4 Frequency Chart showing confidence scores (0, low-10, high) of participants, N=16

Discussion of the frequency chart showed some widespread differences amongst students' confidence in their ability to pose key research questions. Thus, 5 out of the 16 students were fairly low in confidence giving this question a score of 5 or less. A group of 6 students seemed to be a little more certain than this, giving a score of 6. Only 3 students felt more confident than this.

RESULTS : PHASE 2

Consisting of 3 sections:

4.2.2   Focus Group – Initial Discussion

4.2.3   Analysis of 3 WORDS Activity

4.2.4   Analysis of DRAWINGS Activity

4.3 RESULTS: PHASE 2 :

4.3.1   Introduction

Phase 2 required 13 participants to write 3 words to describe their research experiences to date and to draw a picture to represent them. Participants then identified themselves at the beginning of a focus group session that was audio-recorded (12 minutes 45 secs) in class on 11th December 2015. The purpose of this exercise was twofold for the participants: firstly, to provide a learning experience of how to lead a focus group; secondly, to promote self-reflection on their research experiences to date and to share some of these with fellow participants. At the beginning of the focus group discussion, participants were asked to summarise their progress and their 'drawing'. Later, the focus group audio recording was transcribed; and at the next student workshop, following instruction from myself, participants were asked to code it. This then led to a class discussion. The purpose of doing this later exercise was to let participants try out coding for themselves on data which was personally meaningful, being situated in their own experience (Baxter Magolda, 1999, p.15). The intention was that students should begin to learn how to code so that they might apply their newly acquired skills to their research project.

This section shows my own coding of the focus group discussion and my subsequent analysis of the experiences of the participants up until 11th December 2015. On this day participants had first completed their '3 words exercise' and 'picture of feelings' before taking part in a focus group. At this point participants had submitted research proposals to their supervisors. Final completion of their research projects was scheduled for summer of 2016.

The results of Phase 2 have been analysed so as to summarise the group as a whole, with particular examples being chosen to illustrate certain points. A critique of the use of focus groups has been given earlier in the Methodology. However, it is worth bearing in mind the words of one researcher on the pragmatics of data analysis:

> *The practices of good (or even adequate) qualitative data analysis can never be adequately summed up by using a neat tag. They can also never be summed up by a list of specific steps of procedures that have been undertaken* (Rapley, 2011, p274).

Thus, the following analysis is subjective. It is reliant upon my own set of skills and knowledge as a researcher and my own view of what valid research is, as discussed earlier in the Methodology. It does, however, show my reasoning for selecting labels and themes. Where this is a correlation to the literature I have indicated this. The qualitative data analysis computer tool 'Quirkos' (Quirkos, 2018) has been used to assist the analysis and to draw some of the visuals.

The **transcript** of the **focus group discussion** was divided into 3 sections:

1. **INITIAL DISCUSSION**

This first section asked participants the question "Now that you're soon to submit your proposal for PGB M85, how do you feel about your progress so far?"

2. **3 WORDS**

The second section asked participants "Do some people want to just describe their words to me…your 3 words?"

3. **DRAWINGS**

The third section asked participants "Can you quickly describe what your picture was?".

The qualitative program 'Quirkos' was then used to assist the analysis of the transcript data. The following 7 codes emerged (please refer to p. 142 for details of coding methodology):

Stressful

Struggling

Challenging

Guided by Supervisor

Positive

Interesting

Useful

Fig 4.3.1 The 7 Codes of the Focus Group Analysis

4.3.2 PHASE 2 Results : Focus Group - Initial Discussion

The first question that participants were asked was "*Now that you're soon to submit your proposal for PGB M85, how do you feel about your progress so far*?". Fig. 4.3.3 shows the overall coding of responses from the 16 participants.
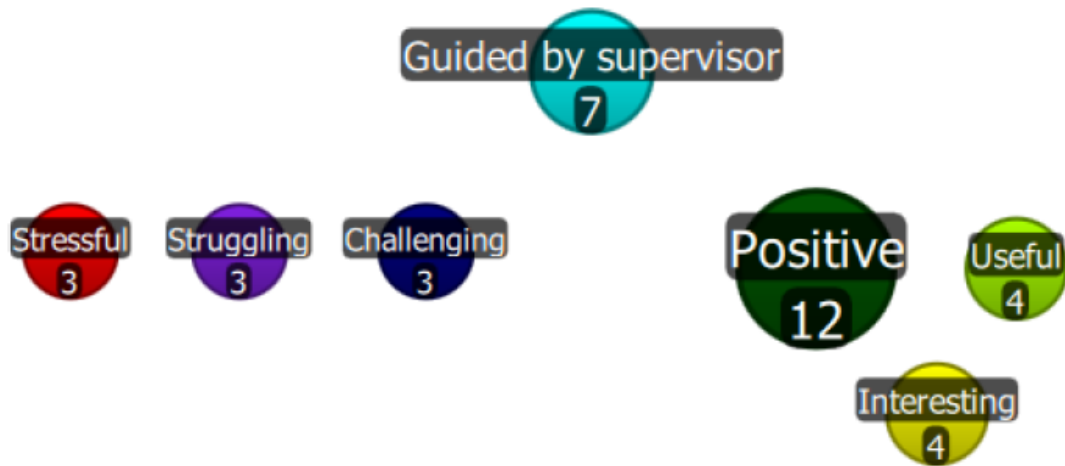

Fig 4.3.3 Initial Discussion

For the sake of anonymity, individuals have been given false names - e.g. Amy, Rachel etc. throughout all sections of Phase 2. The question produced a significant number of 'Positive' responses (12), as shown below in Table 4.1, overleaf:

Participant	'Positive' Responses
Hans	"I feel so far relatively good" "…good proposal so far"
Faith	"well, mine is going good right now"
Frances	"good thing is, ah, I got my first interview with the Company CEO and I scheduled others after Christmas"
Cheryl	"So far it's been good and I'm almost done with my proposal"
Rachel	"I'm quite happy with mine so far"
Amy	"I submitted my proposal yesterday. Em, I think it's gone alright. I'm quite confident with my literature proposal"
Violet	"…but after the meeting with my supervisor I've got some positive comments now, a bit more confident"
Suzi	"I've basically just about finished it"
Olivia	"Erm, I feel pretty confident about my topic now and I believe it has value to a business"
Suzi	"I feel better about how I'm going to structure my whole report. I've an idea what I'm doing now so it's good"
Costas	"…but I feel that, eh, I've done a decent job so far"

Table 4.1

Thus, a majority - some 11 of the 16 participants present had something positive to say about their experiences up to that point. Frances, Amy, Olivia and Suzi had specific points to make with regard to their choice of topic, meeting a key contact, literature proposal and structure of the whole report; however, other comments were very general, along the lines that things were going well. Additionally, there were the following 4 responses given under the 'Useful' category (quirk) label, as shown overleaf in Table 4.2:

Participant Student	'Useful' Responses
Amy	"I feel my area of topic was quite interesting. I've learnt something new I would never have originally thought, so that's quite beneficial for me"
Olivia	"I feel pretty confident about my topic now and I believe it has value to a business"

Frances	"first feedback with my supervisor, she put me right, it was really constructive feedback"
Joseph	"…mine has been constructive and consistent"

Table 4.2

These responses show that there were some indications that participants had found their initial experiences 'beneficial' and 'constructive'. Closely allied to these responses were 4 labelled under the 'Interesting' category, shown as follows in Table 4.3:

Participant Student	'Interesting' Responses
May	"It's been really interesting"
Hans	" very interesting points [supervisor] he mentioned"
Amy	"I feel my area of topic was quite interesting"
Joseph	"but suddenly I began to have glimpses of light and the puzzles that were in bits and pieces, em, started aligning and coming together"

Table 4.3

These comments showed a level of interest but were rather vague with the exception of Joseph. From the comment given it is clear that Joseph found the experience extremely interesting; metaphors of 'glimpses of light' and 'puzzles' appear to show deeper thinking about the process of carrying out research. This comment stands out from the others but is a somewhat lonely one amongst a background of rather vague words. Had the focus group consisted of the more usual 6 – 8 people and lasted longer than the short time allocated to it (only 12 minutes) it is possible that this point could have been noted by the focus group leader and other participants and developed further. As previously stated one of the prime purposes of the focus group had not been to gather detailed information on a particular topic but to demonstrate to participants how a focus group could be run.

Taking the 'Positive', 'Useful' and 'Interesting' comments as a whole, many students appeared to be progressing quite well with their research work. However, there were a number of comments under the 'Stressful', 'Struggling' and 'Challenging' labels, as shown below in Table 4.4:

Participant	'Stressful' Responses
Frances	"…and mine been hectic because I lost my work and I have to retype everything again"
May	"At first I think it was very overwhelming with just trying to get the structure right"
Rachel	"…a bit worried about how much time I'm going to have for my interviews, so I've got to think about scheduling them"

Table 4.4

Lack of digital expertise?

Frances' comments show the stresses that can be created when students lose data. For a major research project these can be significant, adding to the overall stress that students face. A recent study on students' digital skills serves to remind teachers that not all students are "digital natives" (Safford and Stinton, 2016, pp.135) and may suffer from ' isolation, anxiety and cognitive overload' (p.137). Thus, losing data (this example), using databases to carry out research, filing relevant information, and writing complex reports are all issues which need to be recognised by the university teacher. Safford and Stinton (2016) state that more mature students returning to education may be particularly at risk. The majority of the participants in Phase 2 could be classified as 'mature'. Thus, Frances' apparently low level of digital expertise could also be a stress factor for other students. This highlights the danger of a default acceptance by university teachers in responding to this problem through the mantra given by academic regulations which state that it is the student's responsibility to safeguard their work. In doing so they may attribute student IT problems as laziness, whereas it may be due to them lacking robust IT background. So, they could simply be stressed and prone to making silly mistakes (e.g. refer back to the inverted-U of Performance versus Pressure in Fig 3.8 – see p. 146). However, this should not rule out the possibility that some students are not disciplined enough in their approach.

May's comment of being 'overwhelmed' revealed the need for some guidance on how to structure participants' research. Looking ahead to the comments on 'Guided by the Supervisor', other students felt the same way but meeting with their supervisors often resolved the problem. The time issue which Participant B alluded to is common to many students. Research projects are major undertakings and draw heavily upon students' organisational skills. Achieving a balance between personal and academic priorities is required (Gallagher, 2016, pp. 35-55) so that both are addressed, thus avoiding academic

burnout on the one hand and academic failure on the other. Määttä (2015) suggests that 'caring supervisors teach time management' to their doctoral students – so presumably this would be a reasonable thing for supervisors of Master's students to consider.

There were a few comments given by students which have been allocated to the 'Struggling' category. As defined earlier, for the sake of this research report the term "Struggling" has been used for the space between 'Challenging' and 'Stressful' – it may become either 'stressful' or 'challenging' in due course. Comments are shown below in Table 4.5:

Participant	'Struggling' Responses
Olivia	"It's been a bit of a struggle to be honest to get to where I am now and finally get on track and decide exactly what my area's going to be"
Violet	"I'm really having a struggle with my proposal, especially the Literature review"
Joseph	"At the beginning I had, em, it was like surfing in the dark!"

Table 4.5

Olivia and Violet both mentioned the word 'struggle'. This suggests that they found some difficulties but were managing to tackle them. Unlike the 'Positive' comments, these were quite specific – i.e. the need to 'get on track' and the struggle with the literature review. Joseph again (see previous 'Interesting' responses) gave a metaphor, that of 'surfing in the dark' to show both the difficulty and the uncertainty of the struggle.

In Table 4.6 (below) Cheryl and Costas both indicate that they found their research project to be 'challenging' and that they needed to be critical. This was one of the designated aims of their research project, so these comments indicated that the level of the undertaken task was appropriate.

Participant	'Challenging' Responses
Cheryl	"Mine has been really challenging because I'm kind of working on something that is widely discussed but yet I'm looking at the opposite side of it"
Cheryl	"...so, it's kind of challenging getting the right critical arguments to back up my own arguments for the research"
Costas	"So far I found this proposal challenging"

Table 4.6

Finally, Good quality supervision of students has been widely recognised as being an important factor for the success of management research students (Armstrong, 2004) so it is perhaps not surprising that there were a significant number of responses showing how students were benefiting from these 1-1 discussions. Comments from Participants in Table 4.7 show that individual guidance on how to approach their research project as well as useful prompts from the supervisors was allowing them to progress with their tasks.

Participant	'Guided by Supervisor'
Hans	"Some interesting meetings with my Supervisor – he gave me good ideas where I can focus on"
Faith	"I've received feedback for my first draft, em which will help me to improve my literature review and the methodology"
Frances	"First feedback I had with my Supervisor, she put me right"
May	"by going to lectures and speaking to the Supervisor, it just kind of breaks things down a bit"
Violet	"but after the meeting with my Supervisor I've got some positive comments now, a bit more confident"
David	"two supervisor visits and both have been successful, and with the information from those sessions I've been able to complete my proposal"
Joseph	"I saw my Supervisor yesterday and I had very good feedback"

Table 4.7

4.3.3 PHASE 2 Results : Analysis of the '3 Words'

By definition, the '3 words' exercise was very quick. Fig 4.3.4 shows the number of responses coded into the same categories (quirks) as the previous exercise.

Fig 4.3.4   '3 Words'

The three words exercise contrasts sharply with the initial focus group discussion, with only 2 positive comments, as opposed to the initial 7. If 'Stressful, Struggling and Challenging' categories are grouped as 'Difficult' the contrast is quite pronounced with significantly more (14) Difficult responses given in the '3 words' exercise (25) compared to the Initial discussion (9). If the Positive, Useful and Interesting categories are grouped under 'Good Outcomes' a significant decrease (8) in the number of responses from the initial discussion (20) to the 3 words exercise (12) is observed.

The differences between the responses of participants in the initial discussion and '3 words' exercise raises the question of whether or not they are measuring the same thing. Are the 3 words, for instance, evoking a more immediate, visceral response to their feelings whilst the initial discussion is a more measured account of the process they have encountered so far? In Phase 4 Rachel gave her opinion about the behaviour of group members, stating:

> *"I think people were trying very hard to be positive"*
>
> Source: *Rachel*

Perhaps, this is an example of 'front stage' and 'back stage' performance (Goffman, 1959) Recent studies (Gilmore, 2014) have shown that these behaviours can occur with students who work online. They define these stages as follows:

1.*Front stage online*: 'The space where an online student gives a performance. This space can be "seen" by the university; for example, the online discussion board and student activity logs.

2.*Backstage online*: A space where an online student prepares for a performance using the Internet but cannot be seen by the university; for example, websites, Facebook, and email.

<div align="right">(Gilmore, 2014, p. 187)</div>

In Phase 2, the 'front stage' performance would have been the Initial Discussion in the focus group, as it was 'performed' in front of other participants. The 'back stage' performance would have occurred when participants took time out before the focus group to write down their 3 words and draw their pictures. An issue which needed overcoming within 'front stage' performance related to the difficulty which some students have in sharing their emotions in a more formal setting (Vries-Erich et al., 2016). As Amy noted during her interview (Phase 4):

"everyone was a little bit uncomfortable at first, everyone didn't know what they were going to do, but when everyone got into it and they started opening up to each other, that was nice"

<div align="right">Source: *Amy*</div>

Rachel also pointed to the embryonic group dynamics of participants who, although they had worked in small informal groups, had not presented to the whole group and the tutor in a more formal setting. She indicated that the group was probably in its 'forming' (Tuckman and Jensen, 1977) stage, where people were just starting to get to know each other in this new setting; her interview (Phase 4) comment was:

" people were a little bit timid at first, because you are all scoping each other out still" Source*: Rachel*

A summary of the responses for the '3 words exercise', as shown previously in Fig. 4.3.4. indicates that they quite closely match the terminology of the responses previously determined for the initial discussion exercise (for instance there are a lot of 'stressful' words under the 'Stressful Response'. A few words stand out: "eye-opening", "turbulent", "time-

consuming" and "messy" stood out. However, as the 3-words appear on the same paper as the participants' drawings, the majority of them may be seen in the following analysis further discussion of them in the following section: 4.2.3 Phase 2 Results Focus Group: the 'Drawings'.

4.3.4   PHASE 2 Results : Analysis of The Drawings

Introduction

The overall pattern of verbal responses from participants describing their drawings during the focus group session was one of stress, struggle and challenge. Using the same coding as the previous 'Initial Discussion' and '3 Words' exercises, Fig 4.3.5 clearly shows that the 'Difficult' categories of 'Stressful', 'Struggling' and 'Challenging' constituted the majority (6 + 4 + 3 = 13) comments with a minority (4 + 1 = 5) of 'Good Outcomes'. There were no verbal comments relevant to the 'Guided by Supervisor' category. A metaphorical analysis and discussion of selected drawings follows shortly. As discussed in the literature review, metaphors can be used to construct meaning in drawings (Ingebrethsen, 2013). Selection of the drawings was made after all of them were analysed in terms of their metaphorical (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) content.

Fig 4.3.5 Drawings: Nodes (Categories)

Ingebrethsen (2013) states that metaphors are crucial for abstract thinking. Thus, when participants were asked to 'draw a picture of their feelings' the majority turned, naturally, to a combination of drawings depicting metaphor with occasional text. This was unforced, and drawings were produced quickly within 10 – 15 minutes.

Emergent Metaphorical Themes from Drawings

As previously discussed in the literature review (p. 46), people use metaphors (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) almost instinctively. The drawings of the research participants were constructed very much in this vein. They had not been taught the theory of metaphors. They just drew and annotated. This was not premeditated, for they were given the task to do and had to then perform within 15 minutes. If anything, this was a visceral outpouring of their thoughts and feelings onto paper. The analytical task for me was than one of deriving

meaning. I have thus interpreted the drawings in terms of metaphorical terminology and theory. Two overarching types of metaphor emerged from analysis of the drawings: structural and ontological (see p. 46) Sometimes both metaphors were shown in individual drawings.

Structural Metaphors

One particular type of structural metaphor appeared in 7 of the 13 drawings: the 'Life is a Journey' metaphor. As will be shown presently, ladders were used by 2 of the participants in their paths/ journeys. Another common visualisation was the concept of a physical obstacle along the path. Thus, 3 drawings featured mountains, another had a cliff, and 2 others showed pits.

Ontological Metaphors

This concept of being was shown in several of the participants' drawings: thus, Amy's drawing simply depicted two states of being, emojis which were alternately smiling and frowning; meanwhile, Cheryl depicted a split person to represent 2 states of being (both drawings are discussed in further detail later).

However, what came across strongly in a number of drawings was the ontological concept of the 'Container' (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.29). A number of participants showed what was going on inside their 'container', including thoughts, ideas, feelings and emotions. Some drawings also showed what was happening outside of the container, sometimes depicting boundaries between different areas (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.29) of study, personal life, and work.

4.3.4.1 *Analysis of the Drawings – Grouping: A,B,C,D*

After the initial metaphorical analysis of the drawings, to facilitate further analysis and discussion of my findings, I grouped them (see Fig. 4.4.1) into the following 4 categories: Metaphors of 'Life is a Journey'; Metaphors of Struggle; Metaphors of Challenge; and Metaphors of Stress.
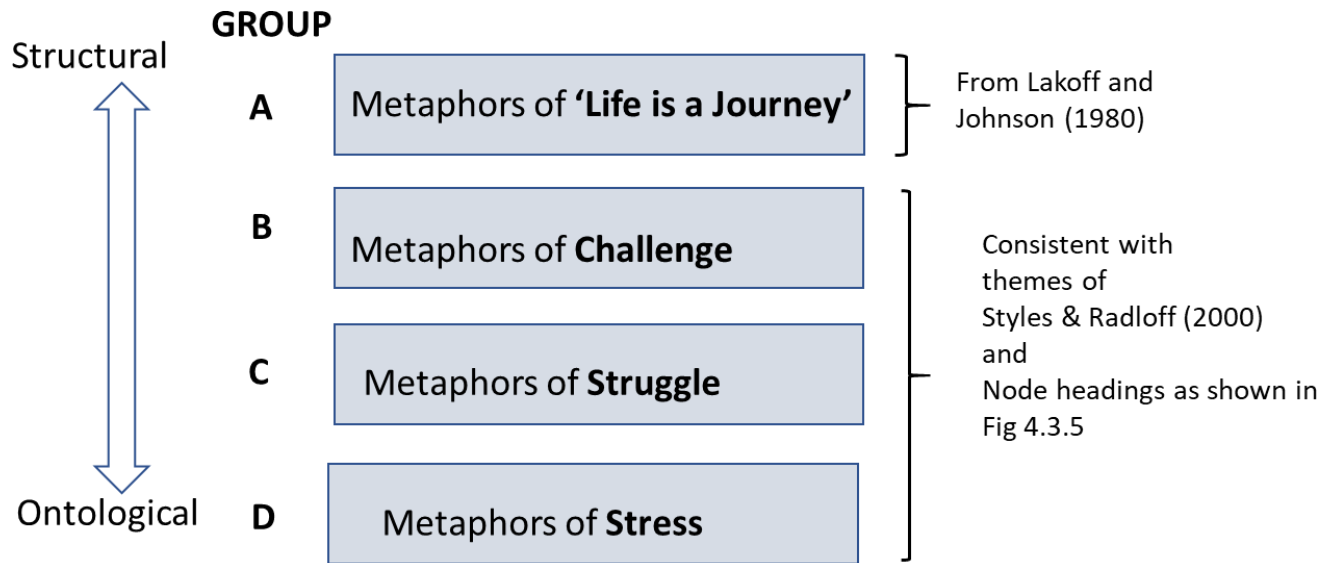
Fig. 4.4.1 Metaphors identified in Participants' Drawings

I decided to retain the headings of 'Challenge', 'Struggle' and 'Stress' as these had been used as analytical terms in earlier discussion of Phase 1 and Phase 2. The terms were also consistent with terminology of Styles and Radloff (2000) who had analysed metaphorical drawings of students doing their thesis (e.g. they used 'effort' compared with my 'Struggle'; 'Menace' and 'Helplessness' where I have used 'Stress'; 'Anticipation' and 'Excitement' where I have used 'Life is a journey'). I added the category of 'Life is a Journey' (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003, p.258; Shutova and Teufel, 2010) as this reflected a common theme in the drawings. In practice deciding in which category drawings could be placed, for the sake of some commonality, has been problematic at times. To help me make decisions I have used the written '3 words' as well as the drawings themselves.

Running through the categories are the structural and ontological aspects of the metaphors. These are represented in Fig. 4.4.1 as 'Structural' and 'Ontological' labels. The 'Structural' label is located at the top of Fig. 4.4.1. adjacent to the 'Metaphors of Life is a Journey' box, as these metaphors are structural in nature. The 'Ontological' label is located at the bottom of Fig. 4.4.1 adjacent to the 'Metaphors of Stress' category, as examination of the participants' drawings often depicted the inner container of self – i.e. they had a focus on being, as opposed to journey. The arrow between structural and ontological labels only indicate that drawings within the 'Metaphors of Challenge' and 'Metaphors of Struggle' categories may contain either structural or ontological aspects of metaphor. Indeed, it was only after some consideration that I retained the arrow as a reminder that these aspects were likely to feature

somewhere in the drawings. As such Fig 4.4.1. was not a model; it was a framework to aid analysis of the drawings. This analysis follows next.

4.3.4.2 *Analysis and Discussion of Drawings by Group A,B,C,D*

GROUP A : Life is a Journey metaphors

Rachel (Fig 4.4.2 - overleaf) and Costas (Fig 4.4.3 – following Rachel) both showed themselves as climbers about to tackle a mountain. The mountain represents the path of their journey, i.e. their research project. In both cases the mountain is steep, somewhat dwarfing their depiction of themselves as climbers, suggesting that they feel the challenge is about to be tough and their physical and mental reserves are small by comparison. Their journey appears to be a lonely one, with no-one else even in sight. However, Costas appears to be following a pre-fixed rope between established stages; this suggests that he has some confidence in the preparation of a planned route by others, such as his university supervisor, although he has still to actually climb it himself. In his interview (Phase 4) he re-affirmed this, saying:

> *"I know I can rely on my mentor of course, if I need anything…but this task required a lot of effort on my side to deal with it, to finish it"*

Source: *Costas*

Rachel, on the other hand, faced a complex route-finding mission of her own through the many ups and downs that lay ahead. In her interview (Phase 4) she stated that this depiction came naturally, saying:

> *" I think it's quite easy to represent the highs and lows of a project with physical highs and lows of a mountain scene"*

Source*: Rachel*

In both drawings orientation (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.25) is important. In this instance the orientation is 'up' and 'down'. Typically people think in metaphorical terms of 'up' as more, better, happy and 'down' as less, worse, sad (Ingebrethsen, 2013, p.12). There is a marked difference between the 2 drawings in terms of this up and down orientation and also the end point of the climb. Rachel shows many ups and downs consistent with her written comments of 'turbulent', 'complex' and 'frustrating'. In fact, in her interview (Phase 4) she suggested that the 'downs' were as difficult as the 'ups', giving this explanation:

"The hard work on the way up and then the kind of spiralling down, because some places you feel like you don't have much control of it anymore"

Source: Rachel

Her end goal was marked by a post which said "Submission" referring to when she was to hand in her research project. At this point, having gone through the various ascents and descents, she appeared to have regained her former equilibrium in terms of her feelings – i.e. she was no longer bothered by the stresses and strains of the journey.

Costas, on the other hand, was only climbing in one direction – up towards the flag marked "Deadline". Perhaps for him, the achievement of summiting was what mattered; following a series of waymarked stages forever upwards to the final goal - a challenging journey, as he says in his 3 words 'Informative', 'demanding', 'challenging'. As he stated in this interview (Phase 4):

"Back then I was pretty high, I think I managed to reach the top, but then again I have to, it's not the top of the mountain – I still have to climb higher, higher if I want to finish this Post Graduate Course."
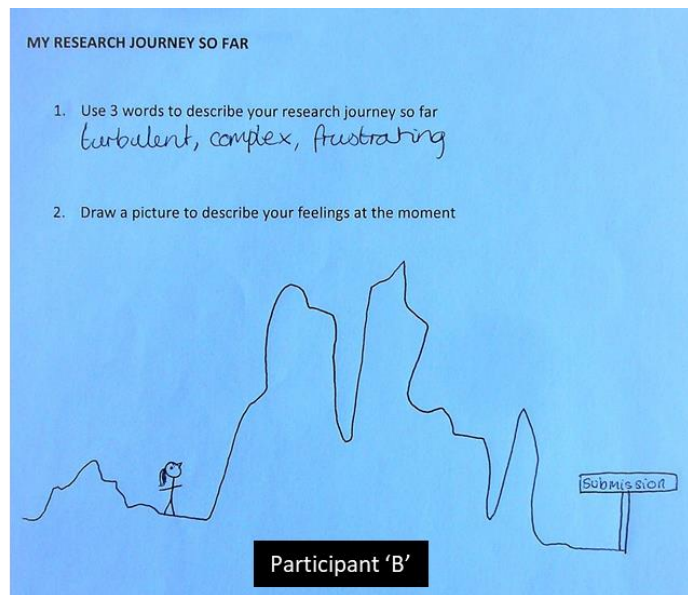
Source: Costas

Analytical Notes

Ontological Space

1. Many steep climbs

2. Many difficult descents

Orientation = ups and downs show turbulence

MY RESEARCH JOURNEY SO FAR

1. Use 3 words to describe your research journey so far
turbulent, complex, frustrating

2. Draw a picture to describe your feelings at the moment

Submission

Participant 'B'

Analytical Notes

"Life is a journey"

1. Climbing mountain – and descending to final goal and easier times (?) after "Submission"
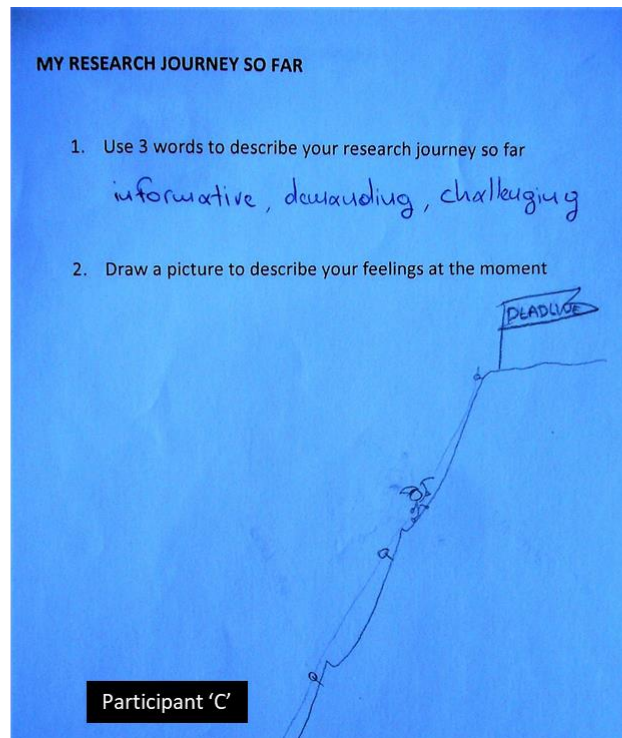
2. Path schema

Fig 4.4.2 :Rachel's Drawing

Analytical Notes

Ontological Space

1. Above = Completion ('Deadline')

Orientation = 'up'

MY RESEARCH JOURNEY SO FAR

1. Use 3 words to describe your research journey so far

   informative, demanding, challenging

2. Draw a picture to describe your feelings at the moment

DEADLINE

Participant 'C'

Analytical Notes

"Life is a journey"

1. Climbing a mountain – Final goal is the top 'Deadline'
2. Path schema
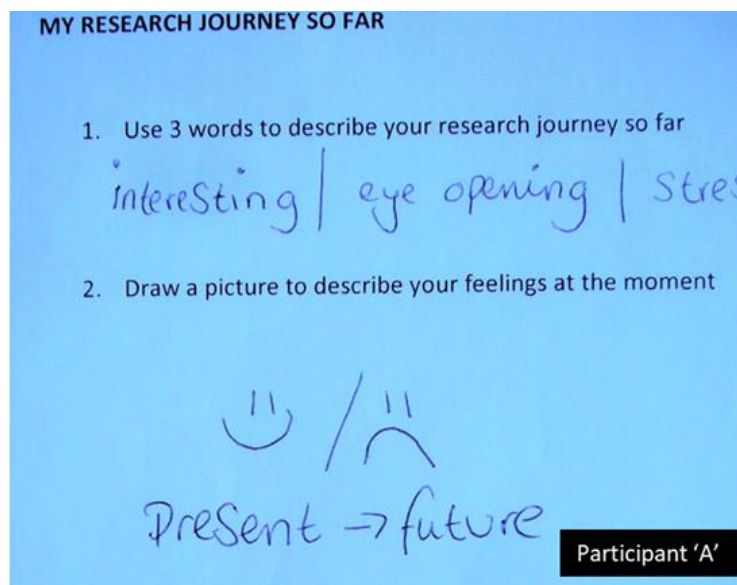3. A series of camps along a fixed rope (planned) route

Fig 4.4.3 :Costas' Drawing

Amy (Fig. 4.4.4 - overleaf) has also drawn a form of 'Life is a Journey' metaphor (see overleaf). In this case the journey is shown as starting from the 'Present' and going to the 'Future' by way of an arrow going from left to right. It is interesting to note that in the minds of literate people from left-to-right writing cultures time 'flies from left to right' (Santiago et al., 2007, p.512); Amy is British and complies with this convention . This is coupled with the ontological metaphor of the emoji-like smiling (orientation is feeling 'up) and frowning (orientation is feeling 'down') faces. Emojis are simple devices and often associated with a light-hearted approach to communication. However they are remarkably effective at conveying personality, and are capable of acting as an 'emotional coping strategy' (Stark and Crawford, 2015, p.1) by acting as a creative means of expression. Thus, Amy is showing very economically, but with some impact, her present happy emotional state which is about to be disrupted by the research project she is about to undertake and which she predicts will lead to unhappiness. However, looking at her words of 'Interesting', 'Eye opening' and 'Stress' leaves the observer to believe that whilst the research project is going to be a stressful experience it is also proving at present to be offering rewards in terms of new knowledge. The underlying message is that such insight does not come without effort.

Fig 4.4.4: Amy's Drawing

GROUP B: Metaphors of Challenge

The drawings of May (Fig. 4.4.5 - overleaf) and Olivia (Fig. 4.4.6 -following May) were categorised under the metaphor of 'Challenge' as they both involved the words 'challenging' and the images they portrayed focused upon the present situation (which was challenging), with obvious elements of danger. However, they also indicated elements of the 'Life is a Journey' metaphor previously discussed.

In Fig 4.4.5 May faces a series of challenges. Her desire is to go up (orientational metaphor (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.14) of advancement) and this is up a mountain via a ladder which is somewhat unusual although it does emphasise the idea of climbing up. The ladder is the means of gaining entry to another place– a typical object used in structural metaphors (Ingebrethsen, 2013, p.8). At the bottom of the page (orientational metaphor of positioning on the page and also, in this case, of underlying danger) is a shark. This appears to represent the participant's fear of the consequences of being eaten by the shark if she falls off the ladder. Again, the summit beckons with the goal of attainment, further enhanced by the heavens at the top righthand side of the drawing. The mountain is clearly a high one as it shows a top covered in snow. With the orientation of the drawing the observer is being subtly drawn in terms of the passage of time from the danger at the bottom to the enlightenment of the summit and the sun in the top righthand corner. However, the participant is currently at the bottom of the ladder and still has a long way to go. The analogy of the drawing, combined with the accompanying words of 'Interesting, Challenging, and 'Beneficial', to how the

participant feels about their research dissertation, is clear; she is near the beginning of her research journey, recognises that the challenge is significant (the mountain and the shark) but has a means (the ladder) of achieving her research dissertation goal (the summit of the mountain) and the attendance rewards (the lofty summit and a place in the sun).
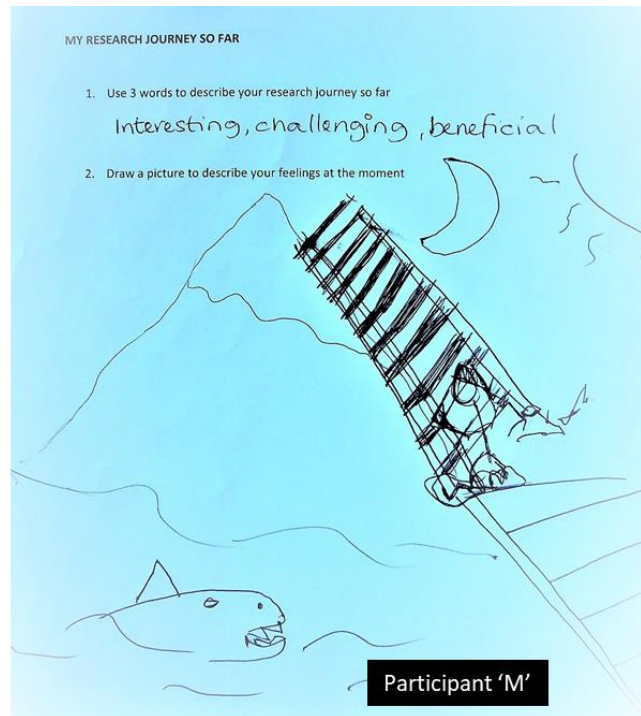

Fig 4.4.5: May's Drawing

In contrast, the picture of Olivia (Fig. 4.4.6 - overleaf) depicts the challenge in a darker way (quite literally) for May. Rather than being presently at the bottom of a mountain, out of the immediate danger zone of the shark below, Olivia finds herself right in there with the danger. She is currently in a pit and as she says 'Looking for understanding and a way out' and 'to be knowledgeable'. The understanding she refers to is how to go about doing her research project. In ontological terms she is feeling trapped in the pit. Sunlight, fresh air and freedom lie above. So she recognises that there is a place beyond her current situation when she has achieved her research project goals. She also recognises that there is a means of getting from the pit up to this land: the ladder. There is hope.

Fig 4.4.6: Olivia's Drawing
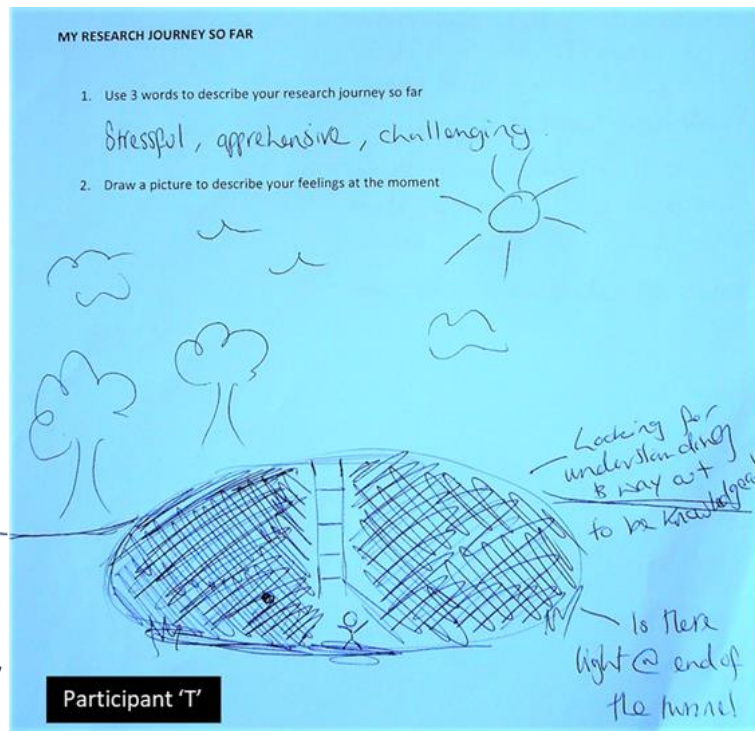
GROUP C: *Metaphors of Struggle*

The metaphors of struggle share characteristics of the previous 'challenging' metaphors but seem even more fraught with danger. In terms of the inverted-U diagram of Performance against Pressure shown earlier (Fig 4.3.2), participants are likely to becoming less effective as performers at this stage (Westman and Eden, 1996; Muse, Harris and Field, 2003).

Violet's drawing (Fig. 4.4.7 -overleaf) shows her struggle to dramatic effect. The 3 words she uses - 'time-consuming', 'messy' and 'overwhelming' - are reflected in her drawing. She is literally hanging by her fingers over the edge of a precipice, weighed down by her 'responsibilities', 'life' and 'study'. These directly relate to her situation while doing her research project. While other drawings have hinted at the cumulative impact of the various spheres of her life, this drawing is one of the clearest yet in depicting the fact that, as individuals, we carry around with us a variety of stressors from home and work which have a compounded affect upon us (Melchior et al., 2007) . Her head is being struck by lightning from a cloud above. This is an ontological metaphor representing how she feels within her inner personal 'container'. There is a 'life is a journey' metaphor present too; the observer can see there is a slim 'chance' of survival in the shape of her small, loyal dog, valiantly giving an assisting pull from its leash. However, in our hearts we know that the dog is too

small to do anything other than to lend limiting assistance; for she must, ultimately, struggle back over the cliff using her own resources. The consequences of not doing so are shown by the potential fall onto the cruel-looking spikes beneath her feet (a 'down' metaphorical orientation). Conversely, the rewards of overcoming her problems are shown by a return up (an 'up' metaphorical orientation) to a normal life in the city, financial reward (the dollar symbols) and time spent in the sun.
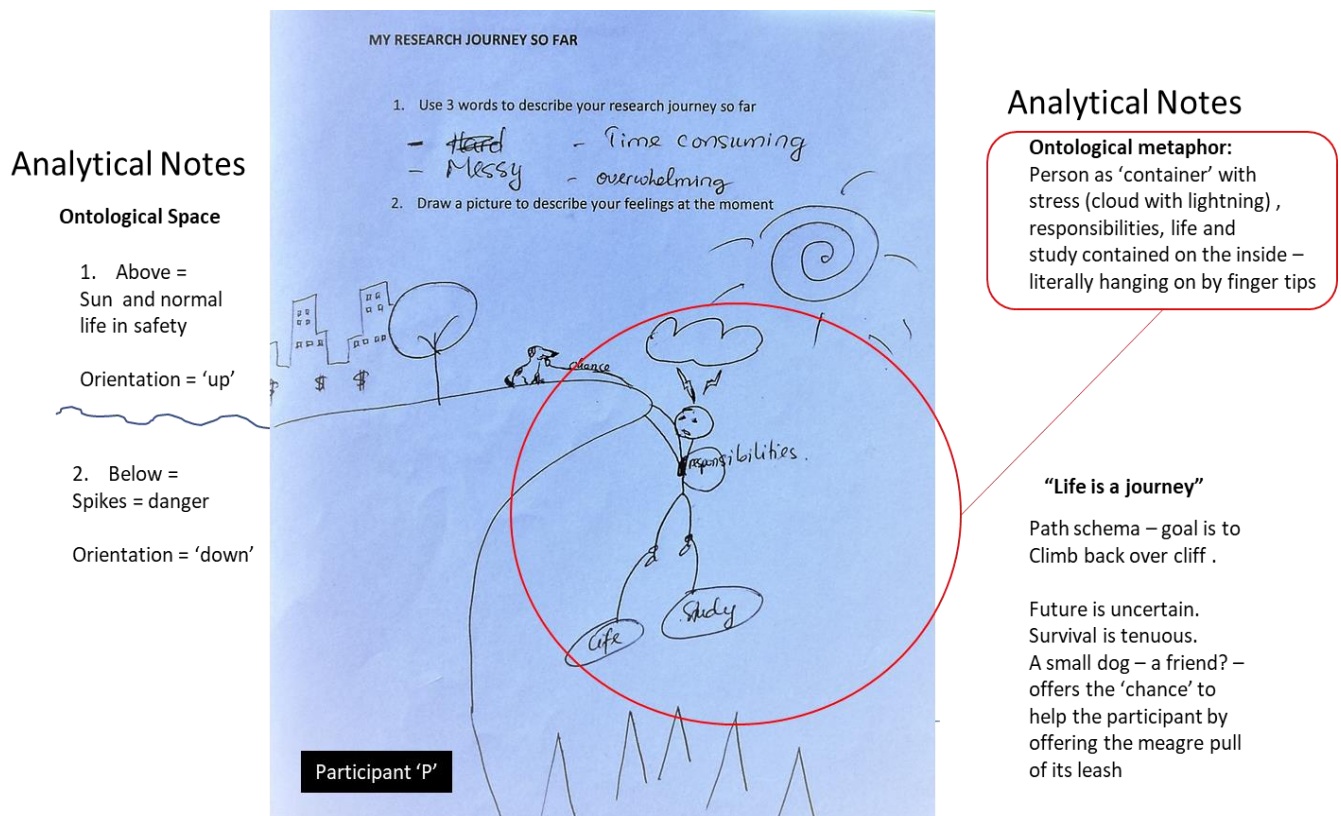
Fig 4.4.7: Violet's Drawing

Meanwhile, Hans focuses simply upon his feeling of exhaustion (Fig . 4.4.8 -overleaf) with a character representing himself holding his hands up to his face. This contrasts with 2 of his 3 words 'Interesting' and 'challenging' (which suggests a positive encounter). However, it is consistent with his last word 'hard'. If the feelings of exhaustion were to continue the next likely phase on the 'Inverted-U' diagram would be into the stressful stage. In his interview (Phase 4) Hans explains why he had drawn himself as an exhausted person:

"for the picture it was shortly before the Christmas holidays, so we had all a long 3 months. I think I made a picture where I was exhausted, cos it was a hard time so far and I looked forward to the Christmas break then to fill up my energy and start again"

Source*: Hans*

MY RESEARCH JOURNEY SO FAR

1. Use 3 words to describe your research journey so far
   interesting, challenging, hard

2. Draw a picture to describe your feelings at the moment
   exhausted

Analytical Notes
Ontological Metaphor
"Exhausted"

Participant 'D'

Fig 4.4.8: Hans' Drawing

GROUP D: Metaphors of Stress – or merely Introspection?

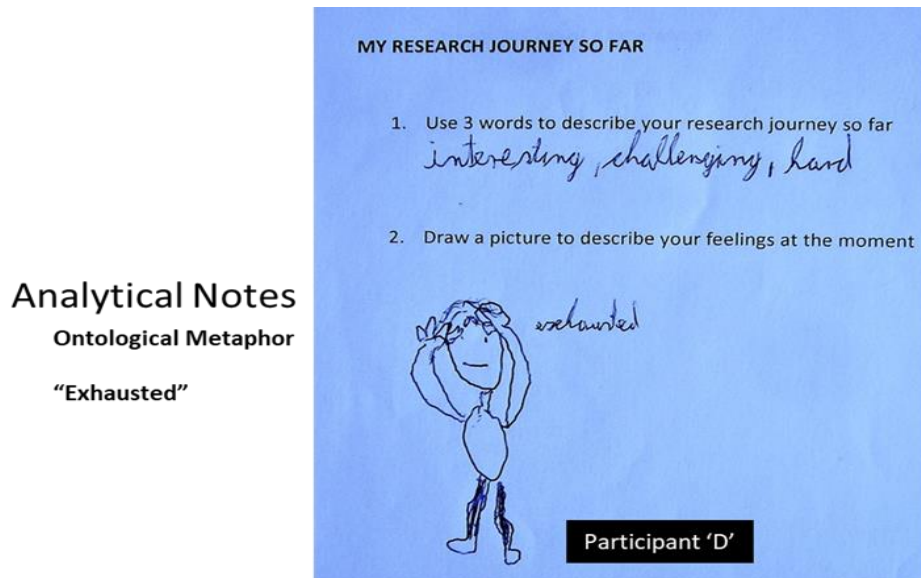As discussed previously the latter stage of the Inverted-U diagram is the state of stress (Westman and Eden, 1996; Muse, Harris and Field, 2003). The drawings of David (Fig. 4.4.9), Cheryl (Fig. 4.4.10) and Faith (Fig. 4.4.11) appear to have a more explicit focus on the ontological concept of the self as a container (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.26). That is not to say that the previous drawings do not portray elements of stress. They clearly do. However, in these drawings there is much more of an inward looking focus, as opposed to the previous drawings which focused more on the 'life is a journey', showing the external world.

As discussed in the literature review, there is some debate as to whether or not an introspective nature is beneficial or not. An important aim of Higher Education is to foster self-awareness for the purpose of self-development as exemplified by the idea of the 'reflective practitioner' (Schön, 1987), learning journals (Moon, 2006), and reflection on critical incidents (Tripp, 1993; Vachon and LeBlanc, 2011). But his should not be at the expense of undue rumination which is seen as psychologically damaging to individuals, being as it is associated with a downward spiral into mental disorders (Harris, 2008). What

seems to matter in practice is that introspective individuals can rely upon 'psychosocial resources such as esteem, mastery and support' (Schieman and Van Gundy, 2001, p.106). Through sharing of their drawings in class the research participants are allowing others to offer their support. Through vicarious learning (Bandura, 1985, 1997) by listening to other group members as they describe similar experiences and feelings, there is an avenue for self-efficacy improvement, if they note strategies that others have used successfully. Or, at least participants come to realise that they are not labelling themselves incorrectly as being 'useless' and that the difficulties they face are quite common. Hence this may be beneficial for their self-esteem. Verbal encouragement from group members and their tutor is another means of improving their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1985). Finally, by expressing their feelings, participants are flagging up to themselves and their tutor research skills areas for improvement, thus helping them to attain 'Mastery', another component of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1985).

The first of the 3 drawings shown is that of David (Fig. 4.4.9). This indicates that he is feeling very nervous within his inner ontological 'container'. This accords with his 3 words 'Confusing', 'Nervous', and 'Stressful'.

Fig 4.4.9: David's Drawing

The drawing also shows another container – that of the world of work; his desk and computer are clearly on display, his monitor showing 'Sunspace' which is the university's VLE and the words 'Proposal drop box' signifying both the task and means of submission. A window is drawn up to the right ; the orientation of 'up' suggest that the view to the outside world (i.e. external to the world of work) is good (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.14); the positioning to the right hand side of the drawing suggests, as David is British (i.e. from a left-to-right writing culture), that this will occur later in time (Santiago et al., 2007) after the work has been completed.

Meanwhile, Cheryl shows herself in Fig. 4.4.10 as split down the middle. She is ambivalent about her research project. On the one hand she is relieved that she has submitted her proposal, but on the other she is unsure if what she has done is correct. This uncertainty is a common theme depicted in the drawn metaphors of students who are doing their dissertations (Styles and Radloff, 2000).
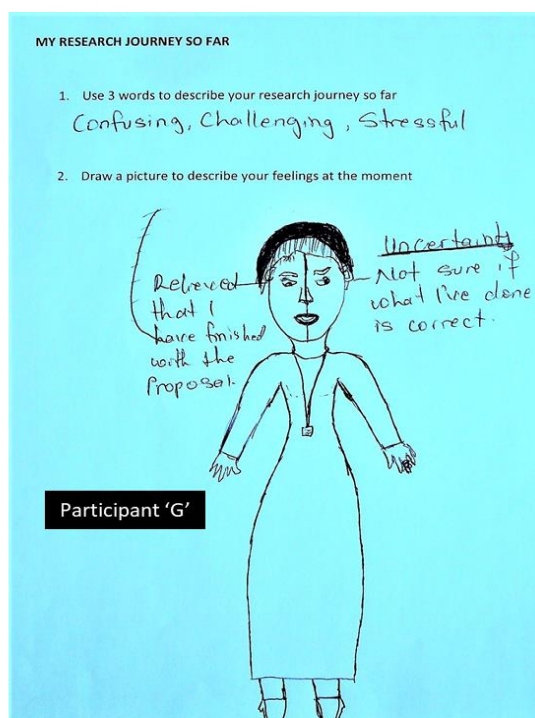
Fig 4.4.10: Cheryl's Drawing

This ambivalence is shown again in the drawing of Faith (Fig. 4.4.11 - overleaf) who shows herself beneath the words of 'Learn', 'Stress' and 'Exciting' as two selves. One self shows her as a smiling emoji-like figure with hands showing fingers crossed, whilst the other self is a strange, skeletal-looking figure with face looking up as though in shock and with her hands

up to her face. However, more space is devoted to the scared figure on the right- hand side, suggesting that more importance is being placed on this, according to the 'more of form is more of content' general principle (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980, p.127) .

Fig 4.4.11: Faith's Drawing

RESULTS PHASE 3: 1-1 Critical Incident Interviews

Consisting of:

4.4.1 Teacher-Led Tutorial on Critical Incidents: Feedback from Students

4.4.2 Participant 1-1 Critical Incident Interviews

4.4 RESULTS PHASE 3: 1-1 CRITICAL INCIDENT INTERVIEWS

Introduction

Phase 3 started with a teacher-led tutorial on critical incidents. This was followed by a workshop in which participants interviewed each other on critical incidents that had occurred to them during their work on their research projects. These were to be recorded by participants themselves on video camera. The entire session was the 'Guided Activity' of Phase 3 and was carried out over a three hour period. There were 7 participants who attended this additional, voluntary workshop. As discussed in Chapter 3, participants (students) and teacher (me) brought with them presage factors (Biggs, Kember and Leung, 2001) of prior knowledge and ability.
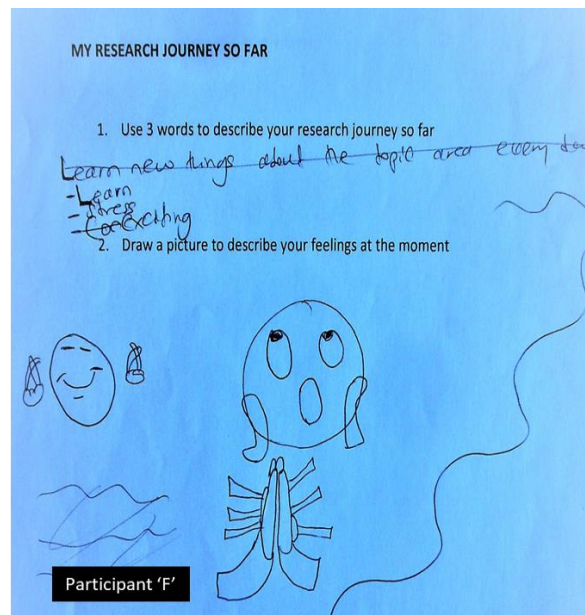
4.4.1   Preparation: Teacher-led Tutorial on Critical Incidents

Before participants video-interviewed each other on their critical incidents they firstly listened to me, as their teacher, explaining the nature of critical incidents (Tripp, 1993; Vachon and LeBlanc, 2011). This input thus fed into their presage (prior knowledge: see Analytical Frame, p.125). I gave a presentation based around a personal example of my own, previously submitted for an earlier stage of assessment of my Professional Doctorate. This incident was one which had an element of risk: I had asked a group of my students what sort of role they saw me in, as a lecturer (I had listed 18 roles – for instance, 'enthusiast', 'subject expert', and 'mentor'. I discussed the detail of this with participants, showing both my strengths and weaknesses so as to model (Collins, Brown and Newman, 1989) the process of analysing a critical incident. A copy of the document used in my presentation may be found in **Portfolio Appendix 9.1 (see p. 341 onwards).**

Feedback on Teacher-Led Tutorial

Feedback on the teacher-led tutorial given before participants interviewed each other on their critical incidents was **gathered as part of the later Phase 4 interviews**. Questions were semi-structured and are shown in summary format below in Fig. 4.6.1.

Q.1	What are your thoughts about your self-efficacy rating at the beginning?
Q.2	What are your thoughts on using feedback results from self-efficacy to create charts?
Q.3	What are your thoughts on the '3 words exercise?
Q.4	What are your thoughts on your 'own picture'?
Q.5	What are your thoughts on the focus group you took part in?
Q.6	What are your thoughts on sharing with others in the focus group?
Q.7	Tell me about your previous knowledge, skills and confidence in using critical incidents…
Q.8	I shared my critical incident with you and how I analysed this. Any thoughts on this?

Fig. 4.6.1 Semi-structured questions used in Phase 4 Reflective Interviews

Questions 7 and 8 related to Phase 3, the critical incident activities. These questions were analysed and as can be seen from Fig. 4.6.2 (overleaf) there were 10 themes identified, containing a total of 62 quotes. The following discussion uses quotes from responses to questions 7 and 8 with the aims of analysing and discussing the following:

- participants' feedback on the preparatory presentation that I gave on critical incidents
- participants' self assessments of their knowledge of critical incidents before they engaged in their critical incident interviews with each other

Themes identified (See Fig 4.6.2 overleaf) from the Phase 4 Reflective Interview will be used as sub-headings for the discussion.
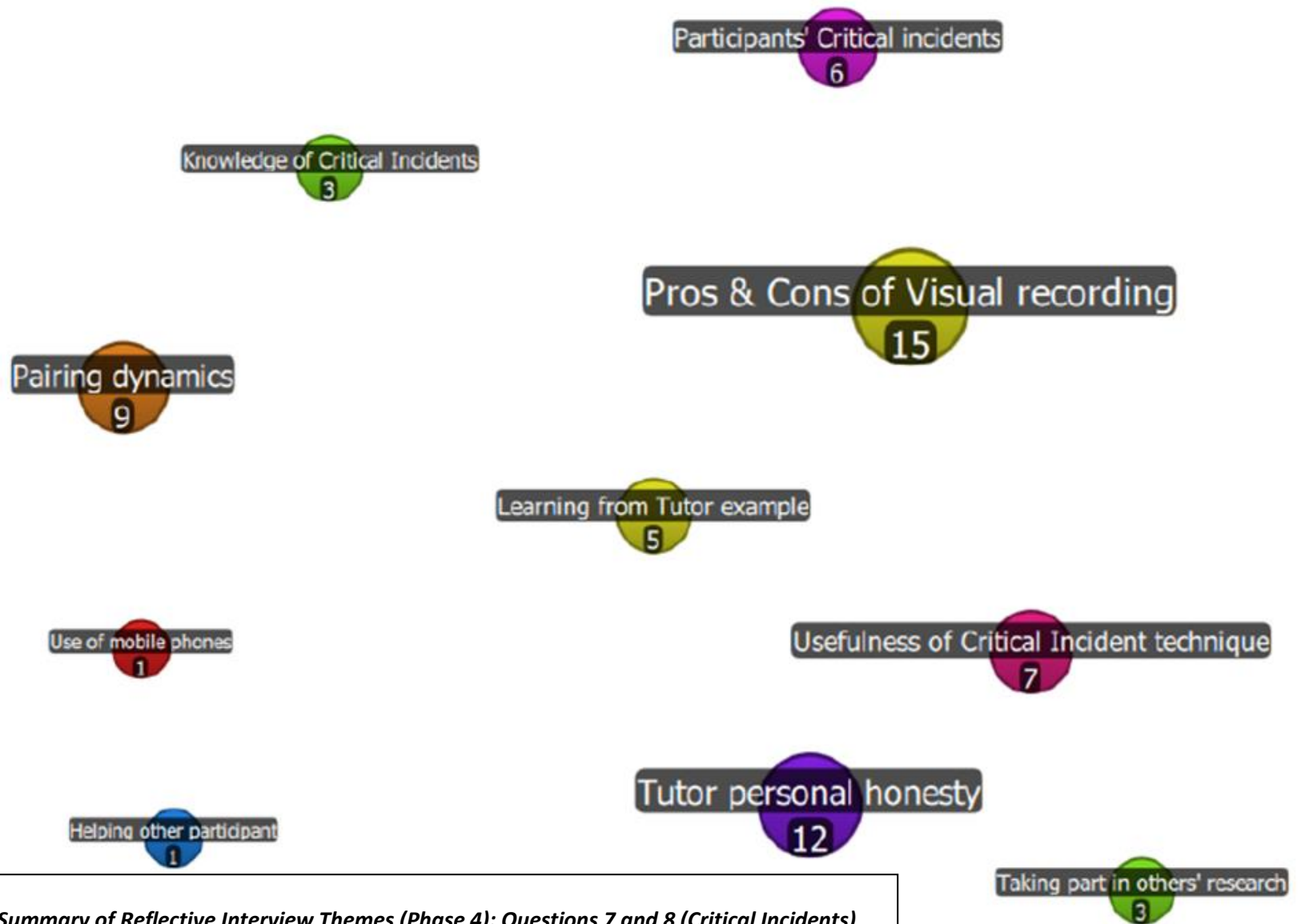
Fig. 4.6.2 Summary of Reflective Interview Themes (Phase 4): Questions 7 and 8 (Critical Incidents)

Knowledge of Critical Incidents

From the prior tutorial discussion it appeared that participants did not have a theoretical understanding of what critical incidents were. For Amy, the tutorial was particularly opportune, as she explained:

> *"In the morning I got told I was doing it, I'd got no idea what a Critical Incident was, and then coming into your workshop it was kind of like a massive eye-opener because it was a massive coincidence I suppose because I'd been told to do it and then all of a sudden there's a whole workshop on it."*

> Source: *Amy*

The person who had 'told' her to do it had been her supervisor during a previous meeting. So, she had a particular interest in learning more about the technique, as she was going to use it as a research method for her own work. She thought the workshop had really helped in this respect, commenting:

> *"I basically learnt everything from that workshop that I needed for mine. I mean there's some reading that you put on which I went away and read; all the theme stuff that you put on, I went away and read."*

> Source*: Amy*

Costas pointed out that he could relate to the theory of critical incidents although he had not been taught about them. He appeared, from this and other comments he gave during the interview, to be quite a reflexive individual, often thinking back on his experiences and he might act and behave better in the future. He commented:

> *"Well, Critical Incident is a phenomenon that occurs in my life every day, but I wasn't aware of it. If it's translated as a change to my beliefs, attitude, behaviour, knowledge – it's something I - that happens to me all the time, but I wasn't aware of it. So the workshop was particularly useful and informative from that point."*

> Source*: Costas*

Meanwhile, Rachel said that she had heard of the technique before. She was using other research methods in her own university work, so it was not directly relevant at that time for her. However, having learned more about it during the workshop, she could see its usefulness to future work situations. This was a revealing quote as it indicated that she had a long- term view of her own learning and development, extending beyond the classroom to the world of work. Learning did not always have to be instrumental to achieving an assignment grade but was something more transformational. This was an encouraging finding; it met the higher order aims of the master's programme in that it demonstrated how the course was helping students to become 'reflective practitioners'(Schön, 1987); they could assess a particular situation and carefully select an appropriate approach and methods to tackle it. She explained:

> *"It ended up just simply not fitting with the kinds of questions I wanted to ask,*
> *but it was a technique I had heard of before and I could see myself in the future using*
> *it as an HR Professional. If I wanted to interview a member of staff about something*
> *that's happened in the work place, then I think it would be one that would be very*
> *applicable to the real workplace, especially if you were doing research or an*
> *investigation."*

Source: *Rachel*

Having said this, instruction on the technique was about to guide her in the next part of the workshop when she and Amy interviewed each other about their critical incidents. So, this new knowledge was an enabler to further learning.

Hans focused on the implications of learning about critical incident techniques. He was keen on learning from the experiences of others, as he said:

> *"Interesting to hear Critical Incidents from other people, cos you can learn from*
> *other people, I think. Is there difficulties to learn or to avoid? Is there difficulties from*
> *your side?"*

Source*: Hans*

This response has much more of a community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991) feel to it.

Learning from Teacher Example

If the term 'critical incident' was mentioned in a news bulletin, most people would think of some life-threatening occurrence, such as a fire or an accident. I was keen to steer participants away from this interpretation towards a reflexive approach to their personal,

work or academic learning, in which they had been prompted by critical reflection of some particular incident that had resulted in them changing in a way which they perceived as significant. My personal example had been designed with this in mind. Amy's comments below showed me that for her, at least, the message had hit home:

> *"putting your own experience on it probably helped us out because we probably thought when you say "Critical Incident" it's got to be something really specific, something really massive, life-changing. Where actually yours wasn't life-changing, you just happened to pick up on it, and the 'critical' part of it wasn't the biggest in the world, but it taught you something else…*
>
> *so, I think that example probably helped us articulate what we wanted to say on it. Cos I can't think of any life-changing ones that I've ever had, but when you think about it in a different way, it could be something that you've just read or just picked up on or someone may have just mentioned"*

Source: *Amy*

Thus, whilst not ruling out that the critical incident *could* have been based around some major event in a person's life, it was the developing of a reflexive attitude 'involving thinking about our experiences and questioning our ways of doing' (Haynes, 2012, p.73) that was the key thing.

Modelling of Interview Skills

Amy and Hans commented that they had learned from the tutor example. Amy said:

> *"The whole process - it was interesting to see it in practise…*
> *and when it came to mine I felt I could kind of mirror what you'd done and mirror your experiences and put that on to mine a little bit. It's good to have a real-life example, because you can't just make them up".*

Source: *Amy*

And Hans commented:

> *"Yeah, it helps us to ask the questions a little bit more, cos then we know a little bit more what to ask the other one, and so it was not too hard to do the interview I think…Yeah it was relatively easy to do."*

Source: *Hans*

Both responses showed the benefits of tutor modelling the use of the interview technique for the critical incident (Wood, Bruner and Ross, 1976; Collins, Brown and Newman, 1989); see

earlier pages 67, 197). Understanding was facilitated by use of a similar context - i.e. my own critical incident.

Amy's empathy (see p. 197 for her previous example of this) for others within her group ('community of practice' – Lave and Wenger, 1991) (see earlier pages 27, 125, 197) showed through when she remarked:

> *"any kind of practise is going to be helpful, because if you weren't going to use that one technique for your report, your friend might be going to do it, in which case you might be able to help them"*
>
> Source*: Amy*

Qualitative Interviews: higher order awareness

Whether or not by her consideration of my modelling of my critical incident and how to set about carrying out their own semi-structured interviews, or through her own prior experience (I did not think to ask (!) during our interview) Amy came out with the following, quoted insights:

> *"it was nice to get an example doing it from a participant point of view, knowing that when I come to do it in mine, I know what my participant's going to have to go through …In terms of wording questions as well, you kind of have to work around the other person, you can't have a really strict, structured question because that's not how a conversation works. So, I found it really helpful."*
>
> Source*: Amy*

Both of these comments indicate the development of skills required for qualitative interviewing. The positioning of self as the interviewee ("desiring to 'know what my participant's going through") shows a concern for empathy by the would-be interviewer, a precursor of the rapport needed to encourage open interaction between them (Alvesson and Ashcraft, 2012, p.242; see p.139). The remark that "you can't have a really strict, structured question because that's not how a conversation works" showed a real appreciation of the interview as not merely a set of questions to be asked; it was about a *conversation* between two people. In the language of Holstein and Gubrium who talk about 'animating interviews' interviewer and interviewee are both *participants* and *constructors of experiential information*

Teacher Honesty: On being vulnerable

As outlined earlier, I had used a critical incident of my own to model the technique and to encourage participants to be as open and honest as they felt able during their forthcoming discussions of their own critical incidents. My example had centred around a questionnaire I had given to a group of my students asking them to score me against a number of different categories that I had constructed for the role of a university lecturer. This prompted the following comment from (Phase 4) Rachel:

> *"It got me worrying about what I would do if I'd done the same as you. I thought, "If I issued a questionnaire to my friends about me, would I like the outcome? ...You said it surprised you...I then reflected on it; when I saw yours and you said yours had surprised you, I thought "Ooh, maybe mine would surprise me if I did the same."*
>
> Source: *Rachel*

Thus, Rachel could sense that I had found it a little difficult to ask others what they thought of me. Moreover, after reflection she was more prepared to do something similar as she said afterwards that she could see the benefits of doing this in the workplace, even though she found the prospect a little scary. This was a good example of vicarious learning (see p.83) in which she had improved her self-efficacy (Bandura, 1985).

Meanwhile, Amy commented that l, through allowing myself to be vulnerable, was demonstrating a certain empathy, that I had the same sorts of doubts and insecurities as they did, and this was how I was tackling them in spite of this (See *Vulnerability of myself as a researcher*, p.149). As well as encouraging them to do likewise, my action was building rapport as evidenced by the quote that I was more 'approachable':

> *"I thought it was very good, because at the same time you're still a human. Just because you're a lecturer and just because you do research, you can't come across as somebody just looking for an answer, you need to be personable, you need to be approachable"*
>
> Source*: Amy*

Hans agreed that it was fine to admit to weaknesses as this was necessary for self-improvement:

> *"Yeah, I think everyone has weaknesses and why not say "Yeah, it's my weakness,*
> *but I try to work on my weakness." …I think it's not a problem to say…"*

<div align="right">Source: Hans</div>

However, Costas said that he had been rather surprised to hear me, as a teacher, opening up to students by talking about my own critical incident. He had stated that this was because 'no-one wants to share his weaknesses with others' but then showed that he had found the exercise useful, saying:

> *"It was helpful, because if someone shows his weaknesses with me, I can show*
> *him mine and so on and so on and can build a relation and co-operate better, yeah."*

<div align="right">Source: Costas</div>

Thus, Costas appeared to have reflected and then amended his views of how willing he would be to 'share his weakness with others'. His initial view appeared to differ from that of Amy, Rachel and Hans, and it seemed likely that he had been influenced by his own Greek educational background, as the following quote illustrated:

> *"To be honest – it's my first time in the UK – but the lecturers here, in*
> *comparison with my lecturers in Greece, are more close to the students here, because*
> *as you said, you were expecting a lot of people to see you as a Father and as a person*
> *who they can turn to, to talk about their problems, and this phenomenon is not*
> *something that can happen in Greece with our lecturers. I don't know in Post-*
> *Graduate level, but here there is a tendency for the lecturers to be more close to their*
> *students and I've seen your results and there are a lot of roles that you have to fill,*
> *that even you were not aware of."*

<div align="right">Source: Costas</div>

This comment was, in part, prompted by my original critical incident questionnaire to students which had included the role of being a parent figure. However, my own experience at post graduate level has shown me that many university teachers can be very sympathetic and caring towards students in a pastoral way despite heavy workloads. As van Lankveld et al.(2017) point out in their literature review of teacher identity in the university, many university teachers exhibit strong commitment to their students. On a personal note, I had emigrated alone as a young engineer and had experienced fitting into a very different, African culture. So, I admired the courage of international students and was keen to help them if

necessary. Also, I realised that I was not a 'hip' young teacher who could easily relate to students through similar taste in music, fashion etc. but I had experienced (and helped with) the undergraduate struggles and triumphs of my three daughters, a fact I used on occasion to show that I had some understanding of their situation. When it came to advising on the use of IT to find journal articles I typically made the comment that "if your Dad can find his way around the library system it should be easy for you!"(see *use of humour*, p. 60) whilst at the same time not being afraid to ask for student help in class when, inevitably, a technical 'blip' occurred during one of my workshops. However, being aware of the need to maintain a level of professional respect (see for what I could do well – i.e. guide them in the learning process – was an ongoing consideration, constantly subject to reflection in my mind as a teacher. Summing up on this point, as discussed earlier many university teachers in the UK do exhibit pastoral behaviours because it is just 'who they are' (see earlier notes on professional identity p.197 and Cooper, 2011; Mariskind, 2014). However, as discussed there are incidental benefits of this attitude within the classroom in building rapport (Benson et al., 2005). And, finally, individual teachers' experiences and personalities help shape their interaction with students bringing with them their own unique *presage* (Biggs, Kember and Leung, 2001) to the teaching and learning situation.

RESULTS: PHASE 3 (Continued)

Consisting of:

4.4.2 Participants' Critical Incident 1-1 Interviews

4.4.2　Participant critical incident 1-1 interviews

Introduction

Following my preparatory tutorial on critical incidents the focus of the workshop swung around to the participants, in which they interviewed each other about critical incidents they had experienced during their research journeys. This section outlines this process and then analyses and discusses the findings from the activity.

Process: Participants video interviewing each other on their Critical Incidents

For the critical incident interviews participants were in 3 self-selected groups, as follows:

- Amy and Rachel
- Hans and Costas
- Cheryl, Joseph, and Faith

Although university video cameras were available, all participants preferred to use their own recording devices: Amy and Rachel used their mobile phones, Hans and Costas used a laptop, and Cheryl, Joseph and Faith used an i-pad. Permission to use these was granted on the basis that participants were already familiar with their own equipment and might feel more comfortable using it. Upon completion of the session participants supplied me with copies of their video files, as agreed and with their full, written consent (for examples see Appendices 6,7 and 8 on pages 313,314,315).

As discussed in Chapter 3: Methodology, the video files of Phase 3 were observed, listened to, and then transcribed into MS Word. They were analysed qualitatively using emergent coding (Saldaña, 2016) with the 'Quirkos' programme. Copies of Quirkos reports are given in appendices A, B, C identifying quotes of participants under various codes (headings). In addition, relevant quotes reflecting upon the Phase 3 experience have been taken from Phase 4.

Critical Incidents: Identification of themes

A summary of the themes identified by analysis of the interview transcripts of participants discussing their critical incidents is shown in Fig. 4.7. These themes, supplemented by comments from the final Reflective Interview, are used as the basis for the findings, analysis and discussion that follows.

Thus, the section commences with an outline of the critical incidents that participants discussed with each other; linking to this is the next theme of the pairing dynamics between participants as interviewer and interviewee; then comes discussion of the role of the supervisor; and finally 'opening up' themes of skills and feelings are discussed (these account for more than half of all coded comments). The comments from the theme of 'usefulness of the critical incident technique' have usually also been coded in the other themes and so have not been itemised separately.

Pairing Dynamics
5

Nature of the critical incident
13

Helpfulness of supervisors
7

Opening up - feelings
20

Usefulness of critical incident technique
6

Opening up - skills
13
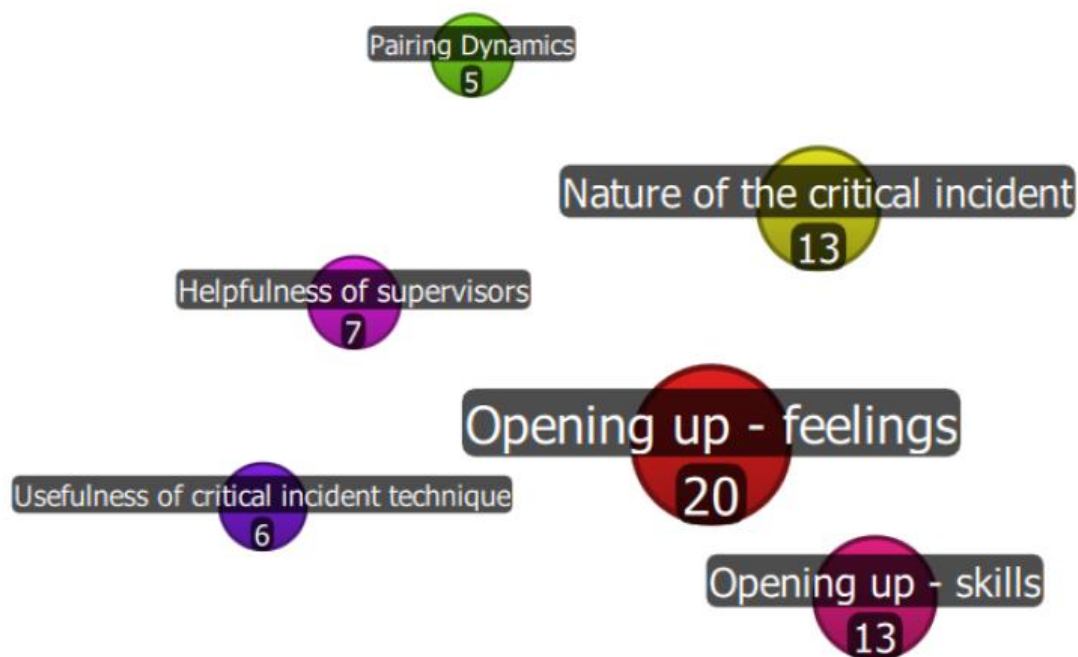
Fig 4.7 Themes identified from analysis of Participants' Interviews of their Critical Incidents

4.4.2.1 *Theme: Nature of the Critical Incident*

The participants critical incidents of situations related to their research were quite unique. And while all participants recalled particular incidents, they were not all 'critical' in the same way. For instance, some were critical in the manner described by Vachon and LeBlanc (2011,

p.894) who defined a critical incident as 'the thorough description and analysis of an authentic and experienced event within its specific context'. Other participants' critical incidents were more concerned with the 'way we look at a situation: a critical incident is an interpretation of the significance of an event …it is a value judgement' (Tripp , 1993, p.8). Some had true 'Eureka!' moments; others had come to a significant realisation more slowly; and one was still in the process of experiencing a critical incident.

The 'Eureka' Moment

Rachel's experience was typical of the 'Eureka' moment. She had been struggling with finding a framework on which to base her research when, as if by chance, she 'stumbled upon' a key model:

> *"my critical incident I selected was when I stumbled upon the Kirkpatrick's Evaluation Model…I hadn't thought about it as being a critical incident - I knew it was a turning point, just like in my Undergraduate Dissertation…I had a similar moment where I stumbled upon a particular item – Foucault - who fitted my research… I was just so pleased to have it - I just latched onto it and thought "I'm just going to run with this."*

> *Source: Rachel*

Amy also had something fortunate happen, though in this case it was nothing which she had done, it was a case of external circumstances, as she explained to Rachel in her interview:

> *"after my proposal I got bamboozled, because I got suggested that maybe a Critical Incident approach would be better for me than questionnaires. So I was actually a little bit concerned, and the pivotal moment for me was in the workshop last week during PGMB 85, when Mr B – our lovely lecturer – put forward the idea that he was going to put a workshop on specifically on Critical Incidents. So it was almost coincidental that I was panicking and then all of a sudden this workshop was put on tailored to exactly what I needed. So that was my pivotal moment of "Whoo, something good's going to happen now, we're going to learn things."*

> *Source: Amy*

For Costas, a pivotal moment was a conversation he had with his programme leader. This prompted him to consider a major change. Until that point he had always been far more comfortable handling numerical data and preferred quantitative approaches to research but he

had been persuaded during this discussion to adopt a qualitative approach to his work for this particular project. His strength of feeling comes out in the quote he gave:

> "*it was really difficult for me personally because I really have a tendency to value numbers more when it comes to data analysis. Yes, I have a tendency to think that Quantitative research methods are more objective but I had a conversation with Dr.A about this and he said that in Social Sciences (Economics is a Social Science),a Qualitative approach can bring subjective results, but can also be correct, reliable , to support the main ideas and the concepts behind them.*"

Source: Costas

Joseph's critical incident was more of a slow realisation after conducting his initial literature review that collaboration in business was an 'ongoing event' in business and was more than just being part of a team. As he put it:

> "*OK. The difference was the fact that, you know, after reading through different underpinnings, I realised that collaboration is an ongoing event present in business , ...I realised that collaboration goes beyond teamwork within the workplace.*"

Source: *Joseph*

Cheryl's critical incident was also more of a 'slow burner'. She had been thinking for some time about her previous employment and the topic of employee engagement. She had observed that her previous managers knew of the benefits of employees being engaged but had done little themselves to foster its development. Her thoughts on this lay dormant until reignited by the demands of her research task. It was at this point that her research question came to mind. This was, in effect, her critical incident. She explained:

> "*I tried to use my experience, cos I'd worked in a place where employers keep demanding the employees to be engaged as they can be, but then the reverse was not the case. The employers were not necessarily giving the employees a good environment, a satisfactory well-being and atmosphere to work with and be engaged in. We had people skipping work because they had to work ---- or they had something to sort out, financial reasons and all that, but at that point I thought if employee engagement is so important in an organisation then how, how exactly are employers interpreting this?*"

Source*: Cheryl*

In the case of Hans, his critical incident centred around getting the opportunity to get some 'inside information' on management changes taking place within the banking sector. With this information he could carry out a much deeper study and gain real insights into the authentic working world. As many other students do, he had managed to gain access to people in his chosen sector through a personal relationship. Here, he explains what he was attempting to do:

> "*I want to focus on some part of the Change Management which are affect the most in my example in the bank, in which they have the most problems. I want to have a closer look on that and support it with some Qualitative data, or some interviews, because I get some inside information, because my mother works in this company as a Line Manager, and so she's involved in the management change process, and so it's interesting to get some of this information how her Company does their change.*"

Source*: Hans*

Finally, Faith told her story. She related that she was still in the middle of her critical incident. Unlike Hans she was still struggling at that point in gaining access to an organisation to carry out primary research. Faith was an international student and was trying to find an organisation in the UK. Most students were making use of previous contacts in their home countries (both UK and overseas) so this was perhaps understandable. She had learned the hard way that companies are often unwilling to discuss sensitive topics (hers was absence management) with students. Here she tells of her predicament:

> "*Em, my one [critical incident] basically was when I was doing my management proposal, was about actually finding companies to conduct my research on. So, my topic area was Absence Management policy so few companies, let's just say most companies were really worried about me having access to their Absence Management policy, so most of them didn't reply me. I have found a company, but I am still struggling with them because they keep on changing their minds and they are telling me, "Oh, we will call you back." So, it's still going on*"

Source*: Faith*

4.4.2.2 *Theme: Pairing Dynamics*

As discussed previously, an in-depth qualitative interview may be regarded as a co-constructed experience (Holstein and Gubrium, 2011) in which both interviewer and interviewee bring with them their own 'concepts, ideas, theories, values, experiences and multiple identities' (Edwards and Holland, 2013). The two pairings, who also took part in the final Reflective Interview, are discussed here: Rachel and Amy; and, Hans and Costas.

Rachel and Amy

Rachel and Amy were already friends before they interviewed each other on their critical incidents. Rachel felt that this worked well for them, saying:

> "*Me and Amy already know each other very well, so it was quite easy and funny to interview her, but I know she's as talkative as I am, so I knew that I wouldn't be having to ply answers out of her. So that dynamic worked well for us*"
>
> Source*: Rachel*

The manner of their discussion during their interview demonstrated this close connection. It was, as Rachel said 'more of a conversation' in which they could range freely. As a qualitative interview it was thus very powerful. An interesting aspect of them working together was that, as researchers, they had carried out different types of research backgrounds as undergraduates. Thus, Rachel was used to a qualitative approach whereas Amy was more quantitatively oriented. However, Amy was now considering a more qualitative approach and this prompted Rachel to offer advice to her; in return Amy was ready to offer help with any quantitative methods that Rachel might be struggling with. So, the partnership was complementary. Here is how Rachel described her experience in interviewing Amy:

> "*Well, it became a conversation sometimes, because she's very quantitative and I'm very qualitative, and during her interview she was reflecting on her critical Incident and she was saying to me that she was realising that she was going to have to become more qualitative than is comfortable for her because of the nature of the topic that she'd chosen – Care and Responsibilities. So, it was probably quite useful for her to talk to somebody that was quite qualitatively minded*"
>
> Source: *Rachel*

It was clear that these offers of help were based not just on friendship but on a true respect of the capabilities of the other. For instance, Rachel said of Amy:

"She did Psychology, which is really quantitative, so she had to know SPSS like the back of her hand. So, we worked quite well as opposites in what we were comfortable with, and that came out in our Critical Incidents."

Source: *Rachel*

Hans and Costas: Critical Friends

Hans and Costas were also friends in class. It was clear from their critical incident interviews that they respected each other academically. They also played the role of 'critical friend' to each other – as indeed, all of the participants interviewing each other did. According to Storey and Wang (2017) critical friendships help in developing different perspectives, and enhance critical thinking but it can be hard to think of challenging questions and participants may feel uncomfortable giving and receiving 'cool feedback'. However, Costas and Hans were both adept at asking the probing question, as the following exchange from their interview demonstrated. Here, Hans was questioning Costas about the scope of his research which was on the subject of presenteeism in the workplace :

Hans*: "Also, did you, have you seen a tendency, if you look at the European Union for example, if you look at if South Europe has more or less presenteeism than other parts of Europe?"*

Costas*: "I haven't checked that. I have only read some research on Russia, but the percentages of presenteeism there wasn't so high, so, I don't know. I'm going to compare them with Greece and see the result".*

Scoping of the research project is often a source of struggle, as discussed within the earlier findings.

In the next exchange Hans enquired about how Costas felt overall about his progress:

Hans: *"Do you think… Are you satisfied with your research so far? Do you think it's still a lot to improve, or do you think it's OK?"*

Costas: *"From the point of the secondary data, it's already finished, but I'm struggling right now, with the questionnaires and the interview question – I don't know what to write. I really have some problems ethically; apparently, they're going to be some ethical*

issues regarding the questions. So, I don't know how to start, to be honest."

Here Costas showed that he was experiencing mixed success; he had completed his literature review but was then struggling with his interview questions. This shows that he was aware of the ethical requirements, although was unsure how to approach them. This example shows that he was prepared to be quite open and honest to Hans. Recalling what he told me later in his phase 4 interview (i.e. that no-one likes to reveal their weaknesses) this was real progress, showing the ability of the peer-peer nature of the critical incident interview to encourage an opening up of thoughts and feelings (more on this in the following sections). Both Hans and Costas seemed pleased with the outcome of the interview, ending with the last brief exchange:

Hans: *"Ok, that was an interesting interview about a Critical incident of the Management research project."*
Costas: *"Thank-you for your time, yes thanks."*

For the sake of interview etiquette, Costas could just have left it at 'thank-you for your time'. Both parties would have felt that they had fulfilled their roles (Goffman, 1959) acting as interviewer and interviewee. His last, additional 'yes thanks' suggests that he genuinely felt the interview had been helpful.

4.4.2.3 *Theme: Role of Supervisors*

In addition to the 'University Teacher as Guide' series of group workshops carried out for this research, participants had the following direct sources of tutor help and advice for their research projects: module leader, workshop tutors, project supervisor, skills advisor. Usually any interactions were on a 1-1 basis. The project supervisor's role was identified by a number of participants as being particularly useful. Thus, Hans and Costas discussed this in their critical incident interview, as follows:

Hans: *"Did you think the meetings with the Supervisor were helpful? Or what do you think about your meetings and the help of your Supervisors?"*

Costas: *"Of course, of course, yes it was good, especially at the data analysis and methodology part - I wasn't sure what to use and of course I didn't have any previous experience in conducting a report and how to write a proposal …so it was yeah, definitely helpful. I didn't have, and I still don't, have the experience to conduct the whole research alone, but that's the point of why we are having supervisors."*

This demonstrated that an enthusiastic student, willing to listen and willing to be open about their learning needs could gain considerably from their project supervisor. Supervisors could be pro-active as 'critical friends' and prompt participants to consider other theories. In Amy's case this suggestion had been to adopt a more appropriate methodology, as the exchange in the critical incident interview between Amy and Rachel below shows:

Rachel: *"So, are you glad that Mr A brought this up?"*

Amy: *"Absolutely, so pleased, although in a way, at the time when he brought up the fact that I want you to change methodology, I was a little bit like "Oh no what am I going to do, I'm going out of my comfort zone! It's not something I know about, it's not something I'm aware about!" And I was a little bit apprehensive at the time, but now actually looking through it is probably going to benefit me in the future, because it is probably going to make my report better and my data is going to be better than what I would have done if I'd done questionnaires."*

So, this demonstrates clearly that the project tutor had encouraged her to move out of her 'comfort zone' (or 'zone of proximal development' as Vygotsky (1978) advocated) resulting in a clearly better outcome than what she would have achieved on her own.

In stark contrast, however, Rachel had felt unwilling to ask her project tutor about her report framework as she thought that she was expected to do this on her own. She remarked:

> *"At Master's level I didn't want to kind of go crying to Ms H saying, "I don't know what to do for my report framework." Cos I doubt she would have told me exactly, cos we've got to come up with that kind of stuff ourselves, and so I was a bit worried at that point."*

<div align="right">

Source*: Rachel*

</div>

4.4.2.4 *Theme Opening up – Skills*

As can be seen from the transcription analysis of the critical incident interviews (see Fig 4.7, p.211) comments relating to 'opening up' of skills (13) and feelings (20) were dominant. With regard to the latter, Wellington (2010, p.146) writing about the exploration of affective-writing of post-graduate students states 'the activity of opening up the affective domain, reflecting on it and sharing it with fellow students is a vitally important one'. The suggestion here is that the 'opening up' of discussion around the skills and feelings associated with the participants' research projects, is an inter-related process; to discuss their feelings they first of all had to give the context on their skills learning. As Vygotsky (1987, quoted in Wells (1999) 'A true and complex understanding of another's thought becomes possible only when we discover its real, affective-volitional basis.' Thus, although I have coded some of the participants 'opening - up' comments as more concerned with their discussion of skills and others as more to do with feelings, the quoted examples that follow are complete in their own right without editing out any affective components.

Four examples of opening - up relating to research skills development are now given. In the first example Costas was explaining to Hans what he is hoping to achieve with his research methods:

Hans: *"What do you want to achieve with your interview and, or questionnaires? What do you do?"*
Costas: *"I'm going to do both. Actually, as I said before, I value quantitative data more than qualitative, but, I'm going to do both, just to support each other, and with interviews I hope to get some honest answers about the issue from the workers and from the line managers, and I'm going to use the questionnaires to support these answers and views. That's the main thing."*

With this example it is possible to see Costas was justifying his approach of using a mixed methods approach. He has admitted that he preferred to use quantitative methods but has now considered using qualitative methods to triangulate his analysis (this reflection on epistemology was discussed earlier with Amy and Rachel – see p.215).

In the next example Rachel was talking to Amy about her critical incident which concerned her discovery of a key theory which she could frame her research around. However, in this

exchange she admitted that she was not yet fully been able to utilise the theory, that there were still some question marks around it:

Rachel: *"Actually, I still find it a bit confusing 'cos I know it was quite an old model, that was my only reservation. It is actually an old framework and that people have improved it since and updated it and it's quite hard to find the updated versions, 'cos they don't call it "improved version", they give it different names, even though it is essentially the same concept, so... sorry I've gone off on a tangent there."*

This was quite a detailed discussion. The passage tells us she had realised the need to justify the model especially in the light that she considered this quite 'old' so was doing further work to see which other researchers had used it. She was also seeing similar models which she suspected were based on the 'original' one. The comment about 'going off on a tangent' is precisely what the semi-structured nature of the interview allowed for; without it this insight would not have been picked up.

In the third example, Cheryl is relating Faith her thoughts on trying to remain as unbiased as possible, letting her research participants give their opinions, rather than her own (Note: Cheryl's research focused on employee engagement in the workplace):

Faith: *"After thinking about this were you able to come up with a good reason why employees should be engaged in the workplace?"*
Cheryl: *"Well if I have to do that then that would be me being a biased researcher and as a researcher I learnt that you have to research deeply and get opinions from different people, cos if I have to do that then that would be me just putting down what I think, but then in a research project like this, what I think, I don't think should be the priority of the research."*
Again, this example shows a reflexive attitude. By discussing her thoughts with Faith she is reinforcing her recent learning in the module, which may be of benefit to both of them.

The final example is typical of how participants had reflected on their past experiences to establish the subject of their research (Note: Faith's research was on absenteeism in the workplace):

Cheryl: *"Did you ever experience such absenteeism?"*

Faith: *"Yeah, I have... but I think sometimes people coming in, not coming in to work because they sick and then some of them not coming in, just they saying they're sick when they're not. I wanted to look at why that happened, but then it was too broad so then I had to look at the policy."*

Here, Faith was telling a personal story of how she had worked in an organisation and observed absenteeism. She does not appear to be passing judgement, rather she is asking why this was happening (which would seem to be a sound basis for research). Implicit in her last sentence, that this topic was 'too broad' and she had to 'look at the policy', was the message that she had necessarily narrowed the scope of her original idea, but perhaps this was not going to be as satisfying as her original aim. The skill of being able to narrow down a seemingly disparate series of events, facts and opinions into a coherent research question is precisely one which research projects seek to develop amongst aspirant researchers. It is out of this 'chaos' (Hunt, 2001) that the research proposal emerges.

4.4.2.5 *Theme: Opening up – Feelings*

A range of feelings were expressed: anxiety and confusion; anxiety followed by excitement; panic followed by elation; growing confidence; empathy and care. What was common was the significance each individual attributed to their story. Stories are a powerful means through which individuals can shape their identities through a process of making meaning of their experiences and questioning pregiven assumptions (Sparkes and Smith, 2008). A number of participants' stories from the critical incident interviews show this below:

Anxiety and Confusion

As in phases 1 and 2, participants did express feelings of anxiety and confusion at times. By this point they had submitted their research proposal. Cheryl, for instance had felt the process to be 'scary' as she had discovered different arguments on her topic which she had not envisaged. She admitted to also feeling 'confused' with information overload. However, one of the skills required of doing a research project, according to QAA Master's Guidelines (QAA, 2015) – see **Appendix 7.1, p. 305** is to find strategies that work for the individual to enable them to cope with sifting out the relevant data and then prioritising it. So, feelings of confusion are to be expected, at least up to a point:

Joseph*: "So, how do you feel now about all your input in your Research proposal?"*
Cheryl: *"Well, it's a bit scary, it's a bit scary because …some people's, em, some arguments I've researched on are quite different from what I had in mind, but well it's kind of a 2-way thing and I've just tried to be so careful, but right now I think I just feel so confused. This has opened my eyes to see so many things I didn't see before."*

When Joseph was asked about his own project topic he had replied that he also had felt 'a little bit confused in the beginning' about what to focus upon. However, he had recalled his previous work experience and a particularly difficult time when people were being laid off from work. As he said :

> *"The Company was going through an expansion state, and so … they started relieving a lot of people from their jobs, yeah, so nobody knew when his own letter was going to come."*

<div align="right">Source: Joseph</div>

As mentioned previously, many participants who had work experience used this as a source of ideas.

Anxiety followed by Excitement

In the case of Costas his initial anxiety in writing his proposal was replaced by feelings of excitement. In Phase 2 his drawing had depicted him climbing a mountain via a series of camps (Fig 4.4.3). He was following a route, but it was still challenging. As he admitted, he tended to have a 'stressful nature', but he had persevered and was now seeing the rewards of doing so:

Hans*: "Interesting, - and how did you feel about writing your proposal and research in this early part of the project"*
Costas*: "Well, I was anxious at first, because of my stressful nature, but it was challenging, but in the end because I've seen my work it was really – how should I put it – it was exciting and ... yes, exciting!"*

Rachel also commented that she felt excited when she had her 'Eureka' moment of finding the theoretical model which was to be key to her theoretical framework. Amy questioned her on this:

Amy: "*So how did you feel when you actually found the model and it all came together?*
Rachel: I was excited, 'cos then all of a sudden I had references that I needed to go and look up!"

Panic followed by Elation

One observation to note is the volatility of participants' feelings – at one point up, at another point down. The drawings of phase 2 have already illustrated this polarity (for instance Rachel's jagged series of peaks to be negotiated Fig 4.4.2; Cheryls 'split personality' of relief vs uncertainty Fig 4.4.10). During the critical incident interview Amy's emotions were clear to see. Here, she is talking about finding out that a workshop on critical incidents was scheduled:

> *"So, it was almost coincidental that I was panicking and then all of a sudden this workshop was put, on tailored to exactly what I needed. So that was my pivotal moment of "Whoo, something good's going to happen now, we're going to learn things."* Source: *Amy*

Likewise, Rachel 's 'Eureka' moment in the previous section was also the more full of relief because as she admitted, up until that point she was 'panicking because all I had was a load of discussion on e-learning, so I had kind of 50% of what I actually needed to do'.

Growing Confidence

As previously discussed (Bandura, 1985) uses the term 'self-efficacy' to explain the concept of being confident in one's ability to do something. Phase 1 of my research was based upon participants completing a research-oriented self-assessment of self-efficacy. Although the prime purpose of this had been to encourage participation in the series of workshops I had planned, as opposed to a quantitative measure, one of the workshop goals was to improve research self-efficacy. To address the 'Mastery' aspect of self-efficacy, participants had to study to improve their knowledge and practice to improve their skills ability; they could also improve via 'vicarious learning' – for instance by observing/listening to others during including me as their teacher; they could improve through encouragement by others – e.g. their fellow participants and myself. These self-efficacy principles were designed into the teaching and learning process of the 'University Teacher as Guide' and as such it was not always easy to see a direct result emerging. However, Amy's particular case was different: she reported feeling 'loads more confident' as a direct result of the critical skills workshop! As mentioned previously, it was exactly what she had been looking for, as she confirmed with Rachel:

Rachel: "*So how has this workshop making you feel about things now?*"
Amy*: "Much more confident, loads more confident…So, I feel loads better about it now; it's been a really worthwhile workshop for me.*"

Only occasionally, in my experience as a teacher, does such serendipity occur (readers may be more blessed). But it feels great when it does! And that matters because this research is about improving the experience for everyone involved in the teaching and learning process, aspirants and guide.

Empathy and Concern

The classic experiential learning theorists (e.g. Kolb, 1984; Schön, 1987) have learners reflecting upon their experiences and then thinking of what they might do differently in the future, under similar circumstances. So, there is almost a natural tendency to adopt this

approach when reflecting upon critical incidents. The following exchange between Joseph and Cheryl during their critical incident discussion asks precisely this question. It raises not just matters relating to the research process but issues of empathy and concern:

Joseph: "*With the Critical Incident. What might you do differently when a certain opportunity arises again?*"

Cheryl*: "Ok, if I had such opportunity, I might just necessarily direct my research to a particular company and try to make them see things – that's after researching, of course – I would make them see things from my results of research. Definitely it wouldn't be my opinion, but from thorough research; I would make them see the need to actually have a good interpretation of what Employee Engagement is.*"

This example shows how Cheryl was wanting her chosen organisation to improve its employee engagement practices. The company was based overseas and Cheryl had worked there, and this had been how she had identified her research problem. She wanted her research to make a difference for the better, as she perceived it. Thus, she was demonstrating – and sharing- this concern with Joseph. Although she was keen to point out that it was not her 'opinion' and would be the subject of 'thorough research' there was sense of wanting to educate others ("I would make them see the need") so that they could benefit from her knowledge. As the organisation was based overseas this raises cultural concerns. Although the conversation did not go there, it could have raised further issues of globalization – e.g. challenging 'the assumption that social change follows a law-like predestined process at the global scale' and of hybridization of cultures (Alasuutari, 2008). What her comments did show was Cheryl's willingness to discuss quite deeply-held, empathetic concerns with Joseph and to be reflexive.

4.5 RESULTS: PHASE 4

Interview: Participants' Experiences of using Video to Record their Critical Incidents

4.5 RESULTS PHASE 4: INTERVIEW: PARTICIPANTS' EXPERIENCES OF USING VIDEO TO RECORD THEIR CRITICAL INCIDENTS

During Phase 4 (Interviews with Amy, Rachel, Costas and Hans) I spent some time asking them about their video experiences. As can be seen from the first excerpt, Rachel already appeared to be aware of the likely benefits of using a video for research purposes. She was connecting this to the transcribing task which had been discussed earlier in class. All of her points were valid:

Kevin: *"What do you think about the actual medium that was used? Cos I could have just asked you to record like we're doing now, but I said "No, let's see if we can video it." What's your thoughts about videoing as opposed to just pure audio?"*
Rachel: *"I think it's easier for the person who ends up transcribing because you can see people's physical response to a question and why they're pausing – is that because they're thinking, is that because they're writing? Do they look confused? It could be helpful for the actual interviewer to see how they're responding to the question."*

It was thus clear that participants could use their own experience of social interactions to guide them in interpreting the transcriptions of the audio further. Going deeper into the analysis of film/video and the messages given by verbal tics, pauses, tonality and visual signals such as facial expressions and body gestures requires a specialist knowledge of techniques such as social semiotics and has typically been conducted in ethnographic research (Erickson, 2011). However, as mentioned earlier, this lies beyond the scope of my research and is not something that I would currently teach business and management post graduate students.

Watching Self on Video

Anecdotally, many people say that they do not like to hear themselves on audio and even less to see themselves on video. The research would appear to support this statement. For instance see Sherin and Han (2002, quoted in Borko et al, 2008, p.420); LeBaron et al. (2017, p.22). Feedback from Rachel bore this out in practice for the Phase 3 critical incident interviews:

"I didn't look at mine again, cos she had mine and I don't like the sound of my own voice on video or recording, so that's something that I've found in our most recent recordings, everybody's said " Oh, I don't want to hear my own voice." And she's said to me "I don't want to hear my own voice or see myself on video."

<div align="right">Source: Rachel</div>

Costas also found the actual interviews 'awkward' and 'kind of embarrassing' because he had to hear his own voice. As for video he said:

"Audio [it] would have been easier than video. You see my expressions etc. I don't like it, I'm not photogenic, I don't like it. That's my thoughts about it."

<div align="right">Source: Costas</div>

From a cultural perspective (Gobo, 2011) when even the use of photographs may be a barrier, the use of video may be unwelcome. However, as Costas came from a Western (Greek) culture similar to the UK, it is probably more likely that this a personal reaction. However, not liking at the time was clearly not the same as not being prepared to do it if they could see the bigger picture of it helping them in their self-development; for they all knew in advance what to expect, had given their full consent to the videos, and were all taking part under their own volition. And, as it transpired, there *were* benefits. For instance, in reply to the previous comment I asked Rachel about viewing Amy's video. Here is the exchange that followed:

Kevin*: "Right, so you don't want to see your own video, but did you want to see Amy's Again?"*
Rachel*: "Yes, because I wanted to check that the sound quality was ok, and you notice more the second time round, because when you're asking questions you miss stuff, because you're too busy trying to concentrate on what they're saying and thinking about how you're going to slot in the next question."*

<div align="right">Source: Rachel</div>

She then went further saying that it was not just a case of helping to get an accurate transcript:

"I can see the usefulness of looking back at the video again of your participants; cos again – kind of like the picture thing – it was fun, it was kind of a fun social element of it, and because – as I said – we're comfortable with each other, it was relatively easy to do. I think it would be more difficult with people that were unfamiliar."   Source: *Rachel*

So, the situation turned from being one of overcoming her natural timidity (in this environment, for she was quite vocal in class) to actually enjoying the occasion ('it was kind of a fun social element'). The basis of much personal development associated with overcoming our fears requires us to deliberately experience some degree of feeling uncomfortable but still persisting in doing it (Jeffers, 2007). Cassell (2013) has a paper entitled: 'Pushed beyond my comfort zone: conducting qualitative research for the first time'. In terms of social intelligence Goleman (2007) argues that, although we may have been born with certain 'neural pathways' that tend to react timidly or shyly to what our brain perceives as a particular stressful situation, we can lay down new tracks with opportunities, effort and awareness.

Although as mentioned above Costas did not like being the interviewee, he too seemed to have benefited from watching the video of his fellow participant (i.e. vicarious learning: Bandura, 1985). He also thought that the discussion had focused Hans' thinking, as the following excerpt shows:

Kevin: *"You looked at Hans as well on the video. How was that?"*
Costas: *"He was far superior to me, he was more relaxed and he spoke fluently, I think it was more..."*
Kevin: *"Did you learn from that?"*
Costas: *"Yes, yes, he speaks at his own pace, he does not try to speak quickly and make mistakes and also, I think his topic was kind of generic, but after he shared his thoughts with me I think that he's [become more] focused ..."*

FINDINGS

Comprising

4.6 Initial Findings

4.7 Further Findings

4.6 INITIAL FINDINGS

There are a range of findings from across the different results phases, with some findings being specific to a particular phase whilst others are more of an overarching nature. To address this, findings have been arranged here in terms of '**Initial Findings**' and then '**Further Findings'**: thus the 'Initial Findings' link directly to the results of Phases 1-4 of the research, and 'Further Findings' consider the implications of the initial findings for teacher – student relationships within the present national teaching context.

As outlined above, initial findings will be discussed with reference to the four phases of the research. These are shown again in Fig 1.2, for clarity:

Phase and Date	Phased Guided Activity	Data recorded
1. 20th Nov 2015	'Diagnosing my own self efficacy as a student researcher'	Participants' self-efficacy questionnaires
		Chart and mean scores of all participants (anonymous)
2. 11th Dec 2015	'My 3 words and picture of my research journey to date'	Participants' words and pictures
	Focus group discussion on 3 words and picture	Focus group transcript
		Focus group audio
3. 29th Jan 2016	Critical incident – interviewing each other on video	Transcripts of participants interviews
		Participants' Videos
4. March – April 2016	One-one interview/ reflection (of Participant with Teacher as Guide) of all Guiding Activities completed	Teacher (Guide)/ Participant Interview transcripts

Fig 1.2 (reproduced) The 4 Phased Guided Activities used for the Thesis Research

4.6.1 Phase 1: Initial Findings

An initial scanning of the questionnaire results did not seem to raise any major problems or difficulties in terms of how confident students were in tackling their research projects. The importance of this can easily be overlooked: it is an important finding, as it is not borne out by deeper investigation in Phases 2, 3 and 4, which all point strongly towards *significant* confidence issues. Thus this raises questions in terms of the accuracy of self-assessment of students' own self-efficacy; participants were just at the start of their research journey and so would be unable to fully appreciate what they were still required to do (and learn) for their research projects.

However, some questionnaire results did show potential for further investigation in that they hinted that at least a third of students had low confidence levels in their abilities to carry out primary research (Q.6), formulate key research questions (Q.3) and to identify new trends in their research field (Q.12). A further third of students were only reasonably confident in these areas. Thus, as a rough filter in identifying potential problems areas, the questionnaire was useful to some extent. However, what it did not do was to give any indication of *why* students might be experiencing problems.

Benefits of Phase 1 for Participants

Students are required to know how to carry out survey research, and so the use of the questionnaire was beneficial. For instance, the statistical limitations of the survey were discussed. These included the small sample size (N=16); a sample of N>25 as a minimum would have allowed for the bar charts to be less easily influenced by outsider results. However, the sample size was the entire class attendance and so could not be increased. Thus, the main use of the questionnaire results was not to prove a particular hypothesis but to describe, using numbers, how students viewed their confidence in particular aspects of carrying out their research project. It was not possible from such descriptive statistics for this one case to infer a general rule for other cases. However, as a means of identifying areas for further analysis, outlining the scope of a particular situation, the use of the questionnaire had some merit.

Benefits of Phase 1 for Teacher-Participant Relationship

Phase 1 allowed participants to think in more detail about their abilities to carry out their research across various stages. It allowed them to begin the process of voicing their appreciation of the processes involved; as importantly, it allowed them to begin to share their

own thoughts and feelings with fellow participants during the classroom discussions that followed the completion of the questionnaire. As a teacher, it allowed me to do the following: encourage discussion between participants and myself; to show my interest in their work and my wish for them all to do well; to demonstrate minimum and more advanced levels of expertise that they could reasonably expect to be able to emulate in line with their present abilities and motivation; to begin to establish the basis for a teacher-student community of practice.

Thus, the Self-efficacy questionnaire was an effective way to pique participants' interests in their awareness of their research abilities. It was very much an awareness-raising technique and had the advantage of being quick to complete. It could then be openly discussed with others as a follow-on exercise, led by the teacher. As a means to prepare and perhaps more importantly motivate participants for further Phased Guided Activities it was ideal, because it was relevant to what they were doing for their research assignment.

4.6.2 Phase 2: Initial Findings

The outcomes of the Phase 2 guided activities were a surprise to me. Originally, I had intended them to be just a further warming-up phase of participants' interests in preparation for the later critical incident workshop in Phase 3. However, it proved to be a very worthwhile exercise in its own right. The data discussed during the focus group- reflections in the '3 words' exercise and the drawing depicting their progress in their research to date - was generated swiftly over 30 minutes. Moreover, it had a visceral quality that I had not expected. My findings uncovered a depth of insight, feeling and emotion in many of the comments and particularly in the drawings. It was both serious and yet fun at the same time.

As shown in Fig 1.2, Phase 2 comprised the '3 Words' exercise, the 'Drawing' exercise, and a Focus Group discussion amongst the participants of these exercises. In the Methodology I have stated that Phases 1 and 2 of my research took place during the last 20-30 minutes of two hour workshops and were fairly 'light touch'. The '3 words' exercise provided useful cross-references to the participants' drawings representing their research experiences up to that point. The focus group transcript provided an additional verbal account of both. As Bessette and Paris (2016) argue, when text and drawing are combined they have the potential for a 'multi-layered' (p.80) look at the phenomenon. Thus, whilst the 3 words exercise and the focus group discussion were relatively brief, they reinforced the metaphors contained within the participants' drawings.

Analysis of the results across Phase 2 suggests the following summary (Fig 4.4.12) for my research. Each area will then be discussed in detail:

4.6.2.1 Participants were benefiting from supervisors' support, particularly in terms of being given direction in the task of the project proposal

4.6.2.2 Participants were still suffering from emotional feelings of uncertainty and stress

4.6.2.3 Participants were initially nervous about taking part in the focus group

4.6.2.4 After reflection, participants regarded focus groups as a good place to start sharing their own thoughts and reflections on their work, and to compare themselves against others

4.6.2.5 Uncertainties and difficulties of international students were beginning to emerge

4.6.2.6 The focus group provided a useful way to model focus group skills to participants

4.6.2.7 Some participants expressed guilty feelings about 'showing-off' in the focus group

4.6.2.8 Drawings proved to be a powerful tool for using in class to begin to explore participants' hidden thoughts and emotions and breaking down barriers to sharing

4.6.2.9 There was some follow-on from participants after the focus group

4.6.2.10 The focus group helped me to reduce my own uncertainty of knowing my students and thus acted as a proactive coping mechanism for stress

Fig 4.4.12: Phase 2: Initial Findings

4.6.2.1 *Participants were benefiting from supervisors' support*

The first thing to note is that the supervisor support system for the participants working on their research projects appeared to be functioning reasonably well. This was demonstrated from participants' feedback of the focus group during the initial discussion (e.g. see Table 4.7, p.180). Much of this appeared to concern helping participants with their ideas for their research proposal and advice on the process of finding information for their literature review. In this regard the supervisors were providing the initial scaffolding (Wood, Bruner and Ross, 1976; Collins, Brown and Newman, 1989). By acting as advisors and sounding boards for participants' ideas they were also enabling them to access areas of learning which they would have found difficult to do by themselves, in accordance with their 'zone of proximal development' (Vygotsky, 1978) . Thus, from the initial discussion, it appeared that supervisors were enabling the participants to live with the 'discomfiture' they were experiencing (Barnett, 2007, p.76). As Costas mentioned in his interview (Phase 4):

*"I've also learned, following the advice of my mentor, how to write a proposal
and what methods should I use, because due to my inexperience it was really hard"*

<div align="right">Source: Costas</div>

However, mention of supervisors was notably absent in the following parts of the focus group transcript which asked participants to talk about '3 words' to describe their feelings, and their drawings (see Figs 4.3.3 – p.175, 4.3.4 – p.181 and 4.3.5 -p.184) for the overview of coded responses in the focus group transcript). In these stages (Fig 4.3.4 and Fig 4.3.5) participants primarily had comments within the 'Stressful', 'Struggling' and 'Challenging' nodes. This leads to the next implication.

4.6.2.2 *Participants were still suffering from considerable feelings of uncertainty and stress*

Analysis of both the '3 words' to describe participants' feelings and their accompanying drawings strongly suggested that they were experiencing significant levels of challenge, anxiety and stress. Gone were most of the comments about supervisors helping them. As discussed early in 4.3.2. (p.181) this may have been due to the effects of 'on stage/ back stage' (Goffman, 1959: Gilmore, 2014) behaviour by participants. The inference of this would be that when participants talked with the focus group this constituted an 'on stage' performance, to an audience of other participants and the Teacher. However, their solitary time spent before the focus group when they wrote their '3 words' and constructed their pictures, could be regarded as 'off stage'; this would be a time when their more private, deeper thoughts and emotions might be expressed. However, this possibility requires further research and lies beyond the scope of this work.

Whatever the mechanism, it was clear that participants were feeling anxious and nervous about their research projects, something which as discussed earlier has been reported by other writers commenting on the teaching of research methods (e.g. Lie and Cano, 2001; Earley, 2014, p.245). There appear to be a series of 'blocks' that participants were experiencing: cognitive, social and emotional (Ahern and Manathunga, 2004). These blocks needed to be cleared for useful progress to be made. Their words and drawings described these blocks in terms of 'chaos' and 'messiness' (Hunt, 2001) and 'uncertainty' (Bryman, 2012).

4.6.2.3 *Participants were initially nervous about taking part in the focus group*

As mentioned previously in the focus group transcript discussion (p. 175) the group was somewhat wary at the beginning of sharing information. Amy brought this out in her interview (Phase 4), saying:

> *"I think before going into that* [i.e. the focus group] *I thought it was a bit more specific, that you had to be on point, that you had to know exactly what you were going to say and had to be careful about what you were saying"*

<div align="right">Source: Amy</div>

Rachel (Phase 4) suggested that there was a general feeling amongst group members about talking about individual weaknesses, especially if others were not experiencing the same difficulties. As she said:

> *"It can be a bit uncomfortable to discuss weaknesses if other people sound like they're doing really well. You know, sometimes it's a bit hard to confess that you're having difficulties"*

<div align="right">Source: Rachel</div>

Hans (Phase 4) echoed this sentiment, saying that "If I had been far behind, then maybe I would not feel good to say I'm far behind."

However, as the focus group progressed, participants began to feel more at ease. They were informed that this was not a test, it was meant to help them with their project work. An inadvertent aspect of my approach was that it modelled how to make focus group participants feel comfortable. This was something that Amy pointed out to me during her Interview (Phase 4). With reference to the approach taken she said:

> *"it was a good way of showing how to make people comfortable cos you made us all very aware of what was going on and nobody really.... I mean I didn't feel uncomfortable at any point, I knew what to expect, I knew you were just going to ask questions, just a conversation"*

<div align="right">Source: Amy</div>

4.6.2.4 *Drawings proved to be a powerful tool for using in class to begin to explore participants' hidden thoughts and emotions*

Drawing gave participants a direct, swift, and very natural way to access their thoughts and emotions through the use of metaphors (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). As Rachel (Phase 4) remarked:

> *"the picture was worth it cos it does get you to look at it in a different way…*
> *the words don't necessarily map against the picture, so they show two different*
> *aspects of it for me"*

Source*: Rachel*

Given the brief timespan allotted to participants (15 minutes) to construct their drawings, some surprisingly insightful results emerged. Drawings brought out deeper issues. Thus, many participants were beginning to portray themselves as on a research journey, with several employing the mountain metaphor (Lamm et al., 2006). Such 'life is a journey' (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) drawings demonstrated the new boundaries they had to cross for their research proposal (Humphrey and Simpson, 2012, p.137). A previous example of this was the 'turbulent, complex and frustrating' journey of Rachel (p.188); the terminology used here is reminiscent of the concept of a journey across a liminal boundary or threshold (Meyer and Land, 2005). Many of the drawings depicted metaphors which peered into their inner ontological 'container' (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). For instance, Olivia (p.192) showed herself trapped in a dark pit, looking for 'understanding and a way out'. Meanwhile, Violet (p.193) showed herself dangling from a cliff edge in a very precarious situation, weighed down by 'Responsibilities, Study, and Life'. These examples suggest that, through the activity of drawing, participants were starting to be involved in an 'immersive' experience of the sort required to promote reflexivity (Lewthwaite and Nind, 2016, p.247). And whilst working on the research project could be 'eye opening' (Amy, p.190) or 'beneficial'(May, p.191) these responses were outnumbered by the struggling and stress related metaphors of the majority.

Thus, participants were reflecting on their own knowledge, skills and behaviours based upon experience from their own everyday lives (Dewey, 1916, p.154), by making direct connections between themselves and research processes. However, there were two aspects of the drawings which appeared to have additional benefits as a reflective method: memory and humour. As Amy (Phase 4) said:

> *"I can remember the pictures better than I can remember the words. I remember what people were drawing better than what they actually said."*

<div align="right">Source: Amy</div>

Research backs this up. There is strong evidence to suggest that this is actually the case – we often remember pictures better than words (Noldy, Stelmack and Campbell, 1990, p.417). And according to Rachel (Phase 4) she found the drawings quite humorous, saying:

> *"Everyone's pictures were quite similar, but they were quite funny…*
> *As soon as you ask a group of adults to draw pictures, it becomes quite funny. So that lightened the mood a bit, I think… serious on the words, funnier on the picture"*

<div align="right">Source: Rachel</div>

This agrees with research which has found that there are positive benefits of humour in student-teacher relationships [for a further discussion of humour in drawings go to p.79].

4.6.2.5 *After reflection participants regarded focus groups as a good place to start sharing their own thoughts and reflections on their work and to compare themselves against other*

The findings of the focus group transcript demonstrated that participants were beginning to reflect upon their own 'research praxis' (Hesse-Biber, 2015,p.464). The starting point for this had been reflection of experience from their 'everyday lives'(Dewey, 1916, p.154) i.e. their reflections upon their experience to date working on their research projects. The focus group was thus a way to make research visible to students in a meaningful way (Conway, 2017). However, this reflection was usually closely linked to a comparison of how they were doing in relation to other focus group members. Thus Costas (Phase 4) said :

> *"Of course, I try to see what they've done back then, what they should have done, what I have done, my progress."*

<div align="right">Source: Costas</div>

It is interesting to note that Costas was reflecting not just on his own experience but upon that of others. It is clear that he was thinking that they had made mistakes and that he was learning vicariously to improve his research self-efficacy (Bandura, 1985) through his observations. Hans (Phase 4) echoed this, saying:

"Our Focus Group was definitely interesting cos everybody explained what he's thinking and you get all the perspectives from the others, how far they are and maybe their problems. Maybe you have the same problem in a certain way and you can think "What can I improve from that? What can I learn from their problems?" And maybe "How can I avoid this"

Source*: Hans*

Thus, Hans was pointing out that he was being prompted to consider others' perspectives. He was developing his own learning, unleashing further potential from within his 'zone of proximal development' (Vygotsky, 1978); in this case the assisting, prompting 'teacher' role was being performed – albeit unintentionally in most cases- by other group members. And it was not just knowledge that was being shared: the focus group allowed students to begin to share in a community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991) and thereby learn that they were not alone in their thoughts and feelings. Indeed, this feeling of not being alone in encountering difficulties during their research task was a common theme to emerge from all Phase 4 interviews. Thus, Amy commented:

"Oh it's going to get turbulent in the future." So that was nice to know that I wasn't kind of the only one

Source*: Amy*

This remark was consistent with her drawing (Fig. 4.4.4 – page 190) which showed that she was presently reasonably happy (smiley emoji) but that the future was a worrying prospect (frowning emoji). It was therefore reassuring for her to learn that she was drawing some comfort by sharing her feelings with others.

4.6.2.6 *Uncertainties and difficulties of international students were beginning to emerge*

Honesty

A revealing remark was made by Rachel: it related to group members being honest with each other. She said (Phase 4):

> *"I enjoyed the Focus Group because it was useful to see where other people were at. People being a bit more honest and having to really think about how it's going - and it was new to us, it was a new experience."*

Source*: Rachel*

The idea that students in the same class were only talking to each other about their progress in a rather superficial manner was somewhat surprising to me as a teacher. However, Amy (Phase 4) clarified this when she commented:

> *"it was interesting to hear, maybe people that you don't talk to on a regular basis"*

Source*: Amy*

Thus, people were talking to each other but within their own small friendship groups. Thus, the focus group was encouraging interaction between them. The question this raises is 'what was the make-up of these friendship groups and how were they formed?' Answering this raises a number of relevant points regarding participants' contribution to the Phased Guided Activities.

The previous Fig 3.9 (p.164) shows the participation of students across all 4 phases. Phase 3 comprised 3 friendship groups: Amy and Rachel, who were British and who had known each other before the programme (as revealed during their Phase 4 interviews); Costas and Hans, who were respectively Greek and German, and who had not known each other before the programme; and Joseph, Faith and Cheryl who were all of Nigerian descent (Faith was a British national too). On such a small sample it is not possible to generalise. However, previous work on friendship groups at university has shown that in the early stages co-national friendships predominate (Harrison and Peacock, 2010, p.190), and this was the case in Phase 3. From my own observations at the time these particular friendship groups were also present during Phase 2. It is likely that similar co-national friendship groups amongst other participants in Phase 2 but without further evidence from participation in phases 3 or 4, with the exception of David and Olivia (both British) who I recall working together in class,

this must be regarded as speculation. However, the fact remains that of the 4 Chinese students in the class, none took part in phases 3 or 4. Did they feel uncomfortable at the thought of participating in activities which focused on the individual rather than the collective, in line with studies of national cultural characteristics (Hofstede, 1980)? Future studies may wish to consider inclusion of different types of student social networks – be they friendship, work groups, or advice and support networks (Haythornthwaite (2008) cited in Taha and Cox, 2016, p.183), especially in the light of cultural factors. However, the challenge is to encourage students to make the initial effort to be present in the first place.

National Education Systems

On a more cognitive front, Costas raised an important point – that of comparing his Greek education system with the British one, so that he could benchmark himself against other students. He stated that the focus group helped his understanding and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1985). He said:

> *"It was really useful at the end because I was able to see the progress of my colleagues – how far they were, with what they were struggling, and I was really interested in the answers of my British colleagues because they have the educational level – I'm from Greece, I wasn't sure if I have the educational level to compete with those people but I was really interested in their answers and I think that I have seen their struggle and I think that "I'm good" in comparison with them."*

Source: *Costas*

And on a more practical note was one of Rachel's observations about international students trying to find organisations where they could carry out primary research. As she said:

> *" Some people were having bigger challenges, because if they didn't have work experience they were having to go into organisations that they didn't know"*

Source*: Rachel*

Language

Finally, there was the presence of a much more prosaic factor: language. English was the first language of the 6 British participants and was the official language of the 4 Nigerian

participants. For the remaining 10 participants (See Fig 3.9 – p.164) English was their second language. Costas (Phase 4) flagged this as somewhat of a barrier to his progress. I judged his English to be quite competent, but I could sense that he was a very competitive student, as borne out by his previous comments (above) on benchmarking himself against British students. More of an unknown was the difficulties which other second language participants might be encountering but not relaying back to me. Based on almost 30 years within the HE environment, anecdotal evidence from lecturers of language difficulties amongst their international students has been the subject of some debate in academic team meetings. The fact remains that language , whether spoken or the written word is a crucial factor in the student's ability to search for and gather information, to explore their ideas critically to self and with others, and to express themselves to their tutors in their assessments (Jefferies et al., 2018, p.85). It is not the focus of this study to consider the language proficiency requirements of international students, but it would be wrong to ignore this most basic contributor to social and academic skills.

4.6.2.7 *The focus group provided a useful way to model focus group skills to participants*

The focus group provided participants with some essential pointers on how to set up a focus group and how to conduct it. I explained to the participants the purpose of using this research method and simple procedures, such as everyone speaking their name before they gave a comment (to identify them during transcription of the audio recording). I explained that I would be modelling (i.e. cognitive apprenticeship (Collins, Brown and Newman, 1989) the process, so they could then do this later themselves. As there are some common practices between focus groups and carrying out interviews (e.g. planning for the event, preparing questions, managing the flow of conversation whilst being adaptive to the situation, recording, transcribing, coding and analysing resultant data) students could also practice relevant skills. I was not sure if students would have been involved in focus groups before. However, this particular group of participants did not appear to have experienced them directly. As Amy (Phase 4) stated:

> *"I'd never done a Focus Group before, I'd never been in one and I didn't quite know how it worked, I thought you just kind of........you know actually I don't know what I thought happened, but that wasn't what I thought happened"*
>
> Source: *Amy*

I explained to the group that I was taking the recording away to be transcribed and that they would be given copies of the transcription the next week in class. At this point I gave formal input on coding of qualitative data by theme. Participants could see at first-hand how to layout the transcript, word for word. They were shown that transcription is not just a mechanical process but involves choice by the transcriber (e.g. is a pause or a laugh indicated?) and so in interpretative as well (Davidson, 2009, p.38). It is thus a skill learnt through doing. Participants were then asked to code the focus group transcript. This again was new to the participants, although Amy had previously done a psychology degree and was used to working with quantitative data, As she said:

> *"I've never done qualitative data, I've done quantitative data with doing*
> *my other degree, it was all SPSS and statistical stuff, so for me coming in never doing*
> *qualitative, it was extremely helpful because I was then going to approach this*
> *project doing one methodology that I've never done before."*
>
> <div align="right">Source: Amy</div>

An important lesson that I was trying to convey to participants was the length of time that the whole process took, especially the transcribing of data. I was honest and told them that I had asked my partner to transcribe the focus group data – and that it had taken 6 times longer to type than the actual duration of the discussion. And this was for someone who was reasonably adept at listening and typing. Some participants appeared to have grasped this. Hans (Phase 4) agreed that the session had 'definitely helped' his interview skills, whilst Amy (Phase 4) remarked:

> *"I've gone on to do interviewing as well and I've never done interviewing before; so*
> *before that piece of information I would have thought, "Oh, it'll only take a couple of*
> *minutes – it'll not take long!" and then actually when you said how long it takes I*
> *think that helped in a way; I knew I needed to prepare that amount of time just for*
> *transcribing, so I needed to know that I was ahead in terms of doing the work and*
> *stuff, so I knew I had that much time for transcribing. So, yeah, it was helpful."*
>
> <div align="right">Source: Amy</div>

4.6.2.8 *Some participants expressed guilty feelings about 'showing-off' in the focus group*

Two of the 4 participants who took part in Phase 4 commented that they felt guilty at discussing their progress in front of others during the focus group. Both students appeared to be committed to their work, as evidenced by their attendance at all of the module workshops and their contribution whilst there. Thus Costas (phase 4) commented:

> *"I am at a decent level and I see that they are threatened as much as I do. That was helpful and a morale boost, yeah, it's a really bad thing to say but it was a morale boost."*

> Source*: Costas*

So, Costas sounded ambivalent about speaking up. It was not that he was revelling in the misfortunes of others when he found that they were having at least equal, if not more difficulties; rather, it appeared to be a mix of feeling the pain of his fellow participants combined with the relief he felt upon realising that he was at a 'decent level' when compared with them. He was thus *empathising* with them (Cooper, 2010).

Amy (Phase 4) admitted to some surprise that other participants were picturing themselves in dire situations, as she felt she was doing reasonably well:

> *" People were making comments that it had taken over their lives and stuff and a lot of the pictures were of digging a hole or being stuck in a hole, nor knowing where to get out and part of it is a bit dramatic to think that you're that kind of struggling with it I suppose."*

> Source: *Amy*

As she began to realise their predicament she started to empathise with them and then to feel uncomfortable. It was a hard lesson:

> *" I couldn't understand how people were that worried about it I suppose, because from a point of view for me I was quite content, I kind of knew what I was doing, and then somebody who is on the same educational level as me is in a completely different boat and is really, really struggling – I found that quite hard actually."*

At one point after the focus group she had been talking to other students and this feeling of being uncomfortable started to feel 'bad' to her, as she reflected upon her responses to questions about her progress:

> "*I think one of the questions was "How far are you up to" and I think I mentioned "Oh, yeah I'm quite far ahead, I've done my Lit. Review, I know what I'm doing." And then you get the people that draw pictures about being stuck in the sand and I felt a little like.... I felt almost bad that I'd done well, that I was a bit further ahead… Yeah it was like I was rubbing it in their face, but that wasn't the case at all.*"

Source*: Amy*

So, as well as the feelings of empathy that both Costas and Amy were experiencing for those who they perceived to worse off than themselves, there was the underlying norm of balancing self-praise with the fear of bragging. As Speer (2012, p.52) pointedly states: "praising oneself is an interactionally delicate matter that may leave one vulnerable to unfavourable character assessment". To put it in more prosaic terms: "no-one likes a show-off!". Citing Pomerantz (1978) she says that 'constraints against self-praise are enforced by the self' (p.56). Social norms are influenced by cultural characteristics. It is pertinent to note that Amy (British) was from a nation which Hofstede (1980, 2018) regarded as very 'individualistic' and therefore more likely to discuss self than more collectivist nations, such as China; yet even here, Amy and Costas (Greece has an intermediate individualism Hofstede (2018) score) were experiencing some feelings of being uncomfortable in discussing their progress, especially when those around them were struggling.

4.6.2.9 *There was some follow-on from participants after the focus group*

It was interesting to note that the effects of the focus group continued to ripple for some time. Amy (Phase 4) recalled a particular instance of this:

> "*Afterwards we were discussing it in one of our breaks. We were all just in the Learning centre in the little Library down the bottom and just in our social time a few people were saying, "Oh, are you that far ahead? How have you managed that?" And like I said, "I just did it. I've just done the work, there's no secret behind it.*"

Source*: Amy*

This comment provides further insight. It shows that the focus group had been effective in getting participants to think more deeply about their project work. It also shows that people were comparing their progress with others. In this case some were feeling left behind and asking what 'the secret' was; the reply that she'd 'just done the work' might be viewed as a peer-to-peer suggestion to simply put the work in! Coming from a peer who was experiencing the same pressures this might be more effective than from a tutor. Rachel (British) offered support to another (international) participant X, while recognising that she still had a supportive social network. As she said:

> *"I know there were certain people that were struggling had a strong social circle and they also had Supervisor support…I certainly talked to X about it because she was having difficulty getting into an organisation, just in general, cos she doesn't have any work experience and she was asking all of us how we'd got into ours and we were all approaching current or past employers"*

Source: *Rachel*

4.6.2.10 *Focus group helped me to reduce my own uncertainty of knowing my students and thus acted as a proactive coping mechanism for stress*

Like many teachers I know, I am a conscientious person. That can be good up to a point, but it is easy to become anxious over students' progress. As discussed, teaching can be very demanding in today's modern universities. However, stress is not really about the difficulties we face, but rather our belief that we can handle the situation. In psychological terms, can we 'cope'? I like to plan ahead, so the more I know about my students, the better. In this research study the focus group, in particular, was well timed (at the beginning, when I could still react to problems!) It meant I felt more in control of the situation, which in turn meant less stress for me as the teacher.

Focus group helped me as teacher to get to know students' concerns

The focus group exercise was an effective means of getting students to open up to each other and myself. The '3 words exercise' was a quick way to break the ice; the drawings were a 'fun exercise' for participants and myself. Up until that point the group had been fairly quiet. The focus group provided the opportunity for everyone to voice their initial thoughts and feelings in a non-threatening way. Unpredictable, from a teaching viewpoint, leading the group felt slightly 'edgy' and invigorating.

4.6.3 Phase 3 (Critical Incident Interviews): Initial Findings

These relate to (4.6.3.1) feedback from students on the preparation I gave prior to them doing their critical incident interviews, and (4.6.3.2) findings derived from the results of students' critical incident 1-1 interviews, as follows:

4.6.3.1 *Preparation: Teacher-Led Tutorial on Critical Incidents*

Three key points emerge from consideration of the feedback given to me from students who attended my preparatory critical incident tutorial, held prior to them doing their own critical incident 1- 1 interviews: scaffolding where necessary; the importance of creating an emotionally safe space for learning; and teacher honesty, vulnerability and calculated risk in modelling my own critical incident.

Scaffolding where necessary

Firstly, that the concept of critical incidents as described by Flanagan (1954) and Tripp (1993) was unfamiliar to all seven of them. I did not expect this, as the concept is often covered in undergraduate business programmes and in modules relating to personal development. Thus my assumption that they had previously done such a course/ module and (if so) retained their knowledge of critical incidents was erroneous. This demonstrates the need for teachers to check whether or not their students have the prerequisite knowledge and skills before embarking on a task.

After listening to my presentation, in which I outlined critical incident definitions and then went on to illuminate with my own critical incident, they readily agreed that they could appreciate the idea – and indeed could relate to critical incidents that they had experienced themselves in the past. They also appreciated how I modelled the manner in which they should carry out their 1-1 interviews. Their response highlights the importance of scaffolding (Wood, Bruner and Ross, 1976) for students who are at the stage (Grow, 1991; Hersey and Blanchard, 1996) of needing informational guidance and encouragement before actually engaging with the task themselves. By providing them with my personal example I was allowing them to learn *vicariously* and by *encouraging* them verbally I was building up their feeling of *self-efficacy* (Bandura, 1997). By doing the task themselves they would build up their *Mastery* (Bandura, 1997) of interviewing others regarding critical incidents.

The importance of creating an emotionally safe space for learning

The critical incidents workshop of Phase 3 was specifically set up in a pleasant, quiet classroom which was often reserved for staff meetings. This physically relaxing environment was coupled with my efforts to create an emotionally safe space (Damasio, 1996) which was non-judgemental (Gardner, 2014, p.23) so as to encourage an open, trusting relationship between teacher and students (Benson et. al 2005, p.237) in line with the conceptual framework for the Guide Process. The feedback from my students – very open - implies that my strategy of being open and honest myself about my own critical incident (see following heading) was a key factor.

Teacher Honesty, vulnerability and calculated risk in modelling own critical incident

The comments given by students earlier (p. 206) on my honesty in explaining my critical incident, demonstrates the impact that teacher honesty can play in helping to create the emotional safe space for students' learning. To accomplish this I had not only outlined the story of my critical incident but my associated *feelings* at the time, and what I perceived as my personal strengths and weaknesses. Students could thus see that I could *empathise* (Cooper, 2011), and this was effective at building *rapport* (Smith, 2011) with them.

However, a cautionary note should be sounded for teachers considering reforming their own practice: by definition, being open may predispose one to being *vulnerable* (Gardner, 2014, p.23) to attack from others in the form of active or passive aggression and it is likely to be an emotional experience. not least because many teachers associate their teaching lives strongly with their own identity (Reio, 2005). Therefore, there is always an associated level of risk with this strategy. For instance, whilst my UK students' first reactions were how would they react if they were in my position, a Greek student commented that my honesty came as an initial surprise, although he was able to subsequently accommodate it. On the other hand, other overseas students who were used to a mindset of the teacher 'always being right' may have found this disconcerting. Once again, the level of calculated risk a teacher is prepared to take is likely to be subject to Reio's (2005) 'background variables' of age, career stage, and generation; these variables also imply past experience. The extent to which taking risks is culturally and personally acceptable, as mentioned in the example above, must also be considered.

4.6.3.2 *Participants' Critical Incidents (1-1 Interviews)*

The key point to note, is that through the critical incidents activity, students were achieving the first and final goals advocated by Hesse-Biber (2015) for the successful development of students engaging with research, as quoted below:

> *The first goal is to make the learning of research visible through engaging students in a series of learning exercises across the research process. The second goal is to have students conduct their own research. The final goal is to have students critically reflect on their own research praxis.*

(Hesse-Biber, 2015, p.464)

Thus, the Phase 3, critical incident interview relates to Hesse-Biber's 'learning exercise', engaging students in the research method itself. Their reflection on their research praxis was the subject of their critical incidents, and thus covered the final goal of Hesse-Biber's (2015) advice.

It is crucial to note that by reflecting upon their critical incidents, students were once again using their 'lived experiences' (Barnacle, 2004). For, as Heidegger (1962, cited in Wrathall, 2005, p.43) points out 'understanding is not…an essentially cognitive act, rather it is to be gained via experience'.

The following themes, identified previously in the Phase 3 (critical incident interviews) show how this was achieved and the findings that may be drawn from them.

Themes

As shown in the results of Phase 3, Findings covered a range of six themes (See Fig.4.7, p.211), as follows:

- Usefulness of critical incidents technique (as perceived by participants)
- The Nature of the critical incident (being discussed at the interview)
- Pairing Dynamics
- Helpfulness of supervisors
- Opening up – feelings
- Opening up – skills

Usefulness of critical incidents technique

All participants agreed that the critical incident exercise was useful in a number of ways. It modelled the use of techniques of preparing for an interview, asking questions as an interviewer, answering them as an interviewee and of using video equipment to record and analyse the data. Specific knowledge of critical incidents was of immediate benefit to one participant and considered to be useful for future use by another.

The Nature of the critical incident

In terms of their nature, participants came to appreciate that critical incidents could be a 'Eureka!' moment or could be more slow-burning; also that the *critical* aspect of it was not the actual event per se but the importance which they attached to it in terms of its influence upon their learning and future actions (Tripp, 1993).

Pairing Dynamics

What emerged from the Phase 3 results was that the student self-selection of partners was effective. This is consistent with the concept of creating an emotionally safe place (Damasio, 1996) from which to probe the critical incident of the other and the willingness to offer suggestions for improvement. The fact that one pairing (Amy/ Rachel) had students who were at opposite ends of the quantitative/ qualitative research spectrum did not hinder them at all – if anything it enabled them so see the other's perspective and to consider using instances when they would use a different approach. The fact that self-selected pairings were classroom friends was something, as stated by one group, that facilitated a willingness to disclose to the other (Smith, 2011. P.237) and quickly move to deeper questioning of the other; they also showed a willingness to offer, without prompting, suggestions to the other of how to tackle specific problems. In other words they were able to act successfully as 'critical friends' (Storey and Wang, 2017). Self-selecting groups would thus seem to be effective with individuals who are willing to engage with the process.

Helpfulness of supervisors

Without doubt, supervisors were shown to play a key role in advising and motivating students. The results of Phase 3 show powerful instances of interactions which helped students through advice or suggestions to consider other options. As such, supervisors were acting to push students in their *zone of proximal development* (Vygotsky, 1978).

Participants Opening up to each other

Participants opened up in two ways: in terms of discussing their skill-sets; and in terms of their feelings and emotions. The two aspects often overlapped. They formed the *majority* of comments identified from the participants' interviews (See Fig.4.7, p.211). Thus out of sixty four coded quotations, twenty were concerned with 'opening up' with an emphasis upon their feelings and thirteen with 'opening up' which was more skills related. A whole gamut of feelings and emotions were observed, as shown in the Phase 3 results under the sub-headings of: Anxiety and Confusion; Anxiety followed by Excitement; Panic followed by Elation: Growing Confidence; and Empathy and Concern.

The emotions of anxiety, confusion and panic reinforce the results found from the earlier Phase 2 drawings and 3 Words guided activities. However, there is further insight into the *positive* emotions being experienced by the participants. For one particular student, the critical incident technique itself was something which she had been extremely keen to use in her own research: for her the session made her feel much more confident - 'loads better'- in her words.

Also, the sequence of positive emotions following negative ones as exemplified by 'Anxiety followed by Excitement' and 'Panic followed by Elation' demonstrates the emotional peaks and troughs of students' dissertation journeys: they had been tested but emerged triumphant from their ordeal. The underlying feeling of their comments was one of accomplishment, if not a certain joy; this may be regarded as a highly desirable outcome, as enjoyment is positively associated with mastery goals (Pekrun, Elliot and Maier, 2009).

What is more, by sharing their successes, they further encouraged each other by learning vicariously and giving verbal encouragement to each other (Bandura, 1985). The act of re-telling their stories to each other was itself a 'lived experience' (Barnacle, 2004) shared between them in which both story-teller and listener could better come to understand (Pereira and Doecke, 2016). As Witherell and Noddings (1991) state:

> *We learn from stories. More important, we come to understand – ourselves, others and even the subjects we teach and learn.*

> (Witherell and Noddings, 1991, p.279)

4.6.4 Phase 4 Initial Findings (Interview: Participants' experiences of using video)

It should be noted that the results of my final interviews with students related to feedback from the previous three phases. Accordingly, they have been incorporated (and noted as such in the text) into the results of the phase to which they were relevant. However, I asked for specific feedback on the use of video in the critical incident 1-1 interviews which they did in pairs/ as a group of three.

The findings of this may be summarised succinctly: although they all acknowledged to feeling uncomfortable at hearing and seeing themselves on video as noted by Sherin and Han (2002, quoted in Borko et al, 2008, p.420) and LeBaron et al. (2017, p.22) this was not a major issue for them. Indeed, they said they had benefited from watching their partner's video. My decision to allow them to use their own video means was accepted by all (iphone and ipads were used) and may have contributed towards lessening any apprehension about the use of video, as they retained direct control of the recordings.

It is likely that the use of video may have been too personally intrusive for some students, particularly those from cultures where it is less acceptable for individuals to show their feelings openly (Gobo, 2011). Alternatively feelings of perceived inadequacy in articulation for non-English speaking students may also have been a factor for some students (Kraus and Sultana, 2008, p.74). However, as I had promised students who dropped out of the intervention that they could do so without question, these possibilities can not be verified here.

4.7 FURTHER FINDINGS

These further findings address the implications of the initial findings for teacher – student relationships within the present national teaching context.

4.7.1 The Importance of the Teacher's Quest to Know their Students

The findings of Phase 2 revealed a host of academically-related worries and concerns of my students. The bigger implication, however, is that through spending time with them on the guided activities I was better able to know them. As Reeve and Jang (2006, p.216) state, 'The nurturing and building of students' motivational resources requires time spent listening, time for student talking, and communicating perspective-taking statements'. The time that I spent with my students during the guided activities not only benefited them directly by allowing them to share their concerns but had profound related psychological benefits for me, as their teacher: it meant I could improve my own feelings of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) in being able to teach them more effectively. As previously stated, pastoral care requires the teacher to know inside the minds of their students (Foucault, 1982, p.783). Thus, during my time spent with them, I found it extremely reassuring and useful to know of the concerns and learning needs of participants doing their research projects (Winlow et al., 2013, p.294). Through knowing I could engage in an on-going teaching response in future workshops.

4.7.1.1 *Pastoral Care*

However, the subsequent implication of this ability to know may be even more revealing. To fully appreciate the importance of this it is necessary to refer again to 'Pastoral Care. This is not an abstract concept, somehow designed into the role of the teacher. For many teachers it is a core element of their professional identity (Ibarra, 1999). Quite simply, many teachers care deeply about their students' wellbeing (Cooper, 2011; Mariskind, 2014). Kinman and Jones (2008) speculate that some teachers expend high effort and high over-commitment due to the demanding nature of the job, whilst for others it may be part of their psychological makeup. The suggestion here is that it could be a combination of both in any one individual. Indeed, it may be argued that this desire to help may compound with other organisational stressors and lead to stress in teachers due to over commitment (Kinman and Jones, 2008)

especially if they feel they have low levels of control over events   (Mark and Smith, 2012, p.65).

4.7.1.2 *Coping Mechanism for Teachers' Stress?*

To alleviate feelings of powerlessness – and hence attempt to reduce their feelings of stress-teachers may begin to use various strategies that on the surface are for the sole benefit of students but underneath are also serving as *coping* mechanisms (Ben-Zur, 2009; Sneyers, Jacobs and Struyf, 2016) for their own stress levels. They cite Verešová and Malá (2012), stating that proactive coping is one of the most effective ways to reduce stress for teachers and that one way of achieving this is through systematic problem-solving. Recognising the stressful environment of neoliberal managerialism in many modern universities Van Lankveld et al. (2017) state that some university teachers cope through 'creating supportive practices for themselves'. The suggestion is that the use of focus groups, as discussed here, may be used for this purpose by drawing out students' issues – thus allowing the teacher the opportunity to feel more in control of the situation. Indeed, it could be argued that the whole of the 'University Teacher as Guide' series of activities, as examined in this report, may also contribute towards this requirement. Teaching in today's universities can be stressful, due to the many demands placed upon the teacher and stress-related illnesses account for the majority of staff absences in Higher Education. As Nimmo (2018) points out, professionalism should be about being teacher-centred as well as student-centred. She would appear to capture the feelings of many academics in a personal blog post in the Higher Education Academy, writing:

> *When we consider the 'fractured educational landscape' in which we as university teachers are placed – the high levels of stress and burnout, a culture of managerialism, and the massification of HE – we might expect a new form of professionalism which foregrounds the sustainability not just of a stable society but also of us, the individual professional teachers.*

(Nimmo, 2018)

4.7.1.3 *Time as the Limiting Factor in Getting to Know Students*

The issue of encouraging teachers in getting to know students better, is a two-edged sword for educational institutions: on the one hand, it involves devoting more time and effort; and on the other hand, promoting better interaction, as well as being more able to respond in a

timely fashion to unforeseen issues, is likely to result in a more effective teaching, learning and pastoral care environment. Indeed, in the recent Higher Education Academy report 'Rising to the challenges of tomorrow' (Marshall, 2017) teaching excellence is now being pushed to the fore; what is now required, it states, is excellence in 'the core component … the construction of the programme…and the flexibility and effectiveness of its delivery' coupled with 'interactive lecturing' which has 'students as partners' who are 'involved in their own teaching' (Marshall, 2017, p.7) . This is precisely the approach being taken within this doctoral work, 'The University Teacher as Guide'.

However, the factors of Nimmo's (2018) 'fractured educational landscape' must be confronted by HE senior management: the model of massification does not lend itself to the closer teacher-student relationship recommended by the recent (2017) HEA report. Once again, the cost/ benefit calculation must be made by teachers, team leaders, and senior managers. They need to be guided by their own professional values whilst still striving to accommodate organisational targets.

4.7.2   Resource implications of adopting the 'Guide Process' in the HE Curriculum

4.7.2.1   *Teacher time and classroom allocation*

The research in this study was carried out on twenty students and was partially additional to the allocated module delivery time. The case has already been made earlier in this thesis that, as one of the most demanding for Master's students, the dissertation module deserves special support. If the 'Guide Process' as used in my research is used in the same mode to supplement current teaching, there are additional resource implications in terms of teacher time and room allocation. Although it involves no extra assessment, it does mean additional preparation time by the Teacher and time taken between sessions to collect the data from participants and collate it into a usable format (e.g. entering into a spreadsheet, creating charts, transcribing focus group discussions, providing a platform for drawings and video retrieval) ready for follow-on sessions where students can further analyse their selves-generated data.

The findings and analysis of Phase 2 suggest that focus groups were a good place to start the sharing process with participants engaged with their research projects (Winlow et al., 2013, p.294) , build a community of practice (Wenger, McDermott and Snyder, 2002) and alleviate some of the associated stress. However, if they were to be adopted within the teaching and learning context there would be a number of implications associated with group size. Focus

groups work best for relatively small numbers of participants, ideally six to ten (Bryman, 2012, p.507). There were 13 participants in Phase 2, which was pushing the use of the technique in terms of a manageable size. Thus, for classes of students of 20 or more (quite common in workshops) there would need to be at least 2 focus groups. However, this has an immediate impact upon teaching resources, in particular the tutor's time. Focus groups could be established which ran in parallel but as one of the primary aims of conducting the focus group was to model their use by the tutor, this may lose some of the benefits – even if the tutor was to alternate between groups. An alternative option would be to double up on tutors for the focus group sessions, thereby using additional teaching resources.

Some of the teacher time can be accommodated within the teaching time allocated for research methods techniques; this applies for Phases 1 and 2. However, Phase 3 (the critical incident workshop and participant interviews) would probably require an additional full 3 hours workshop. Phase 4 (the final interview) was part of my research and could be useful for participants who wished to discuss critical incidents to use within a learning log, if the module had such a component. Half an hour per student with the teacher/interviewer should be allowed for this, with the recording being made available to the student for their subsequent analysis; as this is a 1-1 interaction between teacher/interviewer and student, the time allocation required is dependent upon whether or not the 'Guide Process' is voluntary and the number of students who take up the option to be involved.

Finally, use of the 'Guide Process' would require the availability of competent, dedicated teachers who have the time and commitment to its teaching ethos. Any teaching innovation requires additional set-up costs at the beginning. The module leader would have to champion its use in team meetings and programme boards. Ideally this approach would suit a class size of 15 students at the most (e.g. for the dynamics of the focus group), so it is likely that a team of teachers would be involved in its delivery. The team would need to agree on the broad principles. The suggestion is that support materials would be created and shared within the team, with perhaps occasional use of guest speakers from other institutions.

4.7.2.2 *Teacher Training Implications: Proficiency in using drawing metaphors*

The results of Phase 2 had also shown that drawings were a powerful tool for using in class to explore participants' hidden thoughts and emotions, particularly through the use of metaphors (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980). If university teachers were to incorporate these into their teaching and learning repertoire they would need to become proficient in their use. Tutors would ideally learn how to use some of the fundamental theoretical aspects of metaphors; this would help them to interpret the thoughts and *emotions* emerging from their students' drawings, thus gaining further feedback for themselves as reflective practitioners (Schön, 1987). Individual teachers might take this development upon themselves as part of their annual scholarly activity. However, motivational theory suggests that there is always a cost/benefit equation to be met; thus a teacher may perform a mental evaluation of the likely reward of their learning effort to produce the teaching outcomes they value (Vroom, 1964). But it goes deeper than this: teachers need to be open to learning new theory for reflective teaching to happen, and the culture within the school needs to be supportive of this through its values and practices (Hascher and Hagenauer, 2016), as will be outlined next.

4.7.2.3 *Teacher Training Implications: Autonomy-Supportive Teaching and understanding emotions in self and others*

The Guide Process, as the name suggests, is an example of autonomy-supportive teaching (Hascher and Hagenauer , 2016) which is learner oriented with the teacher supporting the autonomy of the student. This may be elaborated on, as follows:

> *A teacher who supports autonomy in the classroom creates space for students to regulate their own learning, thus enhancing participation in the classroom and also supporting the meaningfulness of learning. Both aspects foster autonomous learning: learners are able to guide their own learning. They become aware of the relevance of the material they have been asked to learn, and this increasingly coincides with their own goals. Therefore, autonomy-supportive teaching behaviour can be regarded as a relevant teaching quality indicator that **should be acquired by future teachers in teacher education.** [my emphasis]*

> (Hascher and Hagenauer , 2016, p.18)

Trigwell (2012) supports this when he states that the way a teacher approaches teaching is related to approaches students adopt to learning. Teachers who adopt conceptual change/student-focused (CCSF) approaches to teaching are more likely to be teaching

students who self-report adopting more meaningful or deeper approaches to learning than teachers using information transfer/teacher-focused (ITTF) approaches.

A further link with my study, according to Hascher and Hagenauer (2016) is the role that emotions play in developing the openness of pre-service teachers to the theory of teaching in favour of a learner-oriented, as opposed to teacher-centred approach. For instance, citing Reeve and Jang (2006), they state:

> *Positive emotions are likely to induce autonomy-supportive teaching behaviour, which in turn fosters the teacher's role as a facilitator in the classroom and stimulates the development of students' intrinsic motivation*

<div align="right">(Hascher and Hagenauer , 2016, p.18)</div>

In their study Reeve and Jang (2006) found a number of qualities helped teachers build a positive relationship with students. The first of these was *attunement* which was their ability to sense their students' state of being, and adjusting their teaching accordingly. This has clear links to the concept of *empathy* (Cooper, 2011). Other qualities Reeve and Jang (p.216) found were *supportiveness* for students' self-direction and *relatedness*, a sense of closeness between student and teacher. All of these qualities were aspired to during my research intervention. As such they also belong to the autonomy-supportive teaching behaviour which Hascher and Hagenauer (2016) advocate in future teacher training.

4.7.3   Addressing underlying anxieties of Master's students

The implication of my findings across my research was that Master's students required additional support to develop their dissertation self-efficacy. This involved improving their cognitive knowledge and skills of criticality, awareness of self as researcher, and ability to deal with the complex, uncertain nature of research projects. The elephant in the room was the level of anxiety the Master's students in my research study all exhibited. This was despite the efforts of individual project supervisors, whose work was appreciated by the students. This thesis found that in a class of twenty post-graduate students engaging with their research projects, all of them exhibited feelings of uncertainty and anxiety that could be attributed to their academic work.

Providing an additional means of Tackling Student Anxieties

Thus, my intervention showed that my students all had concerns and anxieties in connection with their dissertations/research projects at a post '92 university; further, that by providing a voice to students' expression of emotions – something which the data clearly shows – relationship-oriented approaches to teaching and learning, such as this intervention, offer an additional means of addressing students' emotional concerns. The issue of student anxiety is something that my literature review has shown to be widespread across universities and different courses. Thus, my findings are likely to have relevance to the HE sector in general and the discipline of business and management in particular. Additionally, and on a more pragmatic note, it strikes a chord with the present increase in awareness that universities need to keep on developing their well-being procedures and policies for students and staff.

4.8 SUMMARY OF RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Results across four phases of research exploring the 'Guide Process' as a joint becoming of teacher as guide and students as aspirant researchers, have yielded a richness of data from which a set of initial findings have been drawn. The initial phase (self-efficacy questionnaire) served as a useful means of preparing the mind-sets of student participants to start thinking more deeply about their research skills abilities (Bandura, 1997).

However, the second phase (the 3 words exercise and the drawings) was where students demonstrated just how deeply emotional their *dissertation* journeys (Meyer and Land, 2003) were. The outstanding finding was the sheer intensity and depth evoked by the drawings activity; this was exceptional, and unexpected. Designed as a guided activity which would help students to share with others some of the thoughts and feelings they were experiencing as they engaged with the dissertation process, this went far beyond initial expectations. It was a comparatively short activity, regarded by some as play and thus building social resources (Gervais and Wilson, 2005), conducted over half an hour in total. It successfully demonstrated the research method of the focus group (through which participants fed back their verbal comments about their words and drawings) but the real significance lay in the emotions elicited in the drawings (Ahern and Manathunga, 2004; Hunt, 2001). The majority of these were metaphorical (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003) musings. They portrayed students engaged on uncertain, dangerous journeys, in some cases dangling over precipices, climbing mountains, or being threatened by hungry sharks. For a few fortunates there was the lure of positive feelings of accomplishment on attaining distant peaks. Other students looked inside themselves (an ontological space), with one memorable image depicting a person split into two halves, one positive and hopeful, the other fearful. This sharing of experiences in itself may be regarded as therapeutic (Fook and Gardner, 2007) and thus of reducing negative emotions which have been associated with performance avoidance goals (Pekrun, Elliot and Maier, 2009).

The critical incident interviews (Flanagan, 1954; Tripp, 1993) in small student groups (Phase 3) delivered more depth of discussion but with fewer, but still a significant number of, volunteers. And it took a lot longer – three class hours in total. Once again this was extremely effective in allowing participants to express their feelings and emotions about their dissertations journeys. However, it went further, in that participants often offered each other advice about how to deal with particular issues that the other had raised. Additionally, there

was more evidence of the presence of positive emotions, which is associated with higher levels of self-regulation (Pekrun, Elliot and Maier, 2009) and improved cognition (Loon and Bell, 2018).

However, what the Phase 4 interviews with participants revealed was that for students to open up in the ways which they did, trust had to be established with me as their teacher/ guide. They had to feel they were in an emotionally safe space (Damasio, 1996). They appreciated me as their teacher revealing my own feelings and emotions, including a detailed account of my own critical incident. I also revealed other aspects of myself through telling them something of myself via 'My Story' (see **Portfolio Appendix 8.3, page 319**). To do this I had to be confident enough to take a risk in being deliberately vulnerable (Gardner, 2014), so that I could gain rapport (Smith, 2011) and empathy (Cooper, 2011) with them in their situation. This all took time spent with them – a factor which cannot be overemphasised. The richness of data from students, in terms of their emotional outpouring, strongly suggests that my positioning strategy of being vulnerable, was effective.

The further findings of my study are more strategic in nature, and more by way of implication for the field of higher education. They can be encapsulated in a few words which are simple in essence but fraught with difficulties of mind-set in practice: given that my previous results and findings clearly demonstrate the significant cognitive and emotional difficulties that students face in their dissertations, and given that more time and effort spent with students by teachers in forging trusting, effective relationships with students is required, there are two hurdles to be overcome: the first is for teachers to be given sufficient time to developing guiding partnerships with their students, thereby fulfilling the plaintive call of the Higher Education Academy report 'Rising to the challenges of tomorrow' (Marshall, 2017) for 'interactive lecturing' and 'students as partners' . The second is the teaching – and practice - of emotions within higher education. As stated earlier, there has been scant research on the role of emotions within Higher Education (Zhang and Zhu, 2008; Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne, 2011; Trigwell, 2012; Quinlan, 2016). One area for further research studies within the Higher Education context is the autonomy-supportive teaching behaviour (of which this thesis is an example) which Hascher and Hagenauer (2016) advocate for future teacher training of secondary school teachers; thus it is not that existing educational theory does not exist at school level, it is more one of researchers – and teachers - taking an interest in the role of emotions within Higher Education, and a greater focus upon the teacher-student relationships, which help to forge the essential life-changes of both students and teachers.

Chapter 5:

Conclusions

5 CONCLUSIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The 'Summary of Results and Findings' (p.262) has given a succinct overview of the thesis research on the 'Guide Process' as a joint becoming of teacher as guide and students as aspirant researchers.

What stands out from my study is the richness of emotional feedback from my student participants, demonstrating the effectiveness of the guided activities to elicit and articulate their deep inner thoughts and feelings related to their dissertation journeys, whilst simultaneously acting as the means for developing their understanding of research methods. The sharing of biographical data by both students and teacher was an intrinsic enabler in my research process. The use of metaphorical imagery employed by students to explore their dissertation journeys was instinctive and powerful, cutting across language barriers in my multinational group. Results show a sharing of both affective and cognitive experiences, reflecting in and on action during the guided activities, of students with each other and myself as teacher/ guide. As a case study, this research provides an insight into the inner thoughts and emotions of both students and teacher in their inter-related journeys of learning during their time spent in being together. Issues of trust, and feelings of vulnerability on the part of both students and teacher emerge as key factors. Finally, by dint of researching, spending time with students on the guided activities, as a teacher I have re-examined my methods and values and believe I have become, a more aware, if not a better teacher and guide.

Chapter Layout

The chapter is set out as follows:

5.2 Achievement of Thesis Aims and Objectives

5.3 Thesis Conclusions

5.4 Reflections on my becoming as a Guide

5.4 Contribution to my Community of Practice

5.5 Dissemination of Work in Professional Practice

5.6 Closing Statement

5.2 ACHIEVEMENT OF THESIS AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

By designing and carrying out the research intervention of the 'Guide Process' and through careful analysis of the case study as discussed above, this thesis has explored, through the lens of the author's own becoming as a guide, how university teachers might build appropriately supportive teaching relationships with students as they face the cognitive and affective challenges of completing their dissertations and aspire to become researchers. Additionally, it has explored how a teaching and learning approach that incorporates students' autobiographical data and reflections can facilitate this becoming.

The achievement of both of the two aims of the thesis are evidenced in the findings and the previous set of conclusions.

My research has also achieved its objectives, as follows:

Objective 1) *Establish the context in which the research took place, as seen through a reflection upon the author's career path and key events in his becoming as a university teacher.*

The context in which the research took place has been clearly identified within the introductory chapter and in the Professional Portfolio which includes my career path and 'My Story'

Objective 2) *Through analysis of the literature:*

a. *Establish the nature of the cognitive and affective challenges faced by students in completing their dissertations, including the use of metaphor to assist identification and analysis of such issues.*

The Literature review has spent considerable time and effort in discussing the relevant literature on the 'learning journey' which students undertake in their dissertations. It has devoted sections on how to embrace both cognitive and affective challenges, considered the concept of liminality and thresholds of new learning, self efficacy, stress and the role of emotions.

b. *Propose a conceptual framework of being and becoming relevant to university teachers and students in the context of dissertations, with particular emphasis upon the role of teacher/ student relationships.*

I have developed 'The Conceptual Framework for the Guide Process' in a separate section (Ch 2.5) after appropriate consideration of, and with reference to, the relevant literature. This framework is relationship-oriented between the Teacher as Guide and Students as Aspirant Researchers and considers their being and becoming in these metaphorical roles.

c.   Explore how a teaching and learning approach that incorporates students' autobiographical data and reflections can facilitate their learning.

A defining feature of the conceptual framework, as outlined above, is that students and teacher engage jointly on a series of phased guided activities which utilise students' and teacher's experiences and autobiographical data.

Objective 3)   *Design a phased teaching and learning intervention ('The Guide Process') to consolidate students' learning of research methods and to identify, share and address cognitive and affective problems that they are encountering during their dissertation journeys. This to be achieved via a teaching and learning process which includes using autobiographical data and reflections.*

Details of the design of the 'Guide Process' teaching and learning intervention have been clearly laid out within the thesis. Using the Conceptual Framework (Objective 2) as its template – and therefore incorporating the use of autobiographical data and reflections - a series of four sequential sets of 'guided activities' were devised. Referred to as 'Phases 1 – 4' these were initially introduced in the first chapter and then described fully in the methodology.

Objective 4)   *Collect and analyse data from all phases of 'The Guide Process' intervention as delivered by the 'Teacher as Guide' to a group of 'Students as Aspirant Researchers' in terms of the learning experiences of both parties. To include Phased Guided Activities of: 'Questionnaire', 'Drawings', 'Focus Group', 'Critical Incidents' recorded on video, and 'Interviews'. Areas of analysis to include the extent of, and ways through which, the 'Guide Process' allowed students to explore, express and share their thoughts, feelings and emotions about their research journeys and themselves as aspirant researchers.*

The above data collection and analysis has been carried out in Chapter 4: Results and Findings. This is a comprehensive account which is split by phase into results, initial findings, and further findings.

***Objective 5**) Summarise, through the lens of the author's own becoming as a guide, and as informed by this research, how university teachers might build appropriately supportive teaching relationships with students as they face the cognitive and affective challenges of completing their dissertations and aspire to become researchers, and the role of students' and teachers' autobiographical data and reflections in facilitating this becoming.*

This summary has been achieved through the discussion outlined within this Conclusions chapter. It has provided the author's considered judgement of his efforts to build a supportive teaching relationship with a particular group of students, using a particular teaching and learning intervention. As a case study, it does not generalise but raises key issues for other teachers to consider for themselves in their own desire to create supportive teaching relationships. The issues of *becoming* for teacher as guide and students as aspirant researchers are central to the intervention and thus raise awareness of how this may be achieved by fellow practitioners. Likewise, the use of autobiographical data and its usefulness in facilitating this becoming have been appropriately covered in this chapter.

5.3 THESIS CONCLUSIONS

There are a number of linked conclusions to be drawn from my thesis:

a) **Students' dissertation journeys are often challenging in both cognitive and affective ways**

Firstly, the research findings have established through a richness of narrative, metaphor and visual data that my Master's students/ research participants were experiencing, and at times struggling with, significant cognitive and affective difficulties during their dissertations. This is consistent with other studies in the literature.

b) **Teacher guided activities, which focus upon students' biographical experiences in relation to their dissertations, can provide personally meaningful platforms from which students may deepen their understanding of research methods.**

Thus, from a cognitive viewpoint, applying self- lived experiences to research methods provides an accessible means of learning for students, giving them the opportunity to practice their skills in research methods.

c) **Significant emotional issues relating to students' dissertation experiences may emerge from such teacher-guided activities, due to their biographical nature; these provide the basis for exploration of students' dissertation issues and related feelings in a therapeutic manner, under the guidance of the teacher.**

Thus, in addition to their abilities to understand and use research methods, are the benefits which students may accrue in broader educational / personal development terms; by reflecting upon their deeper thoughts and emotions there is potential for students developing values and identity as possible aspirant researchers who can identify / cope with the pressures of being independent thinkers. In the light of what is now being reported about the parlous state in many universities of students' mental health there is the added benefit of addressing student anxieties which might otherwise add to their stress burden.

d) **The overlapping of students' and teachers' journeys of *becoming* promoted their deeper ontological reflection and self development**

The intervention impacted both my students and myself as teacher, as we were both invested in it. As such there was an overlapping of the ontological journeys of both students and teacher as they become aspirant researchers and guide respectively. The findings from my small-scale, in depth research, show clear evidence of deep reflection of both myself as Guide and my students as researchers during and after the Guide Process teaching and learning intervention. They provide specific, powerful examples of how our shared experiences led us to question ourselves in our respective roles. For a brief few months our individual journeys of 'becoming' overlapped. We became aware of some of the thoughts, feelings and experiences of the other. We connected on a much more meaningful level than from a purely subject-based approach for teaching concerning dissertations. And we experienced a significant joint learning experience in ways which enhanced our affective ability to share, and perhaps cope with, some of our fears, doubts, excitement, exasperation and determination to succeed.

e) **The use of 'guided activities' and, in particular the combining of narrative, drawings and metaphor, have exciting potential for a wide application to other student journeys of becoming in situations where students are experiencing or contemplating particularly significant changes in their lives. Due to their flexibility and user-friendliness, as demonstrated by this thesis, these guided activities may be considered for any level of study.**

In many ways this is the most wide-reaching of all my conclusions. There is scope for immediate application of such guided activities within the classroom and for ongoing action research to be conducted alongside it. I can illustrate this by a brief description of two specific teaching and learning scenarios with which I am presently involved in my roles as skills and employability textbook writer and dissertation supervisor: the journey of first year students at university in their transition from home to university life; and the transitional journey of part-time students undertaking their undergraduate degree prior to retiring from their present career and taking up a new one (e.g. Police, Army).

By way of further justification, there is a growing body of research showing that first year students at university need to cope with a range of issues as they attempt to make the transition from school or work to university life. Thus they may suffer from home sickness, have to assimilate new academic conventions, new social situations and other cultures (Devis-Rozental, Eccles and Mayer, 2017, p.6). Indeed, this time of transformation may be regarded as one of identity development, one in which the individual *becomes* a student (Beard, Humberstone and Clayton, 2014, p.632).

f) **The literature shows there is scant research on the influence of affect and emotions in teaching and learning in Higher Education. Furthermore, preliminary investigations by the author indicate this may be reflected by a similar lack of emphasis in Higher Education on exploring emotional strategies in pre-service teaching programmes and ongoing staff development.**

In the section that follows, 'Reflections on my becoming as a guide', it is clear that the author, a teaching and learning champion within his business school, had to invest considerable time and effort in self-development of knowledge, skills and behaviours concerning teacher-student relationships, the importance of emotions in learning, and teaching and learning strategies which could be used to benefit students. It is likely that other teachers in higher education would need to undergo a similar phase of self-development to successfully implement autonomy-supportive teaching as exemplified by the thesis teaching and learning intervention. The implications of this are that suitable emphases be placed upon how to develop teacher-student relationships and the use of emotions within teacher training/ development in Higher Education.

5.4 REFLECTIONS ON MY BECOMING AS A GUIDE

Through doing this research – and adopting a *becoming* mindset – I have changed in my role of 'Teacher as Guide', as I shall presently explain. I shall firstly put forward my view that becoming is an ongoing process that is applicable at any stage of one's life. Then I shall show how doing my research with my research participants has contributed towards my own becoming as a guide.

My Professional Portfolio shows a timeline (page 319) and 'My Story' which indicates I was already a veteran university teacher when I began my research. And yet I feel that because I have learned, so can other teachers – if they so wish. Of course teacher-training provides an excellent opportunity for pre-service teachers to learn about different modes of teaching but I would argue that teachers of any age should always be looking for new ways of being with their students. Intertwined with the relational and cognitive aspects of teaching is the emotional side of teaching; it has been shown to significantly impact upon learning, so it makes absolute sense for teachers in higher education to become more emotionally aware (Taylor, 2017) if they wish to develop their teacher identities. And, as far as vulnerability goes, I felt more able to take risks with my 'Guide Process' intervention than I might have done earlier in my teaching career; I had built up my *presage* (Biggs, Kember and Leung, 2001) over the years so that when I entered the classroom I had proven repertoire of teaching experience to bring to bear, if need be. Moreover, I enjoyed the frisson (teachers have emotions too) of learning *with* my students, as I had sufficient confidence (Bandura, 1997) in my abilities to extract some form of learning from the situation, even if things did not go entirely to plan. So, the moral of this aside is, I believe, that learning to 'become' better teachers is for every teacher, regardless of their time in university – and that there may even be some advantages in being a veteran.

Of course, as a veteran university teacher I have seen the huge changes which have happened in higher education over the years – particularly the 'massification' which Nimmo (2018) refers to. I am thus well aware of the pressures faced by teachers in teaching large numbers of students. One of the biggest impacts this has had, is upon the relationship between teacher and students. And yet, the inescapable truth is that effective relationships are the essence of good teaching (Dewey, 1916; Vygotsky, 1978). Thus, when I was writing in this thesis about the 'Teacher's Quest to Know their Students' (see page 255) I was perhaps articulating not only my own desire but that of many university teachers who feel that they are becoming

alienated from their students due to time pressures and sheer student numbers. However, I believe my research has helped me to build supportive relationships and become a better guide, as I shall now discuss.

As can be seen from my Professional Portfolio, I have always had an interest in teaching and learning (e.g. being a university teaching and learning fellow – see **p.360**, plus my writing of textbooks for students) and yet I now realise that my knowledge of the affective aspects of teaching students was limited. Through my literature review I confirmed my initial hunches about the nature of the cognitive and affective challenges faced by students in their dissertations; I also learned more about a range of relevant educational and emotional concepts as well as the idea of *becoming*; through constructing the conceptual framework for the research I was forced to think deeply about how to build rapport with my students over a series of phased activities; through talking to my students in the focus group and interviews and through analysis of my research I was able to gain insight into what my students perceived as challenges in both cognitive and emotional ways; further, I was able to make judgements on the effectiveness of my teaching and learning intervention – and in particular my teaching strategy of using biographical data within the guided activities. Even the act of writing down 'My Story' in my thesis, added to my self-knowledge, as it made me reflect upon what the messages were that I was trying to convey to students. What was I trying to achieve through them? How far should I go in revealing my own personal thoughts, views and feelings?

Through, the processes described above I became much more aware of the deeper aspects of my being, of which being a teacher is part. The experience has increased my desire to ask deeper questions, and ultimately, I have re-assessed my values. According to Harris (2008), to create meaning within our lives, our actions need to contribute towards our values; the actions for my research have been referred to throughout this thesis: a continual reading of the literature; the ongoing thinking behind my conceptual framework; the (re) creating of 'My Story' with its hidden messages; the series of face-to face interactions I had with my students across all four phases of my research intervention; the countless hours pondering over the meaning of my rich data set; and the time spent in intense discussions with my supervisor and colleagues. These actions have been consistent with my values of, exploring/ being curious, and nurturing the intellectual and personal development of others. When (if?) I leave teaching I will still have these values within me. They are part of what makes me 'me'.

Furthermore, it is actions that have enabled my deeper understanding. The guided activities of my intervention have been pivotal in this respect, as they have provided me with the opportunity to *be with* my students/ participants. I agree with Heidegger (1962) that social relations play a key role in making us who we are. Heidegger's views on this are explained by Wrathall (2005, p.52) who states that 'we always inhabit a shared world with others' . He explains Heidegger's view further:

> *I am never in a position to decide for myself how I will understand things from the ground up, or to invent my own way of being in the world independently of any relationship to other human beings. Every innovation, every act of rebellion, every independent decision is shaped by our shared understandings and norms and behaviours.*

> (Wrathall, 2005, p,52 referring to Heidegger, 1962)

With this in mind, my research intervention was shaped over time by my interaction with my students/ participants. Yes, there was a certain amount of independent thinking on my part. But my becoming 'teacher as guide' was bound to my relationship with my students becoming 'aspirant researchers' during the time I spent with them in the guided activities.

Thus, once again that word 'time' rears its head. Becoming takes time. It boils down to a question of priorities, based upon our own beliefs and values as to how much time we are prepared to invest for what we perceive as a given reward. I must admit that it was with a certain trepidation that I set out on my research intervention, as I realised that the perceived benefits of being a better guide would not come without some considerable time dedicated to my own self-development. However, I believe that through all of these activities I have become a better guide. So, for me, at least, I consider the effort was well spent.

5.5 CONTRIBUTION TO MY COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE

My research has contributed to the knowledge of two areas which until this point have had limited attention: firstly, how (rather than what) research methods are taught to Higher Education students (Cassell, 2013; Nind, Kilburn and Wiles, 2015; Lewthwaite and Nind, 2016); and secondly, the influence of affect and emotions in teaching and learning in Higher Education (Zhang and Zhu, 2008; Postareff and Lindblom-Ylänne, 2011; Trigwell, 2012; Quinlan, 2016). It has addressed these areas through an emphasis upon the relationship

between teacher and students who are regarded as being fellow climbers: it is a *trusting, caring* relationship with the teacher as guide, and students as aspirant researchers. It is thus a *joint journey* in which their respective *becoming* overlaps. These journeys are characterised by their cognitive *and* affective nature. The 'Guide Process' is thus an example of how to 'proactively craft pedagogic spaces so as to unite the *feeling* discourse, the *thinking* discourse (epistemological self) and wider *life-self* (ontological) discourse' (Beard, Humberstone and Clayton, 2014). My approach advocates a practical means of achieving these personal transformations, namely the use of biographical data which is applied directly in the classroom to the teaching and learning of research methods (i.e. the 'guided activities'). A key feature in promoting mutual trust is the the teacher's willingness to be personally open in sharing some of their own story with students. Through a deliberate positioning strategy the teacher strives to build rapport with students.

The 'Guide Process' does not purport to be the only way for students to learn research methods and to develop themselves as researchers – that would be naïve, as the learning environment is often multi-faceted and situational. For instance, it does not replace lectures or the role of research supervisors. Rather, it is an augmented method of teaching and learning. However, what it does emphasise is the need for teachers to have strategies that allow for differing levels of students' maturity and dissertation self-efficacy. The findings show that in practice the four increasingly demanding phases (in terms of students' maturity development) of the 'Guide Process' intervention, illuminated the cognitive and affective aspects of the students' dissertation journeys, and thus allowed for further learning to take place.

My thesis has contributed to knowledge by researching cognitive *and* affective difficulties faced by Masters' students during their dissertations. It has developed, and refined in practice, a relationship-oriented teaching and learning intervention (the 'Guide Process') centred around the interaction between teacher and students and their *becoming* as guide and aspirant researchers. It has gone into considerable detail using in-depth analysis of a small group to explore the cognitive and affective experiences of Master's students whilst at the same time helping them to develop their research skills.

5.6 DISSEMINATION OF WORK IN PROFESSIONAL PRACTICE

5.6.1 Academic Conferences and Journals

There are two avenues of dissemination of work open to me. Regarding my findings on the 'Guide Process' and its applicability for the teaching and learning of dissertations, the route is that of presenting at relevant academic conferences and submitting articles for publication in academic journals. I have previously presented a development paper on one aspect of my thesis (the use of metaphors and using 'self' as data for students learning research methods) at the British Academy of Management Conference 2017 – see **Portfolio Appendix 9.12, page 364**. I have identified the following as suitable conferences:

- Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE) Annual Conference 2019: Deadline for submissions 21st June 2019
- British Academy of Management 2020 Annual Conference

As my published works have been textbooks until this point, I am keen to publish in an academic journal. I regularly attend the British Academy of Management events and am a member of their research special interest group. I really enjoy listening to the new research developments of others and discussing my own ideas with them. For my first journal publication I intend to work on some aspect of my thesis.

5.6.2 Collaboration with Oxford University Press – Text book pedagogy

The other avenue of dissemination concerns how the 'guided activities' of my research may be used in practice (see conclusion *e* page 269). I have a contract with OUP for the 4th edition of my textbook 'Essential Study and Employment Skills for Business and Management Students'. This is aimed at first year undergraduate students. My intention is to create a an innovative pedagogical approach which will help students (guided by their teachers) as they face their cognitive and emotional 'becoming' whilst transitioning from home to university. My intention is to adapt the guided activities used in my thesis. These will be tested with students recruited for the purpose by OUP. Please see my **Portfolio Appendix 9.13**, page **366.**

5.6.3 Research Work for Further Development

Use of Drawings to Explore Student Feelings and Emotions

A welcome surprise for me during my research , was how quickly and enthusiastically students responded to the task of using drawings to depict their feelings and emotions (see chapter 2, from p.184 onwards). As Quinlan (2016) states, the importance and understanding of emotion in Higher Education remains a much under-researched area, so this is a fascinating area for further research in terms of teachers being able to build rapport (Smith, 2011) with their students for both academic and relationship purposes. As indicated above in 'Dissemination of Work' I intend to work collaboratively with Oxford University Press and possibly other university colleagues to carry out action research in this area, and to publish findings accordingly. This work could be published from both a student development perspective in their 'becoming' and from a textbook pedagogical viewpoint as a new way of creating a more interactive learning experience with teachers and learners.

Nationality and Cultural Issues

My research suggests that, it would be incorrect to assume for similar groups of post graduate students, that they are already competent in basic research methods or have the behavioural make-up to handle the rigours of their post-graduate research journeys, despite their usual maturity compared to under-graduates. The research findings provide a wealth of data to suggest that *all* participants faced a range of personal, social and academic challenges when completing their dissertations: many of the research participants were international students facing differences in educational and cultural climates, and some experienced study difficulties when English was their second language. These difficulties have already been identified within the literature but still bear further attention, particularly with regard to students' willingness to engage in situations which require their verbal feedback and issues surrounding proficiency of spoken language (see p.137). Further, there was evidence of at least one case where a student lacked a geographically-close network of people to call upon to establish work-based access for their dissertation research.

My 'Guide Process' advocates a trusting relationship and a joint journey in which both sides reveal autobiographical stories from which they have learned of hope to learn. Clearly, the psychological contract between teacher and student assumes that the former has some level of

expertise and can therefore help the latter to learn, and that certain expectations are accorded between the two parties. However, it is well established that in some educational cultures teachers follow the convention that they do not readily admit to their students the possibility that they may on occasion be wrong about something, that they never make mistakes, and that they know *all* of the answers. Clearly, as my approach views mistakes as opportunities for learning, this issue was addressed, but in an ad hoc manner during the course of my research intervention. However, further studies upon how to tackle such a change of expectations in the teaching environment regarding this 'power distance' would be an area for research consideration.

A linked area of further research could be the extent to which teachers are prepared to 'tell their stories' to students in the light of perceived personal vulnerability. This is likely to include consideration of the balance of risk in doing so versus the perceived benefits from interactions with students; another consideration for such a teaching and learning philosophy to be encouraged institutionally would be research into the likelihood of a suitably supportive university teaching and learning ethos .

5.7 CLOSING STATEMENT

As previously discussed in Further Findings (page 255 onwards) time is the limiting factor for all of these conclusions. It has implications for teachers' expectations of students' learning and their corresponding approach to teaching. More involvement between teachers and students cannot be a 'bolt-on', an additional stress on already demand-laden, contact-poor programme design. If managerialism is to prevail (as I suspect it will) then a prioritisation needs to take place to allocate the resource pot to optimise effectiveness. If producing capable, critical-thinking graduates for today's organisations is really the end goal of business and management degrees, then this priority of resources should be given to those teaching and learning experiences which bridge between university and the workplace. And if the end goal is that of educating the individual in the broadest of senses, so that they become more rounded individuals capable of living in and contributing towards society, the same argument applies. Time, combined with teaching based around relationships, needs to be given to allow students and teachers to flourish and become .

6: References

6 REFERENCES

Abbott, R. (2013) 'Crossing thresholds in academic reading', *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 50(2), pp. 191–201.

Adorno, G., Cronley, C. and Smith, K. S. (2013) 'A different kind of animal: liminal experiences of social work doctoral students', *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, pp. 1–10.

Ahern, K. and Manathunga, C. (2004) 'Clutch-starting stalled research students', *Innovative Higher Education*, 28(4), pp. 237–254.

Akiko, D. and Akira, I. (2003) 'How getting in touch with feelings happens: The process of referencing', *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, 43(4), pp. 87–101.

Alasuutari, P. (2008) 'Constructionist Research and Globalization', in Holstein, J. and Gubrium, J. (eds) *Handbook of Constructionist Research*. New York: Guildford Press, pp. 767–783.

Allendoefer, C. (2016) 'John Cowan: It's not about teaching, it's about learning', *Engineering Education Pioneers*.

Alvesson, M. and Ashcraft, K. L. (2012) 'Interviews', in Symon, G. and Cassell, C. (eds) *Qualitative Organizational Research*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Andersen, J. . (1979) 'Teacher immediacy as a predictor of teacher effectiveness', in Nimmo, D. (ed.) *Communication Yearbook 3*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books, pp. 543–559.

Anderson, M. (2017) 'Transformational Leadership in Education: A Review of Existing Literature.', *International Social Science Review*, 93(1), pp. 1–13.

Anderson, V. (2009) *Researching methods in human resource management*. 2nd ed. London: CIPD.

Anderson, V. (2013) *Research Methods in Human Resource Management*. 3rd ed. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Armstrong, P.-A. (2018) 'Reflexive Digital Bricolage: The ART of Digital Reflection', the *6th International Conference on Professional Doctorates* - Presentations & Abstracts. London: UK Council for Graduate Education. Available at: http://www.ukcge.ac.uk/events/icpd2018-abstractspresentations.aspx (Accessed 6th May 2019).

Armstrong, S. J. (2004) 'The impact of supervisors' cognitive styles on the quality of research supervision in management education.', *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 74(4), pp. 599–616.

Arsel, Z. (2017) 'Asking Questions with Reflexive Focus: A Tutorial on Designing and Conducting Interviews.', *Journal of Consumer Research*, 44(4), pp. 939–948.

Arsenault, A. and Dolan, S. (1983) *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 56(3), pp. 227–240.

Asikainen, H., Hailikari, T. and Mattsson, M. (2018) 'The interplay between academic emotions, psychological flexibility and self-regulation as predictors of academic achievement', *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 42(4), pp. 439–453.

Bailey, J. (2000) 'Students as clients in a professional/client relationship', *Journal of Management Education*, 24(3), pp. 353–365.

Bandura, A. (1977) 'Self-efficacy: Toward a Unifying Theory of Behavioral Change', *Psychological Review*, 84(2), pp. 191–215.

Bandura, A. (1985) *Social foundation of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Pearson.

Bandura, A. (1997) *Self Efficacy: The Exercise of Control*. New York: Freeman.

Banks, J. A. (1998) 'The Lives and Values of Researchers: Implications for Educating Citizens in a Multicultural Society', *Educational Researcher*, 27(7), pp. 4–17.

Barnacle, R. (2004) 'Reflection on Lived Experience in Educational Research', *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 36(1), pp. 57–67.

Barnett, R. (2004) 'Learning for an unknown future', *Higher Education Research & Development*, 23(3), pp. 247–260.

Barnett, R. (2007) *A will to learn*. Maidenhead, Berks: Open University Press.

Barrett, T. and Hussey, J. (2015) 'Overcoming problems in doctoral writing through the use of visualisations: telling our stories', *Teaching in Higher Education*, 20(1), pp. 48–63.

Bass, B., M. (1998) *Transformational Leadership: Industrial, military, and educational impact*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Baxter Magolda, M. (1999) *Creating contexts for learning and self authorship: Constructive-developmental pedagogy*. Nashville, USA: Vanderbilt University Press.

Baxter Magolda, M. B. (2004) 'Evolution of a Constructivist Conceptualization of Epistemological Reflection.', *Educational Psychologist*, 39(1), pp. 31–42.

Baxter Magolda, M. B. (2012) 'Building Learning Partnerships.', *Change*, 44(1), pp. 32–38.

Baxter Magolda, M. and King, P. (2004) *Learning partnerships: Theory and models of practice to educate for self-authorship*. Sterling: VA: Stylus.

Baxter, P. and Jack, S. (2008) 'Qualitative Case Study Methodology: Study, Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers', *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4), pp. 544–559.

Beard, C., Humberstone, B. and Clayton, B. (2014) 'Positive emotions: passionate scholarship and student transformation', *Teaching in Higher Education*, 19(6), pp. 630–643.

Beltman, S., Glass, C., Dinham, J., Chalk, B. and Nguyen, B. (2015) 'Drawing Identity: Beginning Pre-Service Teachers' Professional Identities', *Issues in Educational Research*, 25(3), pp. 225–245.

Benson, T. A., Cohen, A. L., Buskist, W., Gurung, R. A. R., Cann, A., Marek, P., Christopher, A. N., Koenig, C. S., Reinhart, D. F., LoSchiavo, F. M., Shatz, M. A., Landrum, R. E., Guttmannova, K., Shields, A. L., Caruso, J. C., Nevid, J. S., Forlenza, N., Brinthaupt, T. M., Pennington, J. T. and White, T. L. (2005b) 'Faculty Forum.', *Teaching of Psychology*, 32(4), pp. 237–270.

Ben-Zur, H. (2009) 'Coping styles and affect', *International Journal of Stress Management*, 16(2), pp. 87–101.

Bertucio, B. (2017) 'The Cartesian Heritage of Bloom's Taxonomy.', *Studies in Philosophy & Education,* 36(4), pp. 477–497.

Bessette, H. and Paris, N. (2016) 'Drawing on Metaphors of Teaching to Elicit Reflexive Thinking', *Critical Issues in Teacher Education*, XXiii, pp. 78–89.

Bhattacharya, B., Cowan, J., Weedon, E. and Bani Bhattacharya, J. C. and E. W. (2000) 'Action research: a means to more effective teaching and learning', *Innovations in Education & Training International*, 37(4), pp. 314–322.

Biggs, J. (1996) 'Enhancing teaching through constructive alignment', *Higher Education*, 32, pp. 347–364.

Biggs, J., Kember, D. and Leung, Y.P. (2001) 'The revised two-factor Study Process Questionnaire', *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 71(1), pp. 133–149.

Bishop-Clark, C., Dietz-Uhler, B. and Fisher, A. (2007) 'The Effects of Personality Type on Web-Based Distance Learning.', *Journal of Educational Technology Systems*, 35(4), pp. 491–506.

Bloom, B. S., Englehart, M. D., Furst, E. J., Hill, W. H. and Krathwohl, D. R. (1956) *Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals. Handbook 1: Cognitive Domain*. New York: David McKay.

Boehe, D. M. (2016) 'Supervisory styles: a contingency framework.', *Studies in Higher Education*, 41(3), pp. 399–414.

Borko, H., Jacobs, J., Eiteljorg, E. and Pittman, M. (2008) 'Video as a tool for fostering productive discussions in mathematics professional development', *Teaching and Teacher Education,* 24, pp. 417–436.

Boulton, M. and Smith, P. (1992) 'The social nature of play fighting and play chasing: Mechanisms and strategies underlying cooperation and compromise', in Barkow, J. ., Cosmides, L., and Tooby, J. (eds) *The adapted mind: Evolutionary psychology and the generation of culture*. New York: Oxford University Press, pp. 429–444.

Bowman, M. A. (1996) 'Metaphors we teach by: Understanding ourselves as teachers and learners', *Essays on teaching excellence: Toward the best in the Academy*, 8(4). Available at: http://podnetwork.org/content/uploads/V8-N4-Bowman.pdf (Accessed: 27 March 2017).

Breaugh, J. A. (2009) 'The use of biodata for employee selection: Past research and future directions', *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(3), pp. 219–231.

Bresó, E., Schaufeli, W. B., Salanova, M. and Edgar Bresó, W. B. S. and M. S. (2011) 'Can a self-efficacy-based intervention decrease burnout, increase engagement, and enhance performance? A quasi-experimental study', *Higher Education*, 61(4), pp. 339–355.

Brew, A. (2006) 'Learning to develop the relationship between research and teaching at an institutional level', in Kreber, C. (ed.) *Exploring Research-Based Teaching*. California: Jossey-Bass (107), pp. 13–31.

Brookfield, S. (1990) 'Using critical incidents to explore learners' assumptions', in *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood: a guide to transformative and emancipatory learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, pp. 177–193.

Bruster, B. G. and Peterson, B. R. (2013) 'Using critical incidents in teaching to promote reflective practice', *Reflective Practice*, 14(2), pp. 170–182.

Bryans, P. and Mavin, S. (2003) 'Women learning to become managers: learning to fit in or to play a different game', *Management Learning*, 34(1), pp. 111–131.

Bryman, A. (2012) *Social Research Methods*. 4th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2011) *Business Research Methods*. 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2015) *Business Research Methods*. 4th ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bucholtz, M. and Hall, K. (2005) 'Identity and interaction: a sociocultural linguistic approach', *Discourse Studies*, 7(4–5), pp. 585–614.

Bullough, R. . (1997) 'Practising theory and theorising practice', in Russell, T. (ed.) *Teaching about teaching: Purpose, passion and pedagogy in teacher education*. Falmer Press, pp. 13–31.

Bulthoff, H. and Edelman, S. (1992) 'Psychophysical support for a two-dimensional view of object recognition', *Proceedings of National Academy of Science USA: Psychology*, 89, pp. 60–64.

Burke, L. A. and Sadler-Smith, E. (2006) 'Instructor Intuition in the Educational Setting.', *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 5(2), pp. 169–181.

Burnes, B. (2004) 'Kurt Lewin and the planned approach to change: A re-appraisal', *Journal of Management Studies*, 41(6), pp. 977–1002.

Cameron, S. and Price, D. (2009) *Business Research Methods: A practical approach*. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Carroll, M. (2009) 'Supervision: Critical Reflection for Transformational Learning, Part 1', *The Clinical Supervisor*, 28(2), pp. 210–220.

Cassell, C. (2013) 'Pushed beyond my comfort zone: conducting qualitative research for the first time', in *Conference Proceedings. British Academy of Management*, pp. 1–17.

Chamberlayne, P., Bornat, J. and Apitzsch, U.(eds) (2004) *Biographical Methods and Professional Practice: An International Perspective*. The Policy Press.

Chaplin, C. (1936) *Modern Times*. Available at: http://sensesofcinema.com/2011/feature-articles/biting-back-at-the-machine-charlie-chaplins-modern-times/ (Accessed: 30 January 2018).

Chrisophel, D. (1990) 'The relationship among teacher immediacy behaviors, student motivation, and learning', *Communication Education*, 39, pp. 323–340.

CIPD (2014) '*CIPD Profession Map*'. CIPD. Available at https://www.cipd.co.uk/learn/career/profession-map (Accessed: 6th May 2019).

Clark, E. and McCann, T. (2005) 'Researching students: an ethical dilemma.', *Nurse Researcher*, 12(3), pp. 42–51.

Clark, M. and Payne, R. (2006) 'Character based determinants of trust in leaders', *Risk Analysis*, 26(5), pp. 1161–1173.

Clarke, M. (2009) 'The Ethico-politics of Teacher Identity.', *Educational Philosophy & Theory*, 41(2), pp. 185–200.

Clary, E. G. and Snyder, M. (1999) 'The Motivations to Volunteer: Theoretical and Practical Considerations.', *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 8(5), pp. 156–159.

Clover, D. E. (2006) 'Culture and Antiracisms in Adult Education: An Exploration of the Contributions of Arts-Based Learning', *Adult Education Quarterly*, 57(1), pp. 46–61.

Coghlan, D. and Brannick, T. (2005) *Doing Action Research in Your Own Organization*. 2nd ed. London: Sage Publications.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. (2000) *Research methods in education*. 5th ed. London: Routledge Falmer.

Collins, A., Brown, J. . and Holum, A. (1991) 'Creative Apprenticeship: making thinking visible', *American Educator*, (Winter), pp. 1-18 (reprint).

Collins, A., Brown, J. and Newman, S. (1989) 'Cognitive apprenticeship: teaching the crafts of reading, writing and mathematics', in *Knowing, Learning and Instruction: Essays in honor of Robert Glaser*. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, pp. 453–494.

Comer, S. (2009) 'The ethics of conducting educational research on your own students.', *Journal of Nursing Law*, 13(4), pp. 100–105.

Conway, E. (2017) 'The interface between teaching and research: Integrating theory, methods and tools', in *The British Academy of Management Research Methodology Special Interest Group's 12th Annual Workshop on Teaching Research Methods to Business and Management Students*. Dublin.

Cook, T. (2009) 'The purpose of mess in action research: building rigour though a messy turn.', Educational Action Research, 17(2), pp. 277–291.

Cooper, B. (2010) 'In search of profound empathy in learning relationships: understanding the mathematics of moral learning environments', *Journal of Moral Education*, 39(1), pp. 79–99.

Cooper, B. (2011) *Empathy in education: engagement, values and achievement*. London: Continuum.

Cooper, R., Fleischer, A. and Cotton, F. (2012) 'Building connections: An interpretative Phenomenological analysis of qualitative research students' learning experiences', *The Qualitative Report*, 17(17), pp. 1–16.

Cordina, M., Lauri, M., Buttigieg, R. and Lauri, J. (2015) 'Personality traits of pharmacy and medical students throughout their course of studies.', *Pharmacy Practice* (1886-3655), 13(4), pp. 1–9.

Cotton, J. (1995) *The theory of learning*. London: Kogan Page.

Cowan, J. (2006) *On becoming an innovative university teacher*. 2nd ed. Buckingham: SRHE/ Open University Press.

Cowan, J. (2012) 'Life wide learning: What matters to me as a teacher?', in *Life wide Learning and Education* e-book. Available at: http://www.lifewidescrapbook.co.uk/uploads/1/0/8/4/10842717/lifewide_learning_what_matt ers_to_me_as_a_teacher.pdf.

Cree, V. E. (2012) '"I'd Like to Call You My Mother." Reflections on Supervising International PhD Students in Social Work', *Social Work Education*, 31(4), pp. 451–464.

Cron, E. A. (2000) 'The Feeling Word Game: A Tool for Both Teaching and Therapy', *The Family Journal*, 8(4), pp. 402–405.

Crotty, M. (1998) *The Foundations of Social Research*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Dall'Alba, G. (2009) 'Learning Professional Ways of Being: Ambiguities of becoming.', *Educational Philosophy & Theory*, 41(1), pp. 34–45.

Damasio, A. (1996) *Descartes Error*. London: Macmillan.

Darwin, C. (1872) *The expression of the emotions in man and animals*. New York: Appleton & Co.

Davidson, C. (2009) 'Transcription: Imperatives for Qualitative Research', *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 8(2), pp. 35–52.

Dearing, R. (1997) *The Dearing Report*. The National Committee of Inquiry into Higher Education. Available at: https://www.leeds.ac.uk/educol/ncihe/ (Accessed: 4 May 2019).

Deasy, C., Coughlan, B., Pironom, J., Jourdan, D. and Mannix-McNamara, P. (2016) 'Psychological distress and help seeking amongst higher education students: findings from a mixed method study of undergraduate nursing/midwifery and teacher education students in Ireland.', *Irish Educational Studies*, 35(2), pp. 175–194.

Denzin, N. and Lincoln, Y.(eds) (2005) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research*. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

Department for Education (2017) *Education and Training Statistics for the United Kingdom 2017*. London: Department for Education.

Deuchar, R. (2008) 'Facilitator, director or critical friend?: contradiction and congruence in doctoral supervision styles.', *Teaching in Higher Education*, 13(4), pp. 489–500.

Devis-Rozental, C., Eccles, S. and Mayer, M. (2017) 'Developing socio-emotional intelligence in first year higher education students through one-to-one learning development tutorials', *Journal of Learning Development in Higher Education*, 12(November), pp. 1–21.

Dewey, J. (1894) 'The theory of emotion: I: Emotional attitudes', *Psychological Review*, 1(6), pp. 553–569.

Dewey, J. (1916) *Democracy and education*. New York: Free Press.

Dewey, J. (1938) *Experience and Education*. New York: Simon &Schuster.

Digman, J. M. (1990) 'Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model.', *Annual Review of Psychology*, 41(1), p. 417.

Dorfler, V., Stierand, M. B. and Zizka, L. (2017) 'Studying Reflecting in Becoming: Some Philosophical Reference Points', in *Re-Connecting Management Research with the Disciplines*. Warwick: British Academy of Management.

Downey, C. . and Clandinin, D. . (2010) 'Narrative inquiry as reflective practice: Tensions and possibilities', in Lyons, N. (ed.) *Handbook of reflection and reflective inquiry: Mapping a way of knowing for professional reflective inquiry*. New York: Springer, pp. 383–397.

Doyle Corner, P. and Pio, E. (2017) 'Supervising International Students' Theses and Dissertations.', *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 16(1), pp. 23–38.

Drennan, J. and Clarke, M. (2009) 'Coursework master's programmes: the student's experience of research and research supervision', *Studies in Higher Education*, 34(5), pp. 483–500.

Earley, M. A. (2014) 'A synthesis of the literature on research methods education', *Teaching in Higher Education*, 19(3), pp. 242–353.

Edinburgh University (2018) '*Dissertations/ Work based projects'*. Edinburgh University. Available at: https://www.ed.ac.uk/students/academic-life/study-support/supporting-taught-postgraduates/consolidating/dissertations (Accessed: 7 November 2018).

Edwards, R. and Holland, J. (2013) *What is qualitative interviewing?* London: Bloomsbury Publishing Plc.

Egan, K. (1992) *Imagination in Teaching and Learning*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Ekman, P. (1992) 'An argument for basic emotions', *Cognition and Emotion*, 6(3–4), pp. 169–200.

Elliott, T. R., Herrick, S. M., MacNair, R. R. and Harkins, S. W. (1994) 'Personality Correlates of Self-Appraised Problem Solving Ability: Problem Orientation and Trait Affectivity.', *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 63(3), p. 489.

Ellis, C. (2007) 'Telling Secrets, Revealing Lives: Relational Ethics in Research With Intimate Others', *Qualitative Inquiry*, 13(3), pp. 3–29.

Epstein, N. and Fischer, M. R. (2017) 'Academic career intentions in the life sciences: Can research self-efficacy beliefs explain low numbers of aspiring physician and female scientists?', Manalo, E. (ed.) *PLoS ONE*, 12(9), p. e0184543.

Erickson, F. (2011) 'Uses of video in social research: a brief history.', *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 14(3), pp. 179–189.

Errington, E. (2010) P*reparing graduates for the professions using scenario-based learning*. Salisbury, Australia: Post Pressed. Available at: https://researchonline.jcu.edu.au/11638/3/11638_Errington_2010_front_pages.pdf (Accessed: 11 November 2017).

Etherington, K. (2007) 'Ethical Research in Reflexive Relationships', *Qualitative Inquiry*, 13(5), pp. 599–616.

Eytan, L. and Elkis-Abuhoff, D. L. (2013) 'Indicators of depression and self-efficacy in the PPAT drawings of normative adults', *The Arts in Psychotherapy*, 40(3), pp. 291–297.

Ferris, W. P. (2003) 'Why the Partnership Model's Usefulness Far Exceeds That of the Client Model: Reply to Armstrong.', *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 2(4), pp. 375–377.

Field, A. (2009) *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. 3rd ed. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Fitzmaurice, M. (2008) 'Voices from within: teaching in higher education as a moral practice.', *Teaching in Higher Education*, 13(3), pp. 341–352.

Flanagan, J., C. (1954) 'The Critical Incident Technique', *Psychological Bulletin*, 51(4).

Flanagan, M. (2014) '*Threshold concepts: undergraduate teaching, postgraduate training and professional development: A short introduction and bibliography*'. Available at: http://www.ee.ucl.ac.uk/~mflanaga/thresholds.html.

Flyvbjerg, B. (2006) 'Five Misunderstandings About Case-Study Research', *Qualitative Inquiry*, 12(2), pp. 219–245..

Fook, J. and Gardner, F. (2007) *Practising Critical Reflection: A Resource Handbook*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Foong, L. Y. Y., Nor, M. B. M. and Nolan, A. (2018) 'The influence of practicum supervisors' facilitation styles on student teachers' reflective thinking during collective reflection', *Reflective Practice*, 19(2), pp. 225–242.

Foucault, M. (1982) 'The Subject and Power', *Critical Inquiry*, 8(4), pp. 777–795.

Franke, A. and Arvidsson, B. (2011) 'Research supervisors' different ways of experiencing supervision of doctoral students.', *Studies in Higher Education*, 36(1), pp. 7–19.

Franken, M. (2012) 'Re-situation challenges for international students "becoming" researchers.', *Higher Education*, 64, p. 845.

Fredrickson, B. and Cohn, M. (2008) 'Positive Emotions', in Lewis, M., Haviland-Jones, J., and Feldman Barrett, L. (eds) *Handbook of Emotions*. 3rd ed. New York: The Guildford Press, pp. 777–796.

Frymier, A. B. (1994) 'The use of affinity-seeking in producing liking and learning in the classroom', *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 22, pp. 87–105.

Frymier, A. B. and Houser, M. L. (2000) 'The teacher-student relationship as an interpersonal relationship', *Communication Education*, 49(3), pp. 207–219.

Fulton, J. (2013) 'The archaeology and genealogy of mentorship in English nursing', *Nursing Inquiry*, 22(1), pp.39-49.

Galante, J., Dufour, G., Vainre, M., Wagner, A. P., Stochl, J., Benton, A., Lathia, N., Howarth, E. and Jones, P. B. (2018) 'A mindfulness-based intervention to increase resilience to stress in university students (the Mindful Student Study): a pragmatic randomised controlled trial', *The Lancet Public Health*, 3(2), pp. e72–e81.

Gallagher, K. (2010a) 'Concepts of self and self-management skills', in *Developing skills for business leadership*. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Gallagher, K. (2010b) *Skills development for business and management students*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gallagher, K. (2012) *Assignment: Analysis of Personal Critical Incident: Reflective Practice Module for Professional Doctorate*. University of Sunderland, pp. 1–22.

Gallagher, K. (2013) *Skills for business and management students: study and employability*. 2nd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press

Gallagher, K. (2014) 'Concepts of self and self-management skills', in *Developing skills for business leadership*. 2nd ed. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Gallagher, K. (2016) *Essential study and employment skills for business and management students*. 3rd *ed*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gallagher, K., Rose, E., McClelland, R., Reynolds, J. and Tombs, S. (1997) *People in Organisations*: an active learning approach. Oxford: Blackwells.

Gallrein, A.-M. B., Carlson, E. N., Holstein, M. and Leising, D. (2013) 'You spy with your little eye: People are "blind" to some of the ways in which they are consensually seen by others', *Journal of Research in Personality*, 47(5), pp. 464–471.

Ganga, D. and Scott, S. (2006) 'Cultural "Insiders" and the Issue of Positionality in Qualitative Migration Research: Moving "Across" and Moving "Along" Researcher-Participant Divides', *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research; Vol 7, No 3 (2006): Qualitative Migration Research in Contemporary Europe*.

Gardner, F. (2014) *Being Critically Reflective*. Basingstoke, Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

Gardner, H. (2011) *Frames of mind: the theory of multiple intelligences*. New York: Basic Books.

Garner, R. L. (2006) 'Humor in Pedagogy', *College Teaching*, 54(1), pp. 177–180.

Gerras, S. J. and Wong, L. (2016) 'Moving Beyond the MBTI.', *Military Review*, 96(2), pp. 54–57.

Gervais, M. and Wilson, D. . (2005) 'The evolution and functions of laughter and humor: A synthetic approach', *Quarterly Review of Biology*, 80, pp. 395–451.

Gilmore, D. (2014) 'Goffman's Front Stage and Backstage Behaviours in Online Education', *Journal of Learning Analytics*, 1(3), pp. 187–190.

Gobo, G. (2011) 'Glocalizing methodology? The encounter between local methodologies.', *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 14(6), pp. 417–437.

Goffman, E. (1959*) Presentation of self in everyday life*. New York: Double Day Anchor Books.

Goh, E. C. L. (2012) 'Integrating Mindfulness and Reflection in the Teaching and Learning of Listening Skills for Undergraduate Social Work Students in Singapore.', *Social Work Education*, 31(5), pp. 587–604.

Goleman, D. (1996) *Emotional intelligence: why it can matter more than IQ*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing plc.

Goleman, D. (2007) *Social Intelligence: The new science of human relationships*. London: Arrow Books.

Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. and McKee, A. (2002) *The new leaders: transforming the art of leadership into the science of results.* London: Time Warner.

Grant, B. M. (2005) 'Fighting for space in supervision: fantasies, fairytales, fictions and fallacies', *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 18(3), pp. 337–354.

Grow, G. O. (1991) 'Teaching learners to be self-directed', *Adult Education Quarterly*, 41(3), pp. 125–149.

Gurr, G. M. (2001) 'Negotiating the "Rackety Bridge" — a Dynamic Model for Aligning Supervisory Style with Research Student Development', *Higher Education Research & Development*, 20(1), pp. 81–92.

Hall, C. (1996) 'Key Teaching Roles of a University Lecturer and their integration into the quality systems of a New Zealand University', *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 21(2), pp. 109–123.

Hamer, L. (1999) 'A folkloristic approach to understanding teachers as storytellers', *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 12(4), pp. 363–380.

Harden, R. M. and Crosby, J. (2000) 'AMEE Guide No.20: The good teacher is more than a lecturer - the twelve roles of the teacher', *Medical Teacher*, 22(4), pp. 333–347.

Harland, T. (2014) 'Learning about case study methodology to research higher education', *Higher Education Research & Development*, 33(6), pp. 1113–1122.

Harris, R. (2008) *The Happiness Trap*. London: Robinson.

Harrison, N. and Peacock, N. (2010) 'Cultural distance, mindfulness and passive xenophobia: using Integrated Threat Theory to explore home higher education students' perspectives on "internationalisation at home", *British Educational Research Journal*, 36(6), pp. 877–902.

Hascher, T. and Hagenauer, G. (2016) 'Openness to theory and its importance for pre-service teachers' self-efficacy, emotions, and classroom behaviour in the teaching practicum', *International Journal of Educational Research*, 77, pp. 15–25.

Hatch, J. and Wisniewski, R.(eds) (1995) *Life History and Narrative*. London: The Falmer Press.

Haynes, K. (2012) 'Reflexivity in Qualitative Research', in Symon, G. and Cassell, C. (eds) *Qualitative Organizational Research*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Heath, J. (2018) 'Reflections on researcher positionality when using multiple techniques of qualitative data collection to facilitate participation in research focusing on a sensitive subject', in *4th Annual Qualitative Research Symposium*. Bath: University of Bath.

Heidegger, M. (1962) *Being and Time*. San Francisco, CA: Harper.

Helmich, E., Diachun, L., Joseph, R., LaDonna, K., Noeverman-Poel, N., Lingard, L. and Cristancho, S. (2017) '"Oh my God, I can't handle this!": trainees' emotional responses to complex situations', *Medical Education*, 52(2), pp. 206–215.

Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K. (1982) *Management of organizational behavior*. 4th ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K. H. (1996) *Management of organisational behaviour: utlilising human resources*. 7th ed. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Hesse-Biber, S. (2015) 'The problems and prospects in the teaching of mixed methods research.', *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 18(5), pp. 463–477.

Hill, A., Celia Popovic, Lawton, R., Eland, J., Nick Morton, Curzon, R., Eastcott, D. and Tomas, C. (2010) 'Using Critical Incidents to Create Learning Pathways Between the Real World and Places of Learning: Findings from a 2 Year Funded Project Aimed at Improving Understanding and Capability in Key Employability Skills.', *International Journal of Learning*, 16(12), pp. 157–170.

Hodkinson, P. and Hodkinson, H. (2004) 'A constructive critique of communities of practice: Moving beyond Lave and Wenger', in Sydney: *Oval Research: The Australian centre for organisational, vocational and adult learning*.

Hofstede, G. (1980) *Culture's consequences: international differences in work-related values*. Beverley Hills: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (2018) '*Hofstede insights*'. Available at: https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/.

Holden, G., Barker, K., Meenaghan, T. and Rosenberg, G. (1999) 'Research self -efficacy: A new possibility for educational outcomes assessment', *Journal of Social Work Education*, 35(3), pp. 463–467.

Holstein, J. and Gubrium, J. (2011) 'Animating Interview Narratives', in Silverman, D. (ed.) *Qualitative Research*. 3rd ed. London: Sage Publications Ltd, pp. 149–167.

Hoskins, K. (2015) 'Researching female professors: the difficulties of representation, positionality and power in feminist research.', *Gender & Education*, 27(4), pp. 393–411.

Huber, J., Caine, V., Huber, M. and Steeves, P. (2013) 'Narrative Inquiry as Pedagogy in Education: The Extraordinary Potential of Living, Telling, Retelling, and Reliving Stories of Experience', *Review of Research in Education*, 37(1), pp. 212–242.

Humphrey, C. (2012) 'Dilemmas in doing insider research in professional education', *Qualitative Social Work*, 12(5), pp. 572–586.

Humphrey, R. and Simpson, R. (2012) 'Writes of passage: writing up qualitative data as a threshold concept in doctoral research.', *Teaching in Higher Education*, 17(6), pp. 735–746.

Hunt, C. (2001) 'Climbing Out of the Void: moving from chaos to concepts in the presentation of a thesis.', *Teaching in Higher Education*, 6(3), pp. 351–367.

Hunt, C. (2006) 'Travels with a turtle: metaphors and the making of a professional identity', *Reflective Practice*, 7(3), pp. 315–332. doi: 10.1080/14623940600837467.

Ibarra, H. (1999) 'Provisional Selves: Experimenting with Image and Identity in Professional Adaptation.', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44(4), pp. 764–791.

Immordino-Yang, M. H., Yang, X.-F. and Damasio, H. (2016) 'Cultural modes of expressing emotions influence how emotions are experienced', *Emotion*, 16(7), pp. 1033–1039.

Ingebrethsen, B. (2013) '*FORMakademisk*', 6(3), pp. 1–18.

Irizarry, C. and Marlowe, J. (2010) 'Beyond Mere Presence—Making Diversity Work', *Social Work Education*, 29(1), pp. 96–107.

Jamal, M. (1985) 'Relationship of job stress to job performance: A study of managers and blue-collar workers', *Human Relations*, (38), pp. 409–424.

James, W. (1894) 'Discussion: The physical basis of emotion', *Psychological Review,* 1(5), pp. 516–529. doi: 10.1037/h0065078.

Jefferies, D., McNally, S., Roberts, K., Wallace, A., Stunden, A., D'Souza, S. and Glew, P. (2018) 'Review: The importance of academic literacy for undergraduate nursing students and its relationship to future professional clinical practice: A systematic review', *Nurse Education Today*, 60, pp. 84–91.

Jeffers, S. (2007) *Feel the fear and do it anyway*. London: Vermillion.

Johnson, W. B. (2007) 'Transformational supervision: When supervisors mentor.', *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice*. (Clinical Supervision Issues in Professional Psychology), 38(3), pp. 259–267.

Johnson, W. B., Jensen, K. C., Sera, H. and Cimbora, D. M. (2018) 'Ethics and relational dialectics in mentoring relationships.', *Training and Education in Professional Psychology*, 12(1), pp. 14–21.

Kamens, S. R., Constandinides, D. and Flefel, F. (2016) 'Drawing the future: Psychosocial correlates of Palestinian children's drawings', *International Perspectives in Psychology*: Research, Practice, Consultation, 5(3), pp. 167–183.

Kandola, B. (2012) 'Focus Groups', in Symon, G. and Cassell, C. (eds) *Qualitative Organizational Research*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Kegan, R. (1994) *In over our heads: The mental demands of modern life*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard *University* Press.

Keyes, C. L. . (2007) 'Promoting and protecting mental health as flourishing', *American Psychologist,* 62(2), pp. 95–108.

Kiley, M. (2015) '"I didn't have a clue what they were talking about": PhD candidates and theory.', *Innovations in Education & Teaching International*, 52(1), pp. 52–63.

Kincheloe, J. (2005) 'Auto/biography and Critical Ontology: Being a Teacher, Developing a Reflective Persona', in Roth, W.-M. (ed.) *Auto/ Biography and Auto/Ethnography: Praxis of Research Method*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers, pp. 155–174.

Kinman, G. and Jones, F. (2008) 'Effort-reward imbalance and overcommitment: Predicting strain in academic employees in the United Kingdom.'*, International Journal of Stress Management*, 15(4), pp. 381–395.

Kissling, M. T. (2014) 'Now and then, in and out of the classroom: Teachers learning to teach through the experiences of their living curricula', *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 44, pp. 81–91.

Kitching, J., Cassidy, S., Eachus, P. and Hogg, P. (2011) 'Creating and Validating Self-Efficacy Scales for Students', *Radiologic Technology*, 83(1), pp. 1–19.

Kolb, D. A. (1983) *Experiential Learning*. Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Prentice Hall.

Kolb, D. (1984) *Experiential learning*. London: Prentice Hall.

Korokbin, D. (1988) 'Humor in the classroom: Considerations and strategies', *College Teaching,* 36(4), pp. 154–158.

Krathwohl, D. R. (2002) 'A Revision of Bloom's Taxonomy: An Overview.', *Theory Into Practice*, 41(4), p. 212.

Krathwohol, D.R., Bloom, B. S. and Masia, B. (1964) *Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals. Handbook 2: The Affective Domain*. New York: David McKay.

Kraus, K. and Sultana, R. G. (2008) 'Problematising "Cross-cultural" Collaboration: Critical Incidents in Higher Education Settings', *Mediterranean Journal of Educational Studies*, 13(1), pp. 59–83.

Kreber, C. and Klampfleitner, M. (2013) 'Lecturers' and students' conceptions of authenticity in teaching and actual teacher actions and attributes students perceive as helpful.', *Higher Education*, 66(4), pp. 463–487.

Laidlaw, A., McLellan, J. and Ozakinci, G. (2016) 'Understanding undergraduate student perceptions of mental health, mental well-being and help-seeking behaviour.', *Studies in Higher Education*, 41(12), pp. 2156–2168.

Lakoff, G. and Johnson, M. (1980) Metaphors we live by. London: The university of Chicago Press.

Lakoff, G. and Johnson, M. (2003) *Metaphors we live by*. London: The university of Chicago Press.

Lamm, R., Clerehan, R. and Pinder, J. (2007) 'Guides and climbers: Development of an online resource for thesis writers and supervisors', *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 21(8), pp. 1166–1183.

Lamm, R., Clerehan, R., Pinder, J. and Rosario, V. (2006) 'Guiding students up the thesis mountain: the development of a website on writing a thesis', in *conference paper AARE*.

Land, R., Rattray, J. and Vivian, P. (2014) 'Learning in the liminal space: a semiotic approach to threshold concepts', *Higher Education*, 67(2), pp. 199–217.

Lave, J. and Wenger, E. (1991) *Situated Learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Le Guin, U. K. (1980) 'It Was a Dark and Stormy Night; Or, Why Are We Huddling about the Campfire?', *Critical Inquiry*, 7(1), pp. 191–199.

LeBaron, C., Jarzabkowski, P., Pratt, M. G. and Fetzer, G. (2017) 'An Introduction to Video Methods in Organizational Research', *Organizational Research Methods*, (October), pp. 1–40.

Lee, H. S. and Cohn, L. D. (2010) 'Assessing coping strategies by analysing expressive writing samples.', *Stress & Health: Journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress*, 26(3), pp. 250–260.

Lei, H. and Cui, Y. (2016) 'Effects of Academic Emotions on Achievement amongst Mainland Chinese Students: A Meta-Analysis', *Social Behavior & Personality: an international journal*, 44(9), pp. 1541–1553.

Leitch, A. (2006) *Leitch Review of Skills*. London: HMSO. Available at: https://www.economy-ni.gov.uk/publications/leitch-review-skills (Accessed: 4 May 2019).

Lejeune, P. (1975) *Le pact autobiographique*. Paris: Seuil.

Levy, P. and Petrulis, R. (2012) 'How do first-year university students experience inquiry and research, and what are the implications for the practice of inquiry-based learning?', *Studies in Higher Education*, 37(1), pp. 85–101.

Levykh, M. G. (2008) 'The Affective Establishment and Maintenance of Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development', *Educational Theory*, 58(1), pp. 83–101.

Lewin, K. (1947) 'Frontiers in Group Dynamics: Concept, Method and Reality in Social Science; Social Equilibria and Social Change', Human Relations, 1(1), pp. 5-41.

Lewthwaite, S. and Nind, M. (2016) 'Teaching research methods in the social sciences: expert perspectives on pedagogy and practice', *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 64(4), pp. 413–430.

Liamputtong, P. and Ezzy, D. (2005) *Qualitative Research Methods*. 2nd ed. Melbourne, Australia: Open University Press.

Lie, K. and Cano, V. (2001) 'Supporting diverse learners through a website for teaching research methods', *Journal of Educational Technology and Society*, 4(3), pp. 50–63.

Lieberman, M. D., Eisenberger, N. I., Crockett, M. J., Tom, S. M., Pfeifer, J. H. and Way, B. M. (2007) 'Putting Feelings Into Words', *Psychological Science*, 18(5), pp. 421–428.

Lindholm, C. (2013) 'The Rise of Expressive Authenticity', *Anthropological Quarterly*, 86(2), pp. 361–395.

Lister, P. G. and Crisp, B. R. (2007) 'Critical incident analyses: A practice learning tool for students and practitioners', *Practice*, 19(1), pp. 47–60.

Loon, M. and Bell, R. (2018) 'The moderating effects of emotions on cognitive skills', *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 42(5), pp. 694–707..

Lowinger, R. J., He, Z., Lin, M. and Chang, M. (2014) 'The Impact of academic self efficacy, acculturation difficulties, and language abilities on procrastination behaviour in Chinese international students', *College Student Journal*, 48(1), pp. 141–152.

Luft, J. and Ingham, H. (1955) 'The Johari window: A graphic model of interpersonal awareness. Paper presented at: UCLA Extension Office.', in *The Proceedings of the Western Training Laboratory in Group Development, Los Angeles, CA*. UCLA Extension Office.

Lunenburg, F. (2010) 'The Interview as a Selection Device: Problems and Possibilities', *International Journal of Scholarly Academic Intellectual Diversity*, 12(1), pp. 1–7.

Määttä, K. (2015) 'A Good Supervisor--Ten Facts of Caring Supervision', *International Education Studies*, 8(9), pp. 185–193.

Macnair, R. and Elliott, T. (1992) 'Self-perceived problem-solving abi8lity, stress appraisal and coping over time', *Journal of Research in Personality*, 26, pp. 150–164.

Mael, F. A., Connerley, M. and Morath, R. . (1996) 'None of your business: Paramters of biodata invasiveness.', *Personnel Psychology*, 49(3), pp. 613–650.

Maher, F. A. and Tetreault, M. K. (1993) 'Frames of Positionality: Constructing Meaningful Dialogues about Gender and Race', *Anthropological Quarterly*, 66(3), pp. 118–126..

Maitlis, S. (2012) 'Narrative Analysis', in Symon, G. and Cassell, C. (eds) *Qualitative Organizational Research*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Mariskind, C. (2014) 'Teachers' care in higher education: contesting gendered constructions.', *Gender & Education,* 26(3), pp. 306–320.

Mark, G. and Smith, A. P. (2012) 'Effects of occupational stress, job characteristics, coping, and attributional style on the mental health and job satisfaction of university employees.', *Anxiety, Stress & Coping*, 25(1), pp. 63–78.

Marshall, S. (2017) *Rising to the challenges of Tomorrow*. Higher Education Academy, pp. 1–9.

Martin, V. and Thomas, M. C. (2000) 'A model psychoeducation group for shy college students', *The Journal for Specialists in Group Work*, 25(1), pp. 79–88.

Marton, F. and Booth, S. (1997) *Learning and Awareness*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

McCrae, R. R. and John, O. P. (1992) 'An Introduction to the Five-Factor Model and its Applications.', *Journal of Personality*, 60(2), pp. 175–215.

Melchior, M., Berkman, L., Niedhammer, I., Zins, M. and Goldberg, M. (2007) 'The mental health effects of multiple work and family demands.', *Social Psychiatry & Psychiatric Epidemiology*, 42(7), pp. 573–582.

Mental Health Foundation (2018) '*Stress: Are we coping?*' Available at: https://www.mentalhealth.org.uk/campaigns/mental-health-awareness-week (Accessed: 7 July 2018).

Meyer, J. and Land, R. (2003) *Threshold concepts and troublesome knowledge: Linkages to ways of thinking and practising within the Disciplines*. Edinburgh: University of Edinburgh (Enhancing Teaching-Learning Environments in Undergraduate Courses Project), p. 12. Available at: http://www.etl.tla.ed.ac.uk/docs/ETLreport4.pdf.

Meyer, J. H. F. and Land, R. (2005) 'Threshold concepts and troublesome knowledge: Epistemological considerations and a conceptual framework for teaching and learning', *Higher Education*, 49, pp. 373–388.

Mezirow, J. (1991) *Transformative Dimensions of Adult Learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Miles, M. . and Huberman, A. . (2014) *Qualitative Data Analysis*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

MindTools (2017) '*The Inverted-U Model: Balancing Pressure and Performance*'. Available at: https://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/inverted-u.htm.

Mintzberg, H. (1973) *The Nature of Managerial Work*. New York: Harper & Row.

Mintzberg, H. (1990) 'The manager's job: folklore and fact', *Harvard Business Review*, March-April

Moon, J. (1999) *Reflection in Learning and Professional Development*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge Falmer.

Moon, J. (2005) *We seek it here....A new perspective on the elusive activity of critical thinking: a theoretical and practical approach*. Bristol: Higher Education Academy.

Moon, J. (2006) *Learning journals: a handbook for reflective practice and professional development*. London: Routledge.

Morgan, G. (1986) *Images of Organization*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Morton-Cooper, A. and Palmer, A. (2000) *Mentoring, preceptorship and clinical supervision: A guide to professional roles in clinical practice*. Oxford: Blackwell Science.

Muse, L. A., Harris, S. G. and Field, H. S. (2003) 'Has the Inverted-U Theory of Stress and Job Performance Had a Fair Test?', *Human Performance*, 16(4), p. 349.

Myers and Briggs Foundation (2017) '*MBTI Basics*'. Available at: http://www.myersbriggs.org/my-mbti-personality-type/mbti-basics/home.htm?bhcp=1 (Accessed: 30 November 2017).

Nickels, B. . (1994) 'The nature of biodata', in Stokes, G. ., Mumford, M. ., and Owens, W. . (eds) *Biodata Handbook*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, pp. 1–16.

Nimmo, A. (2018) 'Accreditation, Recognition and Reward (ARR) Blog', *A muse on what it means to be professionally recognised...*. Available at: https://www.heacademy.ac.uk/muse-what-it-means-be-professionally-recognised%E2%80%A6 (Accessed: 1 March 2018).

Nind, M., Kilburn, D. and Wiles, R. (2015) 'Using video and dialogue to generate pedagogic knowledge: teachers, learners and researchers reflecting together on the pedagogy of social research methods.', *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 18(5), pp. 561–576.

Noddings, N. (1986) *A Feminine Approach to Ethics and Moral Education*. California: University of California Press.

Noldy, N. E., Stelmack, R. M. and Campbell, K. B. (1990) 'Event-Related Potentials and Recognition Memory For Pictures and Words: The Effects of Intentional and Incidental Learning.', *Psychophysiology*, 27(4), pp. 417–428.

Nonaka, I. and Takeuchi, H. (1995) *The knowledge-creating company: how Japanese companies create the dynamics of innovation*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Norman, R. (2000) 'Cultivating imagination in adult education', in *Adult Education Research Conference*. Vancouver, Canada. Available at: nttp://newprairiepress.org/aerc/2000/papers/63.

Norton, R. . (1997) 'Teacher effectiveness as a function of communicator style', in Ruben, B. (ed.) *Communication Yearbook 1*. Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books, pp. 525–542.

Nussbaum, J. . and Scott, M. D. (1980) 'Student learning as a relational outcome of teacher-student interaction', in Nimmo, D. (ed.) *Communication Yearbook 4*. New Brunswick, NJ: Transaction Books, pp. 553–564.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Leech, N. ., Slate, J. R., Stark, M., Sharma, B., Frels, R., Harris, K. and Combs, J. P. (2012) 'An Exemplar for Teaching and Learning Qualitative Research. *The Qualitative Report*, 17(1), 16-77.

Orland, L. (2000) 'What's in a Line? Exploration of a research and reflection tool', *Teachers and Teaching*, 6(2), pp. 197–213.

Oxford English Dictionary (2006) *Compact Oxford English Dictionary for Students*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Palmer, D. and Martínez, R. A. (2013) 'Teacher Agency in Bilingual Spaces: A Fresh Look at Preparing Teachers to Educate Latina/o Bilingual Children', *Review of Research in Education*, 37(1), pp. 269–297.

Panadero, E. (2017) 'A Review of Self-regulated Learning: Six Models and Four Directions for Research', *Frontiers in Psychology*, 8, p. 422.

Passmore J, Holloway M and Rawle-Cope M (2010) 'Using MBTI type to explore differences and the implications for practice for therapists and coaches: are executive coaches really like counsellors?', *Counselling Psychology Quarterly*, 23(1), pp. 1–16.

Pease, A. and Pease, B. (2004) *The Definitive Book of Body Language*. London: Orion Books.

Pekrun, R., Elliot, A. J. and Maier, M. A. (2009) 'Achievement goals and achievement emotions: Testing a model of their joint relations with academic performance', *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 101(1), pp. 115–135.

Pereira, Í. S. P. and Doecke, B. (2016) 'Storytelling for ordinary, practical purposes (Walter Benjamin's "The Storyteller").', *Pedagogy, Culture & Society*, 24(4), pp. 537–549.

Phillips, J. . and Russell, R. . (1994) 'Research self-efficacy, the research training environment, and research productivity among graduate students in counseling psychology', *The Counseling Psychologist*, 22, pp. 628–641.

Pinker, S. (2002) *The blank slate: The modern denial of human nature*. London: Penguin Books.

Pintrich, P. R. and de Groot, E. V. (1990) 'Motivational and self-regulated learning components of classroom academic performance.', *Journal of Educational Psychology*. (Motivation and efficacy in education: Research and new directions), 82(1), pp. 33–40.

Plax, T. G. and Kearney, P. (1992) 'Teacher power in the classroom: Defining and advancing a program of research', in Richmond, V. P. and McCroskey, J. C. (eds) *Power in the classroom: Communication, control, and concern*. Hillsdale, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, pp. 67–94.

Popovic, C., Lawton, R., Hill, A., Eland, J. and Morton, N. (2010*) Creating Future Proof Graduates.* Birmingham City University: HEA/ Birmingham City University, pp. 1–49.

Postareff, L. and Lindblom-Ylänne, S. (2011) 'Emotions and confidence within teaching in higher education', *Studies in Higher Education*, 36(7), pp. 799–813.

Pringle Barnes, G. and Cheng, M. (2018) 'Working independently on the dissertation proposal: experiences of international Master's students', *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, pp. 1–13.

Prosser, M. and Trigwell, K. (1999) *Understanding Learning and Teaching: The Experience in Higher Education*. Maidenhead: Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press.

Prostate Cancer (2012) – No longer available. See Macmillan website for details of various documents on https://be.macmillan.org.uk/be/s-671-cancer-type-p.aspx (Accessed: 7th May 2019)

QAA (2015) *Subject Benchmark Statement: Master's Degrees in Business and Management June 2015*. Available at: http://www.qaa.ac.uk/publications/information-and-guidance/publication?PubID=2958#.V6OKJK1fzYk (Accessed: 20 February 2017).

Quinlan, K. M. (2016) 'How Emotion Matters in Four Key Relationships in Teaching and Learning in Higher Education.', *College Teaching*, 64(3), pp. 101–111.

Quirkos (2018) *Quirkos*. Available at: https://www.quirkos.com/index.html (Accessed: 1 September 2018).

Rapley, T. (2011) 'Some pragmatics of data analyis', in *Qualitative Research*. 3rd ed. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Reeve, J. and Jang, H. (2006) 'What teachers say and do to support students' autonomy during a learning activity', Journal of Educational Psychology, 98(1), pp. 209–218..

Reio, T. G. (2005) 'Emotions as a lens to explore teacher identity and change: A commentary', *Emotions, teacher identity and change*, 21(8), pp. 985–993..

Roick, J. and Ringeisen, T. (2018) 'Students' math performance in higher education: Examining the role of self-regulated learning and self-efficacy', *Learning and Individual Differences*, 65, pp. 148–158.

Rousseau, D. M. (2001) 'Schema, promise and mutuality: The building blocks of the psychological contract', *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, (4), p. 511.

Ruch, G. (2009) 'Identifying "the critical" in a relationship-based model of reflection', *European Journal of Social Work*, 12(3), pp. 349–362. doi: 10.1080/13691450902930761.

Sadler-Smith, E. (2006) *Learning and Development for Managers*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Safford, K. and Stinton, J. (2016) 'Barriers to blended digital distance vocational learning for non-traditional students.', *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 47(1), pp. 135–150.

Saldaña, J. (2016) *The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers*. 3rd ed. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Santiago, J., Lupianez, J., Perez, E. and Funes, M. J. (2007) 'Time (also) flies from left to right', *Psychonomic Bulletin and Review*, 14(3), pp. 512–516.

Saunders, M. (2017) 'Ways of engaging 400 plus students that have worked (for me at least)', in Your Research Methodology Class has HOW MANY students? *The British Academy of Management Research Methodology Special Interest Group's 12th Annual Workshop on Teaching Research Methods to Business and Management Students*. Dublin.

Schein, E. (2004) *Organizational culture and leadership*. 3rd ed. San Francisco, CA: Wiley.

Schieman, S. and Van Gundy, K. (2001) 'Introspectiveness, Psychosocial Resources Depression', *Social Behavior & Personality: an international journal*, 29(2), pp. 105–111.

Schrems, B. M. (2014) 'Informed Consent, vulnerability and the risks of group-specific attribution', *Nursing Ethics*, 21(7), pp. 829–843.

Schön, D. (1987) *Educating the reflective practitioner*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Scott, R. . (2008) *Robert Falconer Scott: Journals: Captain Scott's Last Expedition*. Oxford: Open University Press.

Selye, H. (1976) *Stress in Health and Disease*. Boston, MA.: Butterworth's Inc.

Sherrod, L. and Singer, J. (1989) 'The development of make-believe play', in Goldstein, J. (ed.) *Sports, games and play*. Hillsdale, N.J.: Erlbaum, pp. 1–38.

Shulman, L. (1986) 'Those who understand. Knowledge growth in teaching.', *Educational Researcher*, 15(4), pp. 4–14.

Shutova, E. and Teufel, S. (2010) 'Metaphor Corpus Annotated for Source-Target Domain Mappings', in *Proceedings of LREC*.

Silverman, D. (2017) *Doing Qualitative Research*. 5th ed. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Simon, J. B. (2010) '*Using Kolb's Experiential Learning Cycle to Develop a Structured Approach for Accounting and Business Research Methods'*. Available at: http://www2.hull.ac.uk/hubs/pdf/Memorandum%2086%20Simon.pdf (Accessed: 17 October 2014).

Simons, H. (2009) *Case study research in practice*. Sage Publications Ltd.

Simpson, J. (1988) *Touching the void*. London: Vintage.

Sisco, H. and Reilly, R. R. (2007) 'Development and validation of a Biodata Inventory as an alternative method to measurement of the five factor model of personality', *The Social Science Journal*, 44(2), pp. 383–389.

Smith, R.H., Turner, T.J., Garonzik, R., Leach, C.W., Urch-Druskat, V. and Weston, C.M. (1996) 'Envy and Schadenfreude', *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22(2), pp. 158–168.

Smith, V. J. (2011) 'It's the relationship that matters: A qualitative analysis of the role of the student–tutor relationship in counselling training.', *Counselling Psychology Quarterly*, 24(3), pp. 233–246..

Sneyers, E., Jacobs, K. and Struyf, E. (2016) 'Impact of an in-service training in neurocognitive insights on teacher stress, teacher professionalism and teacher student relationships.', *European Journal of Teacher Education*, 39(2), pp. 253–266.

Somekh, B. (2009) 'Agency through action research: Constructing active identities through theoretical models and metaphors', in Noffke, N. . and Somekh, B. (eds) *The Sage Handbook of Educational Action Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, pp. 370–380.

Somers, M. R. (1994) 'The narrative constitution of identity: A relational and network approach', *Theory and Society*, 23(5), pp. 605–649.

Sorensen, G. (1989) 'The relationships among teachers' self disclosure statements, students' perceptions, and affective learning', *Communication Education*, 38, pp. 259–276.

Sparkes, A. C. and Smith, B. (2008) 'Narrative Constructionist Inquiry', in Holstein, J. and Gubrium, J. (eds) *Handbook Of Constructionist Research*. New York: Guildford Press, pp. 295–314.

Speer, S. (2012) 'The interactional organization of self-praise: epistemics, preference organization, and implications for identity research', *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 75(1), pp. 52–79.

Stake, R. . (1995) *The Art of Case Study Research*. Sage.

Stark, L. and Crawford, K. (2015) 'The conservatism of Emoji: Work, Affect, and Communication', *Social Media + Society*, (July-December), pp. 1–11.

Starr-Glass, D. and Ali, T. (2012) 'Double standards: when an undergraduate dissertation becomes the object of two different assessment approaches.', *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 37(2), pp. 179–192.

Stedmon, J. and Dallos, R.(eds) (2009) *Reflective Practice in Psychotherapy and Counselling*. Maidenhead: University Press.

Stern, L. R. (2004) 'Executive coaching: A working definition.', *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 56(3), pp. 154–162.

Sternberg, R. J. (2003) 'WICS: A Model of Leadership in Organizations.', *Academy of Management Learning & Education*, 2(4), pp. 386–401.

Storey, V. A. and Wang, V. C. X. (2017) 'Critical Friends Protocol: Andragogy and Learning in a Graduate Classroom.', Adult Learning, 28(3), pp. 107–117.

Styles, I. and Radloff, A. (2000) 'Jabba the Hut: Research students' feelings about doing a thesis', in *Teaching and Learning Forum 2000*. Available at: http://clt.curtin.edu.au/events/conferences/tlf/tlf2000/styles.html (Accessed: 7 May 2016).

Sulastri, A., Handoko, M. and Janssens, J. M. A. M. (2015) 'Grade point average and biographical data in personal resumes: predictors of finding employment', *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth*, 20(3), pp. 306–316.

Symon, G. and Cassell, C. (2012) *Qualitative Organizational Research*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Szabo, S., Tache, Y. and Somogyi, A. (2012) 'The legacy of Hans Selye and the origins of stress research: A retrospective 75 years after his landmark brief "Letter" to the Editor of "Nature"', *Stress*, 15(5), pp. 472–478.

Szalay, L. B. and Bryson, J. A. (1976) 'Comparative Analysis of Words and Pictures through Associations', *Psychological Reports*, 38(1), pp. 275–296.

Taha, N. and Cox, A. (2016) 'International students' networks: a case study in a UK university.', *Studies in Higher Education*, 41(1), pp. 182–198.

Taylor, L. A. (2017) 'How teachers become teacher researchers: Narrative as a tool for teacher identity construction', *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 61(Supplement C), pp. 16–25.

Team technology (2017) '*INFJ Careers* (Based on Research)'. Available at: http://www.teamtechnology.co.uk/personality/types/infj/careers/ (Accessed: 12 January 2017).

Teven, J. J. and McCroskey, J. C. (1997) 'The relationship of perceived teacher caring with student learning and teacher evaluation', *Communication Education*, 46, pp. 1–9.

Thomas, G. (2009) *How to do your research project*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Thomas, G. (2011) *How to do your Case Study: A Guide for Students and Researchers*. London: Sage.

Thompson, S. (2010) *Unjustifiable risk? The story of British climbing*. Singapore: KHI.

Tight, M. (2010) 'The curious case of case study: a viewpoint.', *International Journal of Social Research Methodology,* 13(4), pp. 329–339.

Tight, M. (2017) *Understanding Case Study Research: Small-scale Research with Meaning*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Trigwell, K. (2012) 'Relations between teachers' emotions in teaching and their approaches to teaching in higher education', *Instructional Science*, 40(3), pp. 607–621.

Tripp, D. (1993) *Critical incidents in teaching: developing professional judgement*. London: Routledge Falmer.

Tripp, T. and Rich, P. (2012) 'Using video to analyze one's own teaching.', *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 43(4), pp. 678–704.

Tuckman, B. and Jensen, M. (1977) 'Stages of small group development revisited', *Group and Organization Studies*, 2(4), pp. 419–427.

Turner, J. E. (2014) 'Researching State Shame With the Experiential Shame Scale.', *Journal of Psychology*, 148(5), pp. 577–601.

Universities UK (2017) *Higher Education in Facts and Figures*. London. Available at: www.universitiesuk.ac.uk.

Usher, R. S. (1985) 'Beyond the Anecdotal: Adult Learning and the Use of Experience', *Studies in the Education of Adults*, 17(1), pp. 59–74.

Vachon, B. and LeBlanc, J. (2011) 'Effectiveness of past and current critical incident analysis on reflective learning and practice change', *Medical Education*, 45, pp. 894–904.

Van der Want, A. C., den Brok, P., Beijaard, D., Brekelmans, M., Claessens, L. C. A. and Pennings, H. J. M. (2015) 'Teachers' Interpersonal Role Identity.', *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research*, 59(4), pp. 424–442.

Van Lankveld, T., Schoonenboom, J., Volman, M., Croiset, G. and Beishuizen, J. (2017) 'Developing a teacher identity in the university context: a systematic review of the literature', *Higher Education Research & Development*, 36(2), pp. 325–342.

Van Note Chism, N., Douglas, E. and Hilson, W. J. (2008) *Qualitative research basics: A guide for engineering educators*. Rigorous Research in Engineering Education. Available at:

https://crlte.engin.umich.edu/wp-content/uploads/sites/7/2013/06/Chism-Douglas-Hilson-Qualitative-Research-Basics-A-Guide-for-Engineering-Educators.pdf (Accessed: 11 September 2017).

Van Praag, L., Stevens, P. A. J. and Van Houtte, M. (2017) 'How humor makes or breaks student-teacher relationships: A classroom ethnography in Belgium', *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 66(Supplement C), pp. 393–401.

Vecchio, R. P. (1987) 'Situational Leadership Theory: An Examination of a Prescriptive Theory.', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72(3), pp. 444–451.

Villavicencio, F. T. and Bernardo, A. B. I. (2013) 'Positive academic emotions moderate the relationship between self-regulation and academic achievement', *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83(2), pp. 329–340.

Vince, R. and Warren, S. (2012) 'Participatory Visual Methods', in Symon, G. and Cassell, C. (eds) *Qualitative Organizational Research*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Von Bertalanffy, L. (1968) *General System Theory: Foundations, Development and Applications*. New York: George Braziller. Available at: https://monoskop.org/images/7/77/Von_Bertalanffy_Ludwig_General_System_Theory_1968.pdf (Accessed: 23 April 2018).

Vos, L. (2013) *Dissertation study at postgraduate level: A review of the literature*. York: The Higher Education Academy, pp. 1–21. Available at: www.heacademy.ac.uk.

Vries-Erich, J. M., Dornan, T., Boerboom, T. B. B., Jaarsma, A. D. C. and Helmich, E. (2016) 'Dealing with emotions: medical undergraduates' preferences in sharing their experiences.', *Medical Education*, 50(8), pp. 817–828.

Vroom, V. (1964) *Work and motivation*. New York: John Wiley.

Vygotsky, L. (1978) *Mind in Society*. London and Mass.: Harvard University Press.

Wagener, B. (2018) 'The importance of affects, self-regulation and relationships in the writing of a master's thesis.', *Teaching in Higher Education*, 23(2), pp. 227–242.

Wang, T., Shu, S. and Mo, L. (2014) 'Blue or red? The effects of colour on the emotions of Chinese people', *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 17(2), pp. 152–158.

Wanzer, M. B. and Frymier, A. B. (1999) 'The relationship between student perceptions of instructor humor and students' reports of learning', *Communication Education*, 48, pp. 48–62.

Ward, J. and Shortt, H. (2013) 'Evaluation in management education: A visual approach to drawing out emotion in student learning', *Management Learning*, 44(5), pp. 435–452.

Watson, G. and Gallagher, K. (2005) *Managing for Results*. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Watson, G. and Reissner, S. (2014) *Developing skills for business leadership*. 2nd ed. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

Wells, G. (1999) *Dialogic Inquiry: Toward a Sociocultural Practice and Theory of Education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Wenger, E. (1998) *Communities of Practice: Learning, meaning and identity*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Werner, T. and Rogers, K. S. (2013) 'Scholar-Craftsmanship: Question-Type, Epistemology, Culture of Inquiry, and Personality-Type in Dissertation Research Design.', *Adult Learning*, 24(4), pp. 159–166.

Westman M and Eden D (1996) 'The inverted-U relationship between stress and performance: a field study.', *Work & Stress*, 10(2), pp. 165–173.

Wilkinson, S. (2011) 'Analysing Focus Group Data', in Silverman, D. (ed.) *Qualitative Research*. 3rd ed. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Williams, C. (2003) *Overcoming Anxiety: A five areas approach*. London: Hodder Arnold.

Williams, C. (2018) '*Living Life*'. Available at: https://llttf.com/ (Accessed 5th May 2019).

Wilson, J. H., Ryan, R. G. and Pugh, J. L. (2010) 'Professor-Student Rapport Scale Predicts Student Outcomes.', *Teaching of Psychology*, 37(4), pp. 246–251.

Winlow, H., Simm, D., Marvell, A. and Schaaf, R. (2013) 'Using Focus Group Research to Support Teaching and Learning.', *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 37(2), pp. 292–303.

Winter, R. (1987) *Action Research and the Nature of Social Inquiry: Professional Innovation and Educational Work*. London: Avebury Gower Publishing Company.

Witherell, C. and Noddings, N. (1991) *Stories lives tell*. New York: Teachers College Press.

Wood, D., Bruner, J. . and Ross, G. (1976) 'The role of tutoring in problem solving', *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines*, 17(2), pp. 89–100.

Wood, L., Van Der Spuy, A., Jayakrishnan, L. and Pienaar, V. (2018) 'Humour in Multicultural South African Texts: Finding Common Ground', *Athens Journal of Mass Multi Media and Communications*, (July).

Work after Cancer Treatment (2010) No longer available – Refer to: Macmillan (2016) *Work and Cancer*. Available at: http://be.macmillan.org.uk/Downloads/CancerInformation/WorkAndCancer/MAC11675Work-and-cancere6lowrespdf20161114ALM.pdf (Accessed 7th May, 2019).

Wrathall, M. (2005) *Heidegger*. London: Grants Books.

Yazan, B. (2015) 'Three approaches to case study methods in education: Yin, Merriam and Stake', *The Qualitative Report*, 20(2), pp. 134–152.

Yin, R. . (2009) *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. 4th ed. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Zeffman, H. (2018) 'Mental Health "biggest issue for students"', *The Times*. June 25th.

Zhang, L. and Watkins, D. (2001) 'Cognitive Development and Student Approaches to Learning: An Investigation of Perry's Theory with Chinese and U.S. University Students', *Higher Education*, p. 239.

Zhang, Q. and Zhu, W. (2008) 'Exploring Emotion in Teaching: Emotional Labor, Burnout, and Satisfaction in Chinese Higher Education', *Communication Education*, 57(1), pp. 105–122.

Zhou, Y., Jindal-Snape, D., Topping, K. and Todman, J. (2008) 'Theoretical models of culture shock and adaptation in international students in higher education.', *Studies in Higher Education*, 33(1), pp. 63–75.

Zimmerman, B. J. (2002) 'Becoming a Self-Regulated Learner: An Overview.', *Theory Into Practice,* 41(2), p. 64.

Zimmerman, B. J. and Schunk, D. H.(eds) (2011) *Handbook of Self-Regulation of Learning and Performance*. New York: Routledge.

Zuber-Skerritt, O. (1996) *New directions in Action Research*. London: Falmer.

7: Research Thesis Appendices

7 RESEARCH THESIS APPENDICES

7.1 APPENDIX 1: QUALITY ASSURANCE AGENCY GUIDELINES (2015) FOR ALL MASTER'S PROGRAMMES:

Perhaps the most tangible of these requirements is the benchmark statement provided by the Quality Assurance Agency guidelines, which read as follows for all Master's programmes:

- *the ability to conduct research and enquiry into business and management issues either individually or as part of a team through research design, the collection and analysis of qualitative and quantitative data, synthesis and reporting*

Source: (QAA) *Subject Benchmark Statement: Master's Degrees in Business and Management* June 2015, p.11

Available from http://www.qaa.ac.uk/publications/information-and-guidance/publication?PubID=2958#.V6OKJK1fzYk

[Accessed: 04/08/2016]

And in section 5.1 (p.13) there are a number of benchmark standards which students who have been awarded master's degrees will have demonstrated:

> *iv an understanding of appropriate techniques sufficient to allow detailed investigation into relevant business and management issues*
>
> *v creativity in the application of knowledge, together with a practical understanding of how established techniques of research and enquiry are used to develop and interpret knowledge in business and management*
>
> *vi ability to acquire and analyse data and information, to evaluate their relevance and validity, and to synthesise a range of information in the context of new situations*
>
> *vii conceptual understanding that enables the student to:*
>
> *a. evaluate the rigour and validity of published research and assess its relevance to new situations*
>
> *b. use existing research and scholarship to identify new or revised approaches to practice*

viii ability to conduct research into business and management issues that requires familiarity with a range of business data, research sources and appropriate methodologies, and for such to inform the overall learning process

In the previous QAA benchmark (2007) under section 4 Teaching, Learning and Assessment (p.7) there was specific mention made of the dissertation:

Sec 4.2 Where appropriate, assignments may include, immediate application of knowledge and skills within organisations. A dissertation or project can be particularly important in this context.

http://www.qaa.ac.uk/en/Publications/Documents/Subject-benchmark-statement-Master's-degrees-in-business-and-management.pdf [Accessed 04/08/2016]

This approach has been continued in the 2015 (p.12) benchmark but there is further provision for different types of 'assessable integrative work' to be undertaken instead of the dissertation. This means that master's work (at least for business and management degrees) need not have a dissertation to assess these outcomes. This is consistent with the aim of such degrees to produce (post) graduate students who are capable of applying theory to practice within the workplace.

7.2 APPENDIX 2: CIPD

The Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) has devised its own framework for practising Human Resources managers which features a wheel of skills that includes the behaviour of being 'Curious' and another of being a 'Decisive Thinker' (CIPD, 2014). Its requirement is for graduates who can conduct small-scale research in the organisation to identify and quantify areas of concern and produce workable recommendations for management to implement. For instance, its Level 7 Advanced Qualifications (leading to the CIPD Advanced Certificate and Advanced Diploma) includes the module 'Investigating a business issue from an HR perspective'. [Note: this was the module used for the purposes of this study]. The following is taken from the CIPD website's overview of the module:

> *Key elements of professional competence are strategic awareness, a business orientation*
> *and a concern with adding value through HR practice. Qualified professionals should be able*
> *to research relevant topics and write reports that can persuade key stakeholders in the*
> *organisation to change or adopt a particular policy or procedure.*

http://www.cipd.co.uk/flexible-learning/qualifications/what-you-will-learn.aspx [Accessed 05/08/2016]

As noted earlier in Chapter 2: Context, business and management degrees have always been closely allied to the aim of supplying industry with skills-ready graduate recruits who can apply what they have learned at University to the realm of the workplace. The relationship between university and employer has been forged over recent years through a symbiotic need in which the development of the graduate student is the focus: thus, if we take the CIPD professional qualifications as an example, universities work 'cheek by jowl' with the CIPD as 'accredited centres' for the provision of HR master's degrees which simultaneously meet the requirements of accreditation to the professional status of chartered membership of the CIPD. Furthering the example, universities will often marry the requirements of the professional body (in this case the CIPD) with their own post-graduate degree philosophy (meeting QAA requirements); for instance, the CIPD module ' Investigating a business issue from an HR perspective' is featured in various universities' Master's' degrees as a title. Essentially, this particular module (which is typical of the approach) is asking students to conduct research that is problem-centred or at the very least considered from – as it says – the HR perspective, which by implication is from a managerial perspective.

7.3 APPENDIX 3: BIGGS' '3P' MODEL OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

A schematic model of teaching and learning that considers teaching as a complex *system* married to a philosophy in which 'learners arrive at meaning and construct their own knowledge through both individual and social activity' has been devised by Biggs (1996, p.348). According to systems theory (Von Bertalanffy, 1968), the various parts of the system are connected, so that making a change in one part affects the other parts. Also, simple systems are nested within larger systems, rather like Russian dolls. So, according to Biggs (1996, p.350) at the classroom level the system consists of the teacher, students, teaching context, learning activities and the outcome. This is nested within the institutional system. A schematic model (Biggs, Kember and Leung, 2001) shows both classroom and institutional aspects of teaching and learning (see Fig. 8.0)

PRESAGE   **PROCESS**   **PRODUCT**

STUDENT FACTORS
- Prior knowledge
- Ability
- *Preferred approaches to learning*

LEARNING-FOCUSED ACTIVITIES

Ongoing approaches to learning

LEARNING OUTCOMES
Quantitative, facts, skills
Qualitative, structure, transfer
Contextual approach to learning

TEACHING CONTEXT
- Objectives
- Assessement
- Climate/ ethos
- Teaching
- Institutional procedures

British Journal of Educational Psychology (2001), 71, 133–149
The revised two-factor Study Process
Questionnaire: R-SPQ-2F
John Biggs, David Kember and Doris Y.P. Leung

Fig. 8.0 The '3 P' model of teaching and learning (Biggs, Kember and Leung, 2001, p.136)

The process that learners pass through is shown to have 3 stages: Presage, Process and Product. The term 'Presage' is not used in the conventional dictionary sense of a warning. According to Biggs (2001, p.135) 'Presage factors refer to what exists prior to engagement that affects learning'. Thus, both student and teacher bring with them a range of factors. Biggs appears to focus upon the students' prior knowledge, abilities and preferred approaches

to learning whilst the corresponding aspects for the teacher would seem to be implicitly included under 'Teaching Context'. As the other key actor in the process I would argue for the more explicit depiction of the teacher's presage – i.e. Their prior knowledge, abilities and preferred approaches to teaching. The 'Learning- focused activities' are the means through which learning takes place. The work of Biggs carries weight in my own research because it is set within the context of Higher Education teaching. Also, the credibility of the '3 P' model has been tested by academics inasmuch as it has been used in the teaching and learning approach of 'constructive alignment' (Biggs, 1996) which is the basis for linking assessment to teaching.

Performance Phase

Self-Control
Imagery
Self-instruction
Attention focusing
Task strategies

Self-Observation
Self-recording
Self-experimentation

Forethought Phase

Task Analysis
Goal setting
Strategic Planning

Self-Motivation Beliefs
Self-efficacy
Outcome expectations
Intrinsic interest/value
Learning goal orientation

Self-Reflection Phase

Self-Judgment
Self-evaluation
Causal attribution

Self-Reaction
Self-satisfaction/affect
Adaptive/ defensive

Phases and Subprocesses of Self-Regulation (Zimmerman, 2002, p.67)

Positive Affect Transitional Framework (Beard, Humberstone and Clayton, 2014, p.640)

Investigating a Business Issue from a Human Resources Perspective

Module title	Investigating a Business Issue from a Human Resources Perspective
Level	7*
Credit value	15
Module code	7IBI
Module review date	December 2019

*Comparable to RQF Level 7, Level 9 in Ireland, Level 11 in Scotland and EQF Level 7

Purpose and aim of module

Key elements of professional competence are strategic awareness, a business orientation and a concern with adding value through human resource (HR) practice. Qualified professionals should be able to research relevant topics and write reports that can persuade key stakeholders in the organisation to change or adopt a particular policy and practice. This module provides the opportunity for learners to demonstrate the ability to diagnose and investigate a live, complex business issue from an HR perspective, to locate the work within the body of contemporary knowledge, to collect and analyse data, to derive supportable conclusions and to make practical and actionable recommendations for change, improvement or enhancement of current practice. The applied nature of the report requires a critical evaluative approach, empirical investigation and analysis and a combination of academic research and business report writing skills. It requires reflection on the implications for professional practice from an ethical, professional and continuous professional development standpoint.

This module is suitable for persons who:

* have responsibility for HR decision making within an organisation at either operational, tactical or more strategic level
* are HR professionals in a team or HR functional management role who are seeking to enhance and develop their career
* have responsibilities for the HR function and activities within an organisation without a specialist function
* are independent consultants who support organisations in meeting their goals
* have HR career and CIPD professional membership aspirations.

Learning outcomes

On completion of this module, learners will be able to:

1. Identify and justify a business issue that is of strategic relevance to the organisation.
2. Critically analyse and discuss existing literature, contemporary HR policy and practice relevant to the chosen issue.
3. Compare and contrast the relative merits of different research methods and their relevance to different situations.
4. Undertake a systematic analysis of quantitative and/or qualitative information and present the results in a clear and consistent format.
5. Draw realistic and appropriate conclusions and make recommendations based on costed options.
6. Develop and present a persuasive business report.
7. Write a reflective account of what has been learned during the project and how this can be applied in the future.

University of Sunderland

Participant Information

Study Title: **Improving Research Self efficacy amongst Post Graduate Students in a community of practice**

What is the purpose of the study? **To investigate participatory methods of teaching and learning amongst post graduate students engaging in research**

Why have I been approached? **Because you are a post graduate student**

Do I have to take part? **No**

What will happen to me if I take part? **You will engage in a series of learning activities in class with other students which includes a self-efficacy questionnaire, a focus group exercise, a critical incident analysis (video) workshop, and an individual follow-up interview with me.** (Delete any element which does not apply)

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part? **None**

What are the possible benefits of taking part? **Learning how to do research in a more effective manner. Deepening of own awareness of self in terms of values, beliefs. Improved awareness of others values and beliefs.**

Will my taking part in this study be kept confidential? **Yes**

What will happen to the results of the research study? **They will be used to further professional knowledge of how to teach post graduate students as part of my professional doctorate study (Kevin Gallagher)**

Who is organising and funding the research?
The research is organised by Kevin Gallagher,who is a Professional Doctorate student at the University of Sunderland, Sunderland Business School.

Who has reviewed the study?
Dr Paul Smith of the Faculty of Business and Law and Dr Bridget Cooper of the Faculty of Education have reviewed and approved the study.

Contacts for further information
Kevin Gallagher
email: kevin.gallagher@sunderland.ac.uk

Supervisor: Dr Paul Smith
Email: paul.j.smith@sunderland.ac.uk

Dr Etta Evans
(Chairperson of the University of Sunderland Research Ethics Committee)
Email: etta.evans@sunderland.ac.uk
Phone: 0191 515 2624

University of Sunderland

Participation
Consent Form

Study title: **Improving Research Self efficacy amongst Post Graduate Students in a community of practice**

I am over the age of 16

•

I have read and
understood the attached study information and, by signing below, I consent to participate in this study

•

I understand that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason.

Signed: _____

Print name: _____

Date: _____6th July 2016_____

Witnessed by: _____

Print name: ___Kevin Gallagher_____

Date: _____6th July 2016__

University of Sunderland

Data Request form

Study title: **Improving Research Self efficacy amongst Post Graduate Students in a community of practice**

During PGB M85 workshops you will remember that you took part in a number of activities; some of these were at the end of normal workshops; others you may have volunteered to attend. I explained at the time that I would be using your feedback (with your permission) to inform my own research in my professional doctorate.

Now it's my turn to help you! Now that you are engaging with PGB M86 you may wish to request a copy of your own data.

Kevin, could you please send me a copy of my individual data to my student email address of the following:

Date	PGB M85 research COP activity	Data item requested	Please tick ✔
20th Nov 2015	Diagnosing my own self efficacy as a student researcher	Own self efficacy questionnaire	✓
		Chart and mean scores of all respondents (anonymous)	✓
11 Dec 2015	My 3 words and picture of my 'research journey to date'	Own words and picture	✓
	Focus group discussion on 3 words and picture	Focus group transcript	✓
		Focus group audio	✓
29th Jan 2016	Critical incident – interviewing each other on video	Transcript of self and other person	✓
		Video of self and other	✓
March – April 2016	One-one interview/ reflection (with me) of M85 research COP activities	Interview transcript	✓

Signed: _____

Print name: _____

Date: __6th July 2016

8: Professional Portfolio

8   PROFESSIONAL PORTFOLIO

The purpose of my Professional Portfolio is twofold: to show details of my own 'becoming' as a teacher in Higher Education, from the early days of my working life up to the time of my doctoral thesis; and to demonstrate relevant published contributions to my community of practice relating to students' development of skills, with a particular emphasis here upon the affective aspects of self-management. It demonstrates my own moving from a largely skills-based emphasis in my academic publishing to one which is beginning to embrace deeper, emotional aspects of learning.

8.1   CONTRIBUTIONS TO COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE

My contributions to my community of practice may be considered in terms of the findings from my Research Thesis and the supporting accomplishments described here in my Professional Portfolio.

Perhaps most notable in this portfolio is my authorship of a number of successful skills textbooks for developing study and employability skills of business and management students (p. 331 onwards) which have been used throughout Higher Education institutions in the UK and also used internationally. I have also published at Master's level for the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development in some of their core-accredited textbooks (p.333). In both of these textbooks I have adapted previous theories of anxiety so that they related to the student experience. For a quick visual of my skills book writing see **Professional Portfolio Appendix: 9.4 Back Cover Testaments - p.350, Appendix 9.5: Oxford University Press Website: Latest – p.354, Appendix 9.6: Gallagher Skills Textbooks: Amazon Best Sellers – p.355.**

As discussed in my Thesis 'Personal Reflections' my Professional Doctorate represents the culmination of many years of my professional career as a university teacher. As explained in my thesis methodology, as a qualitative researcher I am part of the research process; this is one reason for including section 8.2, 'What kind of researcher are you?' The sections that follow also take the reader 'behind the scenes', to reveal how the ideas for the research thesis developed over time, going back to my previous careers in civil engineering and business development. I have couched this discussion in terms of professional identity, identifying values which have influenced my behaviour.

The other reason for the inclusion of this portfolio is to offer examples of academic work which I have completed, which contributes to my community of practice. With this aim in mind, I have included an account of the successful skills textbooks that I have written. I have used these extensively within my own teaching at university; they are an important part of who I am as an academic. There are also examples, elsewhere in my portfolio (Sec 8.7.2 'Using my textbooks to help students overcome anxiety' - see pp. 332 onwards), of my nascent writing upon stress and anxiety - issues which feature strongly in my main thesis.

8.2 WHAT KIND OF RESEARCHER ARE YOU?

Valerie Anderson is a leading author on teaching research methods for Human Resources professionals. She poses the question: 'What kind of researcher are you?' (Anderson ,2009, p.14) and argues that the answer has a powerful influence upon the choice of the researcher's topic and their research methodology. Indeed, as one of the principle actors of the 'Guide Process' intervention (the other, perhaps more obvious actors being the Students who took part), it is reasonable to include this self-analysis. Thus, for the sake of illuminating my own methodological stance as a researcher during the various phases of my research, I will now briefly outline some of the experiences that have influenced me as a researcher and me as a teacher. As will become apparent, my methodology is predominantly qualitative (Bryman and Bell, 2015) in nature and my role as a researcher in this doctoral research is that of an 'insider' (Anderson, 2009, p.15).

My own background as a researcher is something that is linked to the subject of my research, how the research is carried out and how it is interpreted. I will begin by discussing some of the formative influences on my stance as a researcher – beginning with my experience as a university student which, being that of an engineering student, was heavily influenced itself by the profession into which I soon found myself working. The language of 'professional identity' (Ibarra, 1999) will assist this discussion. I will then outline another key influence on me as a teacher – namely my time spent as a lecturer and then textbook author, seeking to help business and management students with their skills development.

8.3 MY STORY AND PROFESSIONAL IDENTITIES

Introduction

Professional identity has been defined as '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). However, according to Taylor (2017), teachers continually reconstruct their professional identities, influenced by their social interaction with those around them; and that past personal and professional identities are not forgotten but assimilated within the individual and 'serve as a resource that travels over space and time' (Taylor, 2017, p.17). For, it is not only students who create their own narratives; teachers do too, as previously mentioned (Bessette and Paris, 2016). According to Kincheloe (2005) 'becoming a critical practitioner [i.e. a teacher] necessitates insight into the construction of selfhood and personal transformation' Fig 8.1 shows salient points in my career.

Timeline showing career, MBA and Teaching/ Learning Fellowship, & Authorship
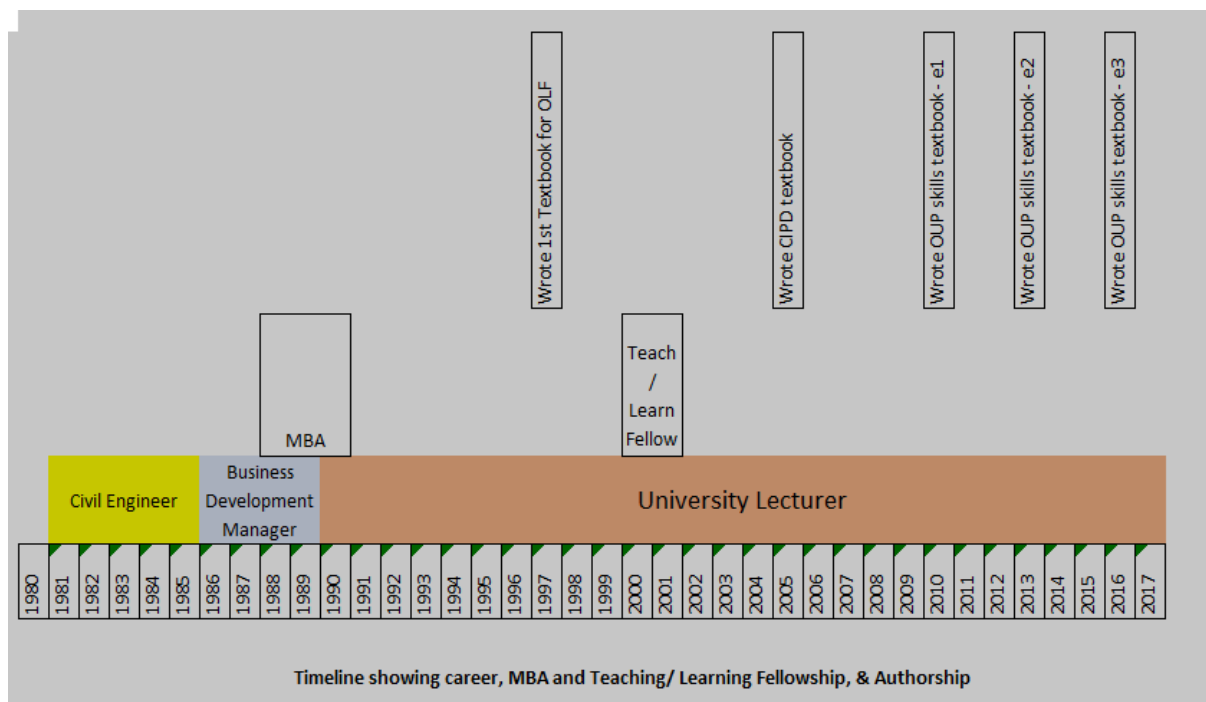
Fig. 8.1 Career Timeline

8.3.1 My Story - mostly career-related with underlying messages

As discussed in my research methodology (see p.103 onwards), I used stories from my career and life experiences as a means of positioning myself with my students. Here, they also

---

provide a more personal introduction to the experiences which influenced who I have become as a teacher and researcher.

The following section, entitled ' My Story' is a stylised summary of the key details of my biographical story, as told to my research participants, simultaneously showing some of the positional factors, including my values, upon which this doctoral research is based. Regarding my work experiences abroad, a brief note is relevant at this point: these enabled me to deeply understand other different cultures, and appreciate the strengths of more equal and tolerant societies like my own leaving me able to value others and treat them compassionately both in interaction and when trying to understand the issues they faced as individuals. As far as telling 'My Story' goes, it was not all told at the same time (too long for that!), nor written down, but told more in the tradition of stories around the campfire (Le Guin, 1980) without a beginning or end, to illustrate a message, each time subtly changing to match the audience and their response. According to Hamer (1999) when teachers tell stories they are going beyond simply covering the required material; they are giving a performance which is unique in terms of place, time, audience, events and mood. The re-telling of the story *was* the experience, as Downey and Clandinin (2010) explain:

> *Stories are not just about experience but experience itself: we live and learn in, and through, the living, telling, retelling, and reliving of our stories*

(Downey and Clandinin, 2010) (Huber et al., 2013)

My Story

The Demolition Years

Hi, I'm Kevin. I've been a lecturer at this university for many years, but I wasn't always one. I'm a British white guy, a 'baby boomer', who enjoyed a comfortable middle-class upbringing in a stable home environment. My dad and uncle set up their own demolition business in the 1960's and I used to work for them during my school

summer holidays. From 14 years old I was on the sites with my dad and 'the lads', most of who had few academic qualifications, many coming from what could be considered to be 'rough' areas [*message: you need to be able to work with people who are from different social walks of life*]. Work could be physically hard and potentially mind-numbingly boring [*message: Many jobs are boring. You and me – we're lucky to have the chance to choose a challenging career. The 'lads' taught me the importance of social interaction to get through the working day.*]. My dad taught me the value of getting a job done, hard graft, and not to put on airs and graces [*message: you are responsible for getting things done*]. He was in his element in creatively thinking of ways to dismantle buildings and hoarded all sorts of reclaimed materials which inevitably were put to good use at work or in the home, albeit looks often came second to function [*message: be creative! Be an entrepreneur! (Bricoleur?)*]. As the boss's son I felt a responsibility towards the family company but always wanted to 'do my own thing'.

The Civil Engineering years

So, I went to university and graduated as a civil engineer. My civil engineering degree was my passport to another life [*message: so your master's degree might do the same for you*]. Although not a natural climber I loved being in the mountains and being outdoors. In 1982 the UK was going through one of its construction downturns with few prospects for newly qualified engineers, and I was looking for a job. So, attracted by the lure of the superb mountains of the Drakensberg and the desire for a little adventure I left for South Africa, a land where I knew no-one, and spent two years as a civil engineer. I lived for the weekends when I could spend time with my newly-met climbing buddies at the Johannesburg Mountaineering Club.

Looking back, I was very naïve about the political situation of apartheid when I arrived. I spent my first year on site in a hot, dusty, smelly chemical works working in the

heavy foundations division of a major construction company. I lived in a worker's hostel (think of 'Auf Wiedersehen Pet' and you are 90% there!). The whole experience was a cultural awakening and a total re-evaluation of my comfortable middle-class assumptions. Suddenly there were conflicts, and not just the obvious apartheid issues – the aftermath of the Boer Wars (1880-81 and 1899-1902) still resounded, with white Afrikaners dominant against white British-speaking South Africans. In the bars and at the barbecues my country of birth was being attacked verbally by various cultural and ethnic groups and this was most disconcerting!; no-one seemed to be able to agree politically. It was a land of extremes. On the construction site I worked with a construction 'gang' who were recruited from the Xhosa, Tswana, Sotho and Zulu peoples who lived in their own hostels. Many of them clearly had a tough life. It is interesting to note that even today one of the differences between the South African cultures is that they find it difficult to laugh at the same things (Wood et al., 2018). Yet their humour was revealing. Thus, typically the work gangs had mischievous nicknames for all of the white 'bosses', often playing on words. I got to know mine from my surveying assistant, shortly before I left: "McGogglegosh". It is a combination of my spectacle wearing (goggles) and 'tokolosh' (a mythical goblin-like character who lives under beds). Hardly a ringing personal endorsement, but very inventive! [**message: working in a different culture is not always easy. Sometimes we need to question our own assumptions and reformulate our beliefs. We might not like what we find!**].

The Business Development Manager Years

When I came back to the UK in 1984 (to be with my future wife) I worked for a while for my dad and my uncle in their demolition company. I realised that my engineering degree had not given me much insight into an important aspect of what I was doing – managing people. So, I took a part-time diploma in management studies at the local

polytechnic. Barely two years later, married and with our first child on the way, I was made redundant! Yes, from a family company – how did that happen? I can truly say that I hated this time but it forced me to change [**message: every cloud has a silver lining**]; I felt emasculated – my inner work ethic did not want to listen to reason. But once again, my new qualification provided my passport to a new life. [**message: it worked for me – it could for you**] I left civil engineering, and on the back of my management diploma took up a job with a major national wastepaper company at their Cardiff head office, as their first 'business development manager', reporting directly to the managing director. It was a great job: I was working on a wide variety of projects to do with changes to the company, and I had a great deal of autonomy. A major one was implementing a new quality assurance system, working with depot managers across Wales and England: the technical side was easy – it was working with people that was the challenge [**message: building rapport is often essential for success**]. The company was expanding rapidly and needed new depot managers, so I took the lead in recruiting them and setting up their 6 months training based upon my own induction experience. I became keener to expand my managerial knowledge and qualifications so I signed up for a part-time MBA at Cardiff. I wanted to share my new-found knowledge with others. I put myself on a British Safety Council training course for managers and then promoted this for other managers. Then I made contact with Henley College, as I knew that few of the company's managers had formal management qualifications, many of them having risen through the ranks as foremen or lorry drivers (very few women were in operations management positions in those days in the wastepaper trade). Six managers took the Henley Distance Learning Diploma, with me acting as their self-appointed mentor. We met every month at a different depot as we worked our way through the exercises and reflected upon how to implement the managerial strategies. Managers would take pride in showing the others

around their site. Everyone seemed to enjoy the course, including me. So, when after four years with the company, and wanting to relocate for family reasons, my old polytechnic advertised for lecturers in business studies, I felt ready to make the move to a career in management education. And, once again, my new MBA qualification was my passport to doing this. [**message: qualifications, were the key once again! Plus, of course, experience in doing what I wanted to do more of**].

The Teacher / Author Years

I've been a university teacher since 1990 and a published author of textbooks since 1997. My most recent one was 2016. Never believe those who say that what they write is fictitious…invariably there is an element of reality somewhere! If you read my books you will see stories from my career popping up from time to time. For me, writing is an extension of my being a teacher: I enjoy meeting up with the publisher and talking about what will be included in the next edition. I log into Amazon daily every September/ October when the university term starts, taking an almost obsessive delight/ dismay in tracking my latest textbook sales against the 'opposition'. Academic book sales are relatively minor in the scheme of things, but I do get so competitive! [**message: emotions drive us. Why not admit it? What drives you?**]. A group of other, anonymous academics will review my writing and make suggestions for improvement. I think I'm starting to tolerate what I perceive as negative comments better – but still feel sometimes like scrunching their notes up into a ball and throwing them into the bin! I'm such a thin-skinned soul, but knowing that doesn't help much at the time! Fortunately, I now recognise my reactions for what they are (arrogance and insecurity – thankyou, Daniel Goleman (Goleman, 1996), for your insight into emotional intelligence!) and usually I will metaphorically retrieve their comments from the bin a few days later and concede that perhaps they do have a point, or at the very least I

should review that particular section again. It helps at this point to think that these people are actually trying to help me to produce a better piece of work (even if sometimes they are rather short in diplomatic skills)– and that is what really matters [message: try not to take criticism personally – look at the bigger picture. Do you really want to improve? Then you must take criticism on board. Your teachers are not the enemy! They want you to do well!]

The Aspirant Doctoral Years

Which brings me now to my recent life as a student. Granted, that this is as a doctoral student, but a student nevertheless. Other than the occasional updates on (relevant) episodes of my research life, perhaps the story I return to most is the one which is featured here within my doctoral research, concerning my self-made critical incident in which I asked a group of my students to rate me across 18 possible roles as a lecturer. The answers provided were by turns encouraging and disappointing – please see p.341 for details. For instance, I thought they might view me more as someone they could confide in, but this was not the case [message: we might think we know ourselves fully but this is not the case, for we all have 'blind spots' (Luft and Ingham, 1955). We need to be open to others. And we need to be prepared to grow, as education is growth (Dewey, 1916).

The following section discusses 4 of my professional identities in more detail and their contribution towards these beliefs and values (see Fig 8.1 Career Timeline, p.319). The last of these – my professional identity as a textbook writer- coincided with the time at which I commenced my doctoral research; indeed, my motives as a textbook writer directly impacted upon my choice of research topic. There have been significant changes in my research identity since commencing my doctorate which relate to the methodology of my research, and these are included to bring this discussion up to date.

8.4 CIVIL ENGINEERING INFLUENCES

As a Civil Engineer (1981-1986), my work was largely task-oriented. In my Civil Engineering degree I learned about cause and effect. This focused upon why buildings stayed standing up, considered stresses and strains in materials and how to design structures according to set codes of practice. All research was empirical, objective and highly quantitative. My final year research project considered the properties of Athabasca clay during successive freeze/ thaw cycles (important for the foundations of structures built on permafrost) and was laboratory-based using experimental techniques. The underlying epistemology (though we did not refer to this term) was Scientific. My role as a researcher was to measure the effects of particular variables upon the physical properties of my material and to seek out the underlying (immutable) rules and correlations if they existed. The ontology of this approach was Objective; things just 'were' and always had been. Again, we did not use the term of 'ontology'. Research in the Civil Engineering laboratory was a continuation from school physics and chemistry experiments. Research was impersonal and procedurally oriented. The Scientific paradigm was accepted without question (Van Note Chism, Douglas and Hilson, 2008, p.5).

Personality as a factor of Professional Identity

In their Scholar-Craftsmanship framework, Werner and Rogers (2013) depict how personality, one of the strands of professional identity (Watson and Reissner, 2014, p.128), may be best suited to different types of scholarship for social science doctoral students conducting their first-time doctoral research. They use Myers-Briggs Type Indicators (MBTI) of personality in their model (Myers and Briggs Foundation, 2017) . These are based upon the following 4 dimensions: Extraversion (E) vs Introversion (I); Sensing (S) vs Intuition (N); Thinking (T) vs Feeling (F); and Judging (J) vs Perceiving (P). According to the Scholar-Craftsmanship methodological framework (Werner and Rogers, 2013) I was engaging with the 'Analytical Scientist' quadrant (see Literature Review for further details) during my civil engineering research. According to their model this best suits a Sensing-Thinking personality. My present MBTI profile is INFJ, which does not suit this quadrant.

As with the use of any questionnaire-based self-analysis, the MBTI results need to be considered as an indicator rather than a definitive answer. Despite being, in recent years, one of the most widely-used inventories in the world (Bishop-Clark, Dietz-Uhler and Fisher, 2007, p. 492), it is still rather crude in that it pigeon-holes personalities into 16 possible

profiles. Furthermore, its use is being increasingly challenged by the Five Factor Model (McCrae and John, 1992) which measures personality across the 5 factors of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness (please refer to my portfolio for my personal results and further discussion on personality). This model is now often preferred by many psychology researchers. In practice too, the Five Factor Model is also gaining ascendency; for instance, training specialists in the US Military have advocated that it should be used rather than the MBTI model (Gerras and Wong, 2016). So, the MBTI model carries the caveat that it has been used here because Werner and Rogers (2013) have used it in their Scholar-Craftsmanship model (discussed above), and also it is still regarded as a good means of raising personal self-awareness and reflection (Gerras and Wong, 2016, p.57).

Regarding the question as to whether or not personality can change (and by implication the permanence of an associated MBTI profile), it would appear that changes are possible (Cordina et al., 2015) but tend to be towards personality traits becoming more strongly defined along the original orientations. This finding suggests that my personality profile was still that of INFJ during the 1980's when I was a civil engineering student – which was not a good fit for me.

8.5 BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT MANAGER

Prior to leaving engineering as a career, I studied part-time for a post graduate Diploma in Management Studies. My motivation was to better understand how businesses worked, as I felt this was the world in which I was working, a world of projects with tasks and people as opposed to a highly technical design office environment. It proved to be a gateway to a whole new career in business. Redundancy coincided with the completion of my course and my decision to seek managerial work. I was fortunate in my appointment as 'Business Development Manager', reporting directly to the Managing Director of a major waste paper recycling company at their head office in Cardiff, a position I held from 1986 until 1990. This was a brand new role and I had plenty of scope to shape the various projects which I undertook. A lot of these involved some basic research and were of the problem-solving type (Werner and Rogers, 2013); they were basic in terms of technical understanding, but demanding in terms of persuading and educating managers to adopt the more professional approach to management which the company was advocating. This included investigating the need for new quality procedures, the recruitment and training of a new 'breed' of managers who could motivate their staff, hit production and safety targets, and be capable of

negotiating with senior staff from outside organisations. As a relatively young manager dealing with managers across a wide age range, some with many years in the industry, this was a big challenge. However, this seemed to suit my style; I had worked with labourers and lorry drivers in my father's demolition company and in my civil engineering career and felt I could empathise with both workers and managers. I could drive a bull-dozer and light goods vehicles, erect scaffold, use oxy-acetylene cutting gear and lead a team of workers on site. I could discuss schedules with clients and technical details with engineers. To sum this up: I had some useful experience of a hard-nosed industrial environment which I felt was transferable to a similar context of tasks, deadlines and achieving goals through people. In my new role as Business Development Manager I was given some tasks (e.g. evaluating existing contracts and developing investment proposals for new equipment) but I could also develop other aspects of the business. And so it was, that I chose to improve the professional skills of the company's managers; few had management qualifications, so I established a training programme. I used Henley Distance Learning materials as a resource and obtained funding for two area managers and five managers to complete their diploma. Every month I arranged for us to meet up at one of their factories for a morning, and I led the agenda. During this time we discussed the managerial activities of the Henley course and everyone made notes on how they could apply what they had learnt to their own work environment. However, a real bonus was unexpected: many managers got a real 'buzz' from showing off their factory to the other managers and neighbouring area managers swapped client information in a friendly, open way. They all went to Henley College to receive their diplomas. As another bonus, I used this project as part of a comparative case study for my MBA, which I was studying part-time (the other two organisations I used were the Royal Ordnance and British Rail; both had used the Henley Distance Learning materials). Again, considering Werner (2013) and the Scholar-Craftsmanship model, this project fitted in to their 3rd quadrant of research which was to "understand", is problem oriented, and suits an MBTI profile (Myers and Briggs Foundation, 2017) which is Intuitive and Feeling. This matches my present MBTI profile of INFJ. Additionally, what this example shows, was my desire to help others to learn. Further, it demonstrates my own interest in learning. Again, this is consistent with the INFJ profile which is summarised below:

INFJ: Seek meaning and connection in ideas, relationships, and material possessions. Want to understand what motivates people and are insightful about others. Conscientious and committed to their firm values. Develop a clear vision about how best to serve the common good. Organized and decisive in implementing their vision.

(Myers and Briggs Foundation, 2017)

According to Passmore, Holloway M and Rawle-Cope (2010, p.14), who conducted research into executive coaches and counsellors, the INFJ profile is commonly referred to as 'The Counsellor' . They found that the INFJ profile was prominent in their study for both executive coaches and counsellors. In particular the NF elements may be placed into a subgrouping which is classified as 'The Idealist' group. They found the Idealist group was the most prevalent type for executive coaches and counsellors (p.4, p.11). Also, they found that NFs scored highly in empathy and helping people to reflect (p.11), and that they were friendly without being the coachee's friend, requirements cited by Stern (2004) for the executive coach.

Researcher and Teacher Implications

What this example shows is that, left to my choice, my inclination was to play the role of coach and counsellor in my Business Development Manager position (1986-1990). Taking a keen interest in my own professional development and learning, as evidenced through my voluntary participation in a part-time MBA (1988 – 1990), I was keen to pass on my new knowledge to those around me. This was something which grew over time. I did not know then that I was an INFJ personality type, that this influenced my preference for looking at problems from a meanings perspective and of wanting to help others through coaching. I just felt more comfortable in my new role compared to my previous civil engineering career. And, much as I enjoyed my time as Business Development Manager, my MBA opened my eyes to one further career: teaching in Higher Education. And, once again, the means by which I could transition from one world (management) to another world (teaching) was a qualification: the MBA.

8.6 BUSINESS SCHOOL LECTURER (OR SHOULD THAT BE 'TEACHER'?)

In 1990 I began my career as a Business School Lecturer. However, note that I prefer to use the term 'university teacher' rather than 'university lecturer'. I adopted this term after reading Cowan's text *On becoming an innovative university teacher* '(Cowan, 2006). Professor John Cowan - Emeritus Professor of Learning Development UK Open University 2014 (Allendoefer, 2016) - was one of my professors when I was a civil engineering student. His lectures were engaging, his manner at once enthusiastic and laced with a dry sense of wit and delivered with a friendly Glaswegian brogue. So, when I first started to teach, I sought to emulate something of the great man's approach and style. However, perhaps of greater influence for me was Cowan's interest in learning for its own sake. He had introduced 'The Learning Unit' (Bhattacharya et al., 2000) to the Civil Engineering department, a tutorial room in which students listened to his spoken pre-recorded audio tapes, as they tackled set structural engineering problems.

Then, in 2001, five years after leaving engineering and at a time when I was a Business School lecturer, I read the first edition of his book (Cowan, 2006). The term 'University Teacher' used in the title seemed to me to be a fitting description of how he taught. Lectures were events students attended, and I associated the term 'lecturer' with lectures rather than the experience of learning. The term 'University Teacher' reminded me that there was a person other than the student involved in the Teaching and Learning process that was (hopefully) taking place – that the process was a *social* interaction (Quinlan, 2016).

Cowan's book described many of the learning interventions he had collaborated on over the years, bringing to life how experiential learning theories, such as the work of Kolb (1984) and (Schön, 1987) could be applied in a University context. As such, his work could be considered to be 'action research' (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000, p.226; Bhattacharya et al., 2000). The idea that the Teacher could plan the learning process, reflect on what happened in practice and then look for *generalisations* (Cowan, 2006) to apply to similar situations and test these out, appealed to the pragmatist in me. Theories and models were exactly that: just representations of reality. They were not reality, but they were the means to share teaching approaches with other teachers (I was a case in point), and they seemed to work.

In fact, I was so impressed by the book that I arranged to meet my former professor to discuss his theories and their application to my University of Sunderland Teaching and

Learning Fellowship (this was during 2000 – 2002). I travelled to Edinburgh and my old professor greeted me at his home like an old friend! Except, of course, I still felt like a student! The title of this doctoral research 'The University Teacher as Guide' seems very apt upon reflection of this instance, for as an aspiring researcher I still had my old guide – Professor Cowan. He served as a teaching role model when I first started to teach. I sought to emulate his passion for his subject, and his ability to convey the meaning of key principles through the use of stories, anecdotes and metaphors. During my Teaching Fellowship I was more experienced than during my early days as a teacher, but I was still very much a novice as a researcher.

8.7 TEXTBOOK WRITER – PROVIDING TEACHING RESOURCES

In 1997 I began to write management textbooks as an adjunct to my teaching at the Business School. I wrote voluntarily, mainly during holiday periods. I found that I enjoyed doing this and thought that I could be good at it. Once again, writing is consistent with my personality profile INFJ (team technology, 2017). My initial motivation was an ambition to be a 'better' teacher, to meet other teachers, and to use my textbook for my own students. My intention was always to make learning as close as possible to real-life situations, influenced at the time by the company Video Arts which produced training videos depicting actors in typical case study scenarios.

I had used these videos when training managers in my previous role as Business Development Manager. I had also trained managers in 1989 with the Henley Distance Learning materials which also used videos as well as interactive course books. So, I was used to the idea that good quality teaching resources could be an effective way of helping students to learn; that they could be incorporated by the teacher/ trainer into a programme of study.

8.7.1   Contribution to HE Teaching Profession: Successful Textbooks with Oxford University Press

Through my textbooks I have been able to influence thousands of students and many academic staff in their teaching of Study and Employment skills for Business and Management Students. I have always used my textbooks in my own teaching and, indeed, many of the student vignettes have been the result of my students' contributions. My publisher, Oxford University Press, is the largest university press in the world and is a department of the University of Oxford. This gives it a significant presence and credibility in

Higher Education. Its area sales managers are in close contact with practising academics throughout the UK. My textbooks are also recommended reading for a number of international institutions which teach in English, such as in Malaysia and Hong Kong.

All textbooks go through an extremely rigorous quality assurance process in which they are reviewed by anonymous academic subject experts, as well as the 'Delegates' of the Oxford University Press who vet all book proposals strictly for their financial viability. Working closely with my editors and reviewers, I have accurate, up-to-date views and opinions of the academic market; this in turn is influenced itself by wider educational policy and the demands of industry.

The fact that I have three successful editions of my skills textbook (2010, 2013, 2016) with a fourth edition now likely, demonstrates that my writing has had, and continues to have, an impact upon my professional community of practice. For reasons of publisher confidentiality I am unable to give precise sales figures, so to provide evidence here of the reach of my books I have included screenshots of my present edition as shown on the OUP website and also two instances of rankings in the Amazon best-sellers (shown in **Portfoflio Appendix 9.6 – p.355**) for under and postgraduate student guides.

8.7.2   Using my textbooks to help students overcome anxiety

Of direct relevance to my Doctoral research thesis is my previous published work on helping students to overcome anxiety (**see Fig 8.2 on next page**). Anxiety featured strongly in the findings of my study on Master's students doing their research projects. One aspect of this was feeling uncomfortable at times in situations where they had to talk to others. This was most apparent in their comments about not liking to hear their own voices on audio or see themselves on video. This is perhaps part of a broader social anxiety syndrome, as often observed when they are asked to give presentations. As managers of the future, this is a skill that many of them will be required to use as an important communication method, as they may be required to 'persuade key stakeholders' using research reports (See CIPD, p.307). Evidence of my writing to date on helping students cope with anxiety – in this case how to cope with doing presentations – is shown below in Fig 8.2. This is based upon the work of (Williams, 2003) and is an adaptation specifically related to giving presentations, of his 'Five Areas Approach' to overcoming anxiety; this features in an NHS website for anxiety, based on Cognitive Behavioural Therapy, which has had 30 million hits (Williams, 2018).

Figure 9.10 Overcoming anxiety in presentations—helpful scenario
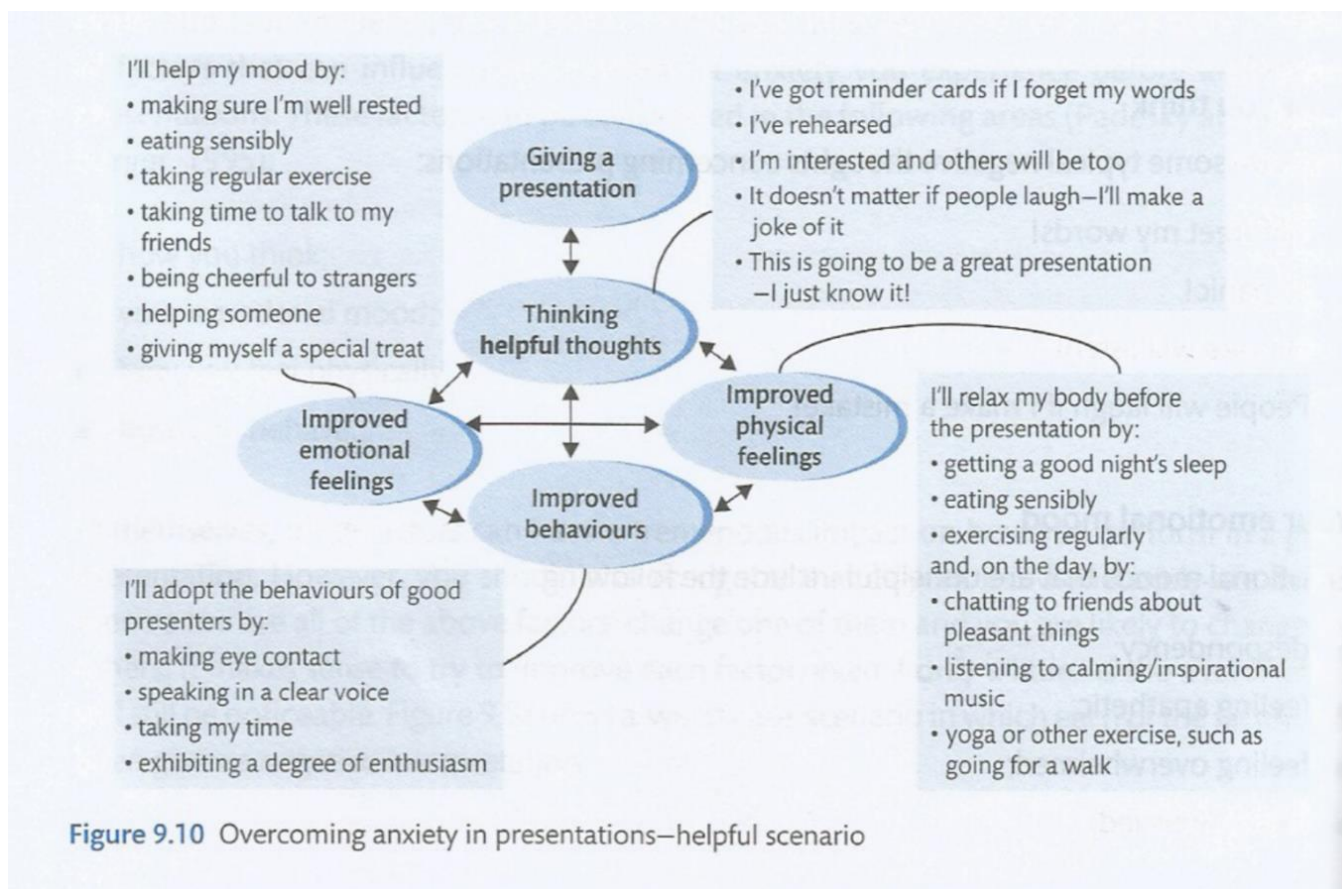
Fig. 8.2 Overcoming anxiety in Presentations: Source; Gallagher, K. (2016, p.176) *Essential study and employment skills for business and management students*. 3rd ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

I also wrote the chapter 'Concepts of Self and Self-Management Skills' in Watson, G. and Reissner, S. (2014) *Developing skills for business leadership*. 2nd ed. London: Chartered Instititute of Personnel and Development. Of note for my Doctoral research thesis, is the depiction I make of how personal and work stresses can combine (**See fig. 8.3, overleaf**). For instance, the drawings of my Phase 2 findings often show a variety of personal, work and study-based stresses can combine in the minds of individuals.

High

Relative
Pressure

Potential
Combination
effect

Work life

Personal life

Low

TIME

Key: ○
Critical incidents – eg new product launch,
promotion, dispute, death of friend etc
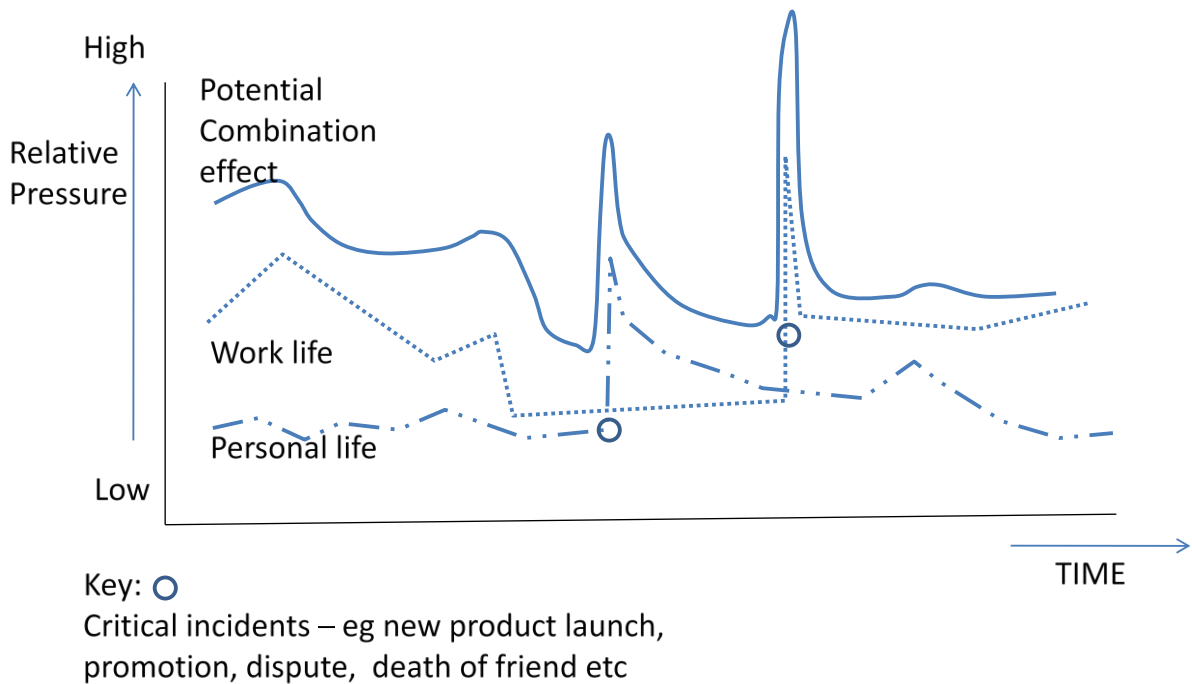
Fig. 8.3   Potential combination effects of personal life and work life in an individual : Source: Gallagher, 2016, p.109 in Watson, G. and Reissner, S. (2014) *Developing skills for business leadership*. 2nd ed. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development.

The same chapter also shows my developing interest in promoting empathy – in this instance amongst human resource managers, for staff returning to work after prolonged illness. It does this by using a case study, which tells the story of a fictitious individual and his rehabilitation journey back to work. It provides an outline of the legal requirements of the company in such cases; perhaps more importantly, it seeks to create awareness of the often unseen physical and emotional realities that such individuals face (See **Portfolio Appendix 9.3: Returning to Work as a Cancer Survivor – p.348).**

8.8 USING VIDEO TO CAPTURE CRITICAL INCIDENTS: PROVIDING TEACHING RESOURCES

Following the publication of two of my textbooks (Watson and Gallagher (2005) and Gallagher (2010)) I became much more interested in exploring the possibilities of developing the web-based resource centre materials that the publishers had requested as accompaniments to the books. In particular, I was interested in the medium itself, which allowed for uploading of videos. I thought that it might be a good idea to bring the skills sections of my books to life by interviewing students about their experiences at work or university and creating my own short videos which could be uploaded to You Tube. With the participants' permission I did this in several instances. The videos took the form of interviews in which I asked the student about a particular critical incident (Tripp, 1993:Tripp and Rich, 2012) that they had encountered, such as giving a memorable presentation. The book's learning resource centre was designed by the publisher to link to my YouTube site. It was about this time that I became aware of an initiative that had also used videos of critical incidents to promote the learning of skills – 'Creating Future Proof Graduates' (Popovic et al., 2010). This had been set up as a CETL (Centre for Excellence in Teaching and Learning) funded venture; it used actors to play the parts of students and was led by a group of academics from Birmingham City University. The term 'scenario-based learning' was being used and other academics were using this for a range of disciplines (Errington, 2010), so videos and critical incidents seemed to be promising avenues of enquiry. And this was how I came to my initial decision to centre my doctoral research around the production of a video-based resource; this would feature my own students recalling critical incidents.

At the beginning I proposed that my research would track the progress of students as they made their videos and then reflected upon lessons learned; future studies could consider the effectiveness of using past examples of videos to assist the learning of new students. On reflection now, there were positivist leanings to my intended research as, in many ways it would be an evaluative study of cause and effect; the cause being the use of videos for critical reflection and the effect being quantified in some way – for instance using the Research Self-efficacy Scale (Phillips and Russell, 1994). The study would be a form of experiment with self-efficacy (Bandura, 1985) of students being measured before and after the 'intervention'.

However, as it transpired, my use of video changed later. I still used video as a method of collating and analysing dialogue between students as they interviewed each other on their

critical incidents but I had decided against using it as a video-based resource. This was because I came to the conclusion that the major benefit of the videos was to the participants themselves and for my research it offered a rich source of audio and visual data in a dynamic situation (LeBaron et al., 2017).

Critical Incidents of What?

But what would the critical incidents be about? At first, I thought of focussing on individual skill areas such as 'creativity' or 'problem solving' or 'managing self' – all areas that had been addressed as individual chapters in my textbook (Gallagher, 2010). But then, after all of this, it suddenly occurred to me in a flash of insight (Sadler-Smith, 2006, p.155), that rather than compartmentalising areas of skill, what I should be looking at was something that I encountered every day as a Teacher – the holistic experience of students taking on their research projects. Thus, I would capture many elements of skills development, including the emotional aspects of learning, within a nicely bounded situation, which I tacitly felt (Sadler-Smith, 2006, p.153; Burke and Sadler-Smith, 2006; Sternberg, 2003, p.388) after years of experience, would be of great interest to the Teaching Profession.

8.9 THE METAPHOR OF THE 'GUIDE PROCESS'

It soon became apparent to me that my initial idea of focusing solely on producing a video resource with my students was rather limiting. From my own experience and reading the literature, I realised that obtaining sufficient student volunteers to video each other was going to be difficult, as many students felt apprehensive of sharing their experiences, let alone recording each other on video. This prompted me to establish a series of introductory tasks to establish rapport with students.

An emergent methodology

Out of this emerged something which proved to be far more important than the use of videos as a teaching resource: I decided to add to the introductory tasks. These aimed to develop students' grasp of research methods and used the students' own personal data in a shared environment. Using their own personal data would ensure that they could readily relate to research techniques and would encourage them to share critical incidents at a later stage. This pragmatic decision had far-reaching consequences. The tasks became increasingly reflexive as time went on. Ultimately, they were to culminate in students discussing critical incidents

concerning their experiences of doing their research projects. And so, through a number of incremental improvements characteristic of action research' (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2000, p.226; Bhattacharya et al., 2000), the focus of my doctoral research changed towards '*the ultimate goal of both actors* (i.e. Student and Teacher): *personal growth and development within self and field*' (Ferris, 2003, p.375). Thus, while I had previously been looking at developing research skills, i.e. the 'field' skills just described, I expanded this to also include 'personal growth'. Research skills related to students' understanding and application of research techniques to different situations; according to Barnett (2004, p.257) these are knowledge-related and may be analysed from an epistemological approach.

An Age of Uncertainty

Barnett (2004) argues that graduates now live in an age of information-overload to the extent that it is no longer possible for them to know everything. Moreover, he says that we live in an age of uncertainty, of the unknowable – even to the point of the indescribable. He calls this 'supercomplexity' and argues that this is 'intrinsic to the modern conception of the university' (Barnett, 2004, p.249). He argues that this requires the personal development of students in terms of their very being. This must be analysed from an ontological viewpoint.

Use of Metaphor to Analyse Uncertainty

Tellingly, Barnett (2004, p.257) states that 'Such a pedagogy is to be understood not primarily through pedagogical strategies but is much more to be caught through metaphorical descriptors' This parallels my own use of the 'Guide Process' as the metaphor for my research. Also, there are various uses of metaphor within the Phased Guided Activities (which are also amongst the research methods used here) that students were involved with during the research: for instance, the use of 3 words to describe their research journeys and the drawings they used to illustrate them.

8.10 CHALLENGES AND CHANGES AS A RESEARCHER: CLOSING REMARKS

These personal reflections cover both my Thesis and Professional Portfolio.

When I first started to work on my doctorate I was already a seasoned business school lecturer and author, with several published textbooks; these focused upon study and employment skills for undergraduate students. I had also made contributions to textbooks for a professional body (CIPD) that considered the topics of self-organisation and managing people in projects (for further details of CIPD publications, please see p. 352 of Portfolio). My motivations for writing textbooks had been threefold: firstly, to improve my knowledge and understanding of my subject area through secondary research, coupled with my own gathering of best practice examples, by talking directly to business practitioners/ experts; secondly, to use the exercises in my textbooks with my own university students with the aim of enthusing them in their learning; and thirdly, I enjoyed the process of discussing and then improving my ideas with my publisher and their academic reviewers.

After enjoying a modicum of success in my authoring endeavours and many years of university teaching, I could have chosen to be content with my academic lot. However, I thought that to be a 'real academic' I really had to consider 'doing some research'. A psychologist might say that my desire to relate to my professional identity (Ibarra, 1999) was urging me on. And, so I embarked on my journey. Once I took the decision to go down the doctoral path, it was in my character (**see p.356 my** Insights personality profile **and p.359 for my INFJ link to my research design**) to doggedly continue. Ultimately, I view the professional doctorate as my research apprenticeship and the next phase of my learning.

Other would-be doctoral candidates have written about their learning experiences. They all seem to say similar things: Hunt (2001, p.351) thus talks about 'climbing out of the void' and 'moving from chaos to concepts'. I have to report that it was no different for me. At first, as an ex-engineer with an affinity for structure, I really struggled with this: I recall an academic colleague (now a professor) who told me simply "you have to learn to live with the chaos". Ironically, during my doctoral journey I was crossing liminal boundaries (Meyer and Land, 2005), experiencing much of the angst felt by the very post graduate students I was researching during their dissertations. I found that the structured

way of writing individual chapters for textbooks was very different to the demands of the deeper research and criticality required for the doctorate. I have had to swap roles from that of a teacher to that of a student and be prepared to listen to, rather than just hear the advice of my supervisors. An account of a 'behind the scenes' chronological development of my doctorate, from its early days to the point at which I commenced teaching my participants on the 'Guide Process' is shown in my Professional Portfolio.

As a final personal reflection, I should mention that talking about my research with others has reaffirmed that I share the following values with many other teachers that I have met and worked alongside: a love of learning for its own sake; a constant curiosity; a need to share my knowledge with others because it makes me feel good when 'they get it', and frustrated when they do not. Over many years I have been encultured within the Higher Education environment, to the extent that I no longer think of myself as the 'Manager' I once was but as the 'University Teacher' I have now become. Continuing my journey to 'becoming' (Dall'Alba, 2009) a better researcher and writer remains as my goal.

9: Portfolio Appendices

9.1 PORTFOLIO APPENDIX 1 : PERSONAL EXAMPLE OF AN ANALYSED CRITICAL INCIDENT (GALLAGHER, 2012)

*Note: This was **my own, genuine critical incident**, as used in my presentation to participants in Phase 3 of my research, prior to them doing their own critical incident interviews and recording on video. It is a copy of an assignment I wrote for the Reflective Practice Module of my Professional Doctorate.*

ASSIGNMENT EXTRACT (Gallagher, 2012)

Key Roles of a Lecturer: How did I measure up?

- **The Multifaceted Lecturer**

Erving Goffman (1959) used the term 'dramaturgical' to describe the roles which people used in everyday life. He proposed that they acted out roles as if in a play, as if they were actors on stage. In some ways I can relate to this: common parlance for asking if someone is about to give a lecture is "are you on (i.e. on stage)?". We are taught to behave in certain kinds of ways if we are to give a presentation – to project our voice, to amend our body language (Pease and Pease, 2004). To say that lecturers are sometimes actors would not be stretching credibility too far. Some might even argue that some lectures contain an element of entertainment.

The educational lecturers of the medical profession tend to lead in the teaching of professional practice when it comes to the reflective practitioner – their jobs revolve around treating patients and then thinking about what went well and what did not. The article "The good teacher is more than a lecturer - the twelve roles of the teacher" (Harden and Crosby, 2000) identifies roles which it then groups into 6 areas as follows:

1. The information provider in the lecturer and in the clinical context
2. The role model on-the-job, and in more formal teaching settings
3. The facilitator as a mentor and learning facilitator
4. The student assessor and curriculum evaluation
5. The curriculum course planner
6. The resource material creator and study guide producer

In a more general, non-medical sense, but again showing the multiplicity of lecturer roles, Hall (1996) gave the following key teaching roles for his university in New Zealand:

1. Subject Expert
2. Course designer and manager
3. Communicator
4. Assessor (writing assessment task)
5. Motivator/ empowerer of learning
6. Academic Adviser
7. Research supervisor
8. Self-manager
9. Evaluator (marking and giving feedback)
10. Bi-culture partner (this one considered encouraging both Maori and non-Maori peoples to participate in learning)

Creating my lecturer roles questionnaire

Based on (Mintzberg, 1973;, 1990) and Goffman (1959), and checked against Harden and Crosby (2000) and Hall (1996), I produced the following list of 18 possible roles for a lecturer in the Business School:

1. Student's Friend
2. Coach
3. 'School' Teacher (Didactic)
4. Work Professional
5. Motivator
6. Subject Expert
7. Facilitator/ Adviser
8. Enthusiast
9. Entertainer
10. Actor
11. Counsellor / Confidant
12. Guardian (replacement Mum/ Dad/ Uncle/ Aunt)
13. Career Mentor
14. Author/ Writer
15. Researcher
16. Assessor/ Examiner/ Marker

17. Academic Leader

18. Bridge to others / systems in the University

18 Possible Lecturer/ Tutor Roles (Gallagher, 2012)

Asking students to rate me on my lecturer roles

I then decided to put these into a basic questionnaire and ask a group of my students to rate me against the roles. They were allowed a total of 10 marks which they had to allocate against whichever role they wished. Out of curiosity (!) I asked them to rate some of their other tutors; my intention here was to be able to observe in which roles they perceived me most strongly; also, I would be able to see from the observations of the other lecturers' ratings if there was a range of lecturing 'styles' emerging. This was a very crude experiment as my sample was limited to 12 students in that particular class, but it quickly showed some interesting results. I came out high as a 'work professional', 'subject expert', 'enthusiast' and 'author/ writer'. It was interesting to note that 2 of the other lecturers scored highly as 'student friends' and that one lecturer was given the top score of 10 by two students as 'work professional' and 'subject expert'.

Following discussions of my initial findings with JK , I reissued the questionnaire to a further group of 9 students. The results confirmed those of the first sample. The combined results of 21 students are shown below in figure 9.2, which places results in a pareto chart:

Fig. 9.2 Role analysis - Kevin Gallagher - Oct/Dec 2012
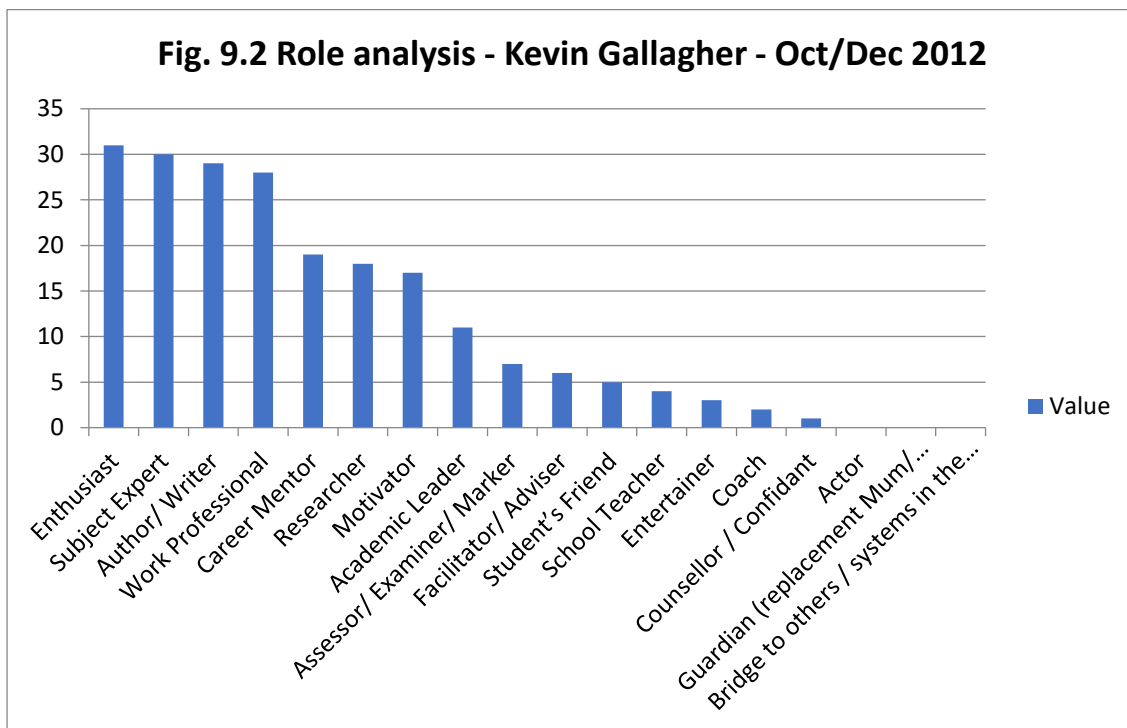
Analysis of Fig 9.2

Some of the findings from my questionnaire were quite expected. After teaching for more than 20 years I thought that I had a fairly good understanding of what my teaching roles were and what students thought of me: however, I was to find one or two surprises and disappointments, as well as some reassuring results. I have considered each of the questionnaire items in turn and noted my prior assumptions and revised assumptions after distributing and analysing the results. These are summarised below in Fig 9.3.

Fig. 9.3 Reflections on my critical incident: assumptions challenged, deep structure revealed

n=21 students in questionnaire sample

ROLE	Value	My assumptions before critical incident	My assumptions after critical incident
Enthusiast	31	I am quite enthusiastic	Surprised to find this rated highest by students
Subject Expert	30	I research my skills area but I am unsure of students' perception	Students seem to think of me strongly in this way
Author/ Writer	29	I am using my own textbook so think this will be apparent to students	I was correct in my original assumption
Work Professional	28	It is 22 years since I worked 'in industry – think some of this should show through in my teaching	Students confirmed that this is still apparent in my teaching
Career Mentor	19	My skills module advocates career development – but unsure if students take this seriously	Clear that students do take this seriously and view me as a career mentor
Researcher	18	I do not regard myself as an established researcher – I am at the beginning of my research journey with my Prof Doc	Students do seem to think of me as a researcher – because of my textbook – they do not distinguish between research for textbook writing and journal articles
Motivator	17	I think that I can motivate people through my enthusiasm	Some students do think of me as a motivator
Academic Leader	11	In personal skills development this is not the image I seek to portray – unsure of student perception	Students have some thoughts of me as an academic leader
Assessor/ Examiner/ Marker	7	I regard my main purpose at level 1 is to help students develop, rather than examine them	Students do not see me primarily as an assessor (good!)
Facilitator/ Adviser	6	I think I can be relied upon to give help and advice	It seems that students do not regard me strongly in this area – rather a disappointment to me! Can I do more here?
Student's Friend	5	I do not think of my role as being a personal 'friend', although I might act in a friendly manner while in class	Students agree – so my initial assumption was correct
School Teacher	4	Perhaps I am sometimes a teacher(!) with unruly students – but not too much	Students agree – my assumption was correct
Entertainer	3	I think that I can be entertaining at times in my sessions	First year students don't think I'm entertaining ! Oh, well…

Coach	2	I think I can be a good coach	Students do not see this – I am rather disappointed
Counsellor / Confidant	1	I think students can confide in me	Disappointed that 1st year students do not regard me as such
Actor	0	I do sometimes 'put on an act' but perhaps I have been teaching for so long that I have become more authentic	Students do not think I am acting – not sure what to think of this – perhaps I am an authentic teacher
Guardian (replacement Mum/ Dad/ Uncle/ Aunt)	0	With 3 grown up daughters recently at university I am sometimes paternal to 1st year students	Students do not see this at all. Will not directly change my stance to my teaching but has changed my image of how students view me.
Bridge to others / systems in the University	0	I talk to admin and other tutors in the university.	Students do not see this. I am not surprised.

9.2   PORTFOLIO APPENDIX 2: SELF-EFFICACY CASE STUDY

Skills Example 3.1   Self-efficacy and goal-setting

One of the examples referred to briefly by Bandura relates to the sport of rock climbing. Let us explore this further. It's interesting to note that writers such as Csikszentmihalyi (1996) write about creativity and the concept of 'flow' (being totally absorbed in what one is doing and feeling that everything is happening in a skilful way) and use rock climbing as an example which embodies both physical and mental skills simultaneously. Picture, then, the rock climber who has halted just before the crux move (the most difficult move on the climb) of what to her is a challenging route. Let's say that this is an overhanging piece of rock; our intrepid climber is leading the climb and roped up to her 'second', whose job it is to manage the rope and (hopefully) hold the leader in the event of a fall. As the leader progresses, she places slings around protruding rocks and jams metal wedges and other devices into cracks in the rock, feeding the rope through attached metal snaplinks (carabiners). The idea is that, should the leader fall, this 'protection' will hold; it does not thus prevent a fall, but should limit the drop experienced by the leader, and hopefully she will be left bouncing at the end of the rope, perhaps a little shocked but generally unhurt—or it could all go horribly wrong and the leader could hit the ground ...

It's at this point, poised between action and inaction, that self-efficacy is crystallized in the mind of the climber: enactive mastery—she has practised moves of similar difficulty in the safe environment of the indoor climbing wall and thinks that she is probably technically capable of completing the moves; vicarious experience—she has just witnessed a pair of climbers in front of her successfully complete this part of the climb and she has taken note of the moves the climbers made; verbal persuasion—her second is telling her that she can do it (or maybe just to hurry up and do it because it's getting dark!); physiological and affective states—she knows that she is still fairly fresh and has sufficient energy, providing that she doesn't take too long, and although a little nervous she feels reasonably positive; integration of efficacy information—she weighs up all of the above and makes the final decision to 'go for it', at which point her focus must be solely on each hand and foot placement. She makes it to safety! What a feeling—she knows that she has climbed a difficult piece of rock, near to her physical and mental limit. Her self-efficacy will grow as a result. Later, from the comfort of some local inn over a well-earned drink, she will recall the event move for move with her climbing partner and she will set herself even more challenging goals for the future.

Source: Gallagher, K. (2016, p.47) *Essential study and employment skills for business and management students*. 3rd edn. Oxford: Oxford University Press

9.3 PORTFOLIO APPENDIX 3 : RETURNING TO WORK AS A CANCER SURVIVOR

The following case study is taken from Gallagher, 2016, pp.117-119 in Watson, G. and Reissner, S. (2014) *Developing skills for business leadership*. **2nd ed. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development. It is a contribution to knowledge for two groups of stakeholders within my community of practice: Master's students who use the textbook as a core reader at various UK universities, and Human Resource Managers who read it as the recommended textbook for their professional development under the auspices of the Chartered Institute of Personnel Development (CIPD). In raising awareness of the issues, it seeks to <u>promote empathy</u> amongst the book's readers.**

CASE STUDY: RETURNING TO WORK AS A CANCER SURVIVOR

The following case study follows the real-life experience of John (not his real name), his illness, recovery and phased return to work. John's story is not uncommon – many people get cancer at some point in their lives, and increasingly, more of them are able to return to work after treatment. Every person who gets cancer has their own experience; however, the case study raises issues which many people are faced with. This article uses web references from Macmillan Cancer Support. Here are some questions which you might wish to think about:

Q1. What do you think are the challenges facing the employee after long term sick leave? (you may wish to consider the case of John, or other long-term sickness cases – for instance, stress-related illnesses)

Q2. What do you think are the challenges for those involved in designing the 'phased return to work' approach (eg occupational health nurse and team leader) for returning employees?

CASE STUDY: Returning to work as a cancer survivor

John worked for the local university. In his mid-fifties he had been shocked when he was diagnosed with * prostate cancer. He decided to go for surgical treatment, which involved the removal of his prostate. This might provide a complete cure, but it was possible that further treatment would be required. Before his operation he had been a fit, active person; but, in the days and weeks that followed, his world changed from that of an independent individual to one of being a hospital patient, and subsequently, a recovering cancer survivor. He had thought that after his operation he could spend his recuperation time working on his laptop: the reality was that tiredness and pain would restrict him for much of the first month, and work was the last thing on his mind. He felt that he should just be able to 'bounce back', but soon found that recovery and strength came slowly – something which he struggled to accept. Once discharged from hospital, his wife gave him an incredible amount of love and support at home for the first 2 weeks - but then she had to return to work herself; luckily, a very good friend (an old walking buddy) visited him each day, bringing him

the daily papers and sharing lunch. Driving for the first 6 weeks was out of the question. However, he was determined to regain his former mobility; with his wife and friend he went on walks most days, from a few hundred yards at first, gradually working up to a few miles after 6 weeks. Gaining confidence in his physical ability was a slow process. He still felt shattered at the end of each day. His emotions were that of a rollercoaster – the expected lows and (surprisingly) the occasional highs. But, buoyed by his wife and friends, including his work mates who he had met up with, he gradually felt that he was getting 'back to normal'. Frustratingly, though, he still found sitting in a chair for any length of time to be one of the most uncomfortable aspects of his recovery – and bearing in mind the sedentary nature of his job, this would be restrictive if it continued. As for any traces of remaining cancer, John would be tested every 3 months at first and further treatment was possible, if needed. So, John was, in effect, a 'cancer survivor'.

John had always regarded his work as a big part of his life; it provided purpose, sense of identity, financial security, interest and routine. He enjoyed working on new projects and interacting with others. He had soon tired of day-time television and felt bored. After a few months of recovery, he was itching to get back to work, but apprehensive of his ability to cope with the full demands of his job. However, help was at hand; he talked to the occupational health nurse at his university and his team leader, and it was agreed that he could work on a 'phased return' basis for his first 3 months back at work. This was tailored to his particular needs; he would teach fewer classes; he would be limited to one-hour sessions with breaks in between; he would be excused from long periods of sitting at meetings. His GP agreed the phased return to work strategy and signed John's 'fit note'. John found the first month back at work to be a lot more tiring – both physically and mentally - than he had envisaged but felt that psychologically it was the right thing for him to do. He was pleased to be back with his old work friends. Gradually, his strength and stamina returned, and he was given more work after his phased return ended (although he felt reassured that he could ask for a review to extend this, should he still feel unable to do more). A year after his operation he felt more or less back to his former health and was even starting to think about engaging in some of the work initiatives he had previously enjoyed doing. At the same time, he had reviewed his work-life balance and was ensuring that he built in sufficient time for relaxation, exercise, and holidays.

 * Prostate cancer generally affects men over 50 and is rare in younger men. It's the most common type of cancer in men. Around 37,000 men in the UK are diagnosed with prostate cancer each year. ('Prostate cancer', 2012)

…everyone with cancer is classed as disabled under the Equality Act, or the Disability Discrimination Act (DDA) in Northern Ireland, and is therefore protected by these Acts. An employer can't discriminate against you because you've had cancer. The employer has a duty to make 'reasonable adjustments' to workplaces and working practices to make sure that people with a disability are not at a disadvantage compared to other people. An example of a reasonable adjustment might include:

• allowing some flexibility in working hours

• allowing extra breaks to help an employee cope with fatigue

• temporarily allowing the employee to be restricted to 'light duties'

• allowing working from home

• allowing 'phased (gradual) return' to work after extended sick leave.

('Work after cancer treatment', 2010)

9.4 PORTFOLIO APPENDIX 4: BACK COVER TESTAMENTS

This appendix features a collection of cover pages from my textbooks from 1997 to 2016. Positioned as they are, at the end of my doctoral submission, they provide a visual reminder of my professional development as a teacher who writes. They also reflect the changing face of skills development over time, and my participation in this.

I have written successful books for the following: the Open Learning Foundation; the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development; and Oxford University Press.

9.4.1 The Open Learning Foundation: My First Skills Textbook

This book was my first one dedicated specifically to skills development.
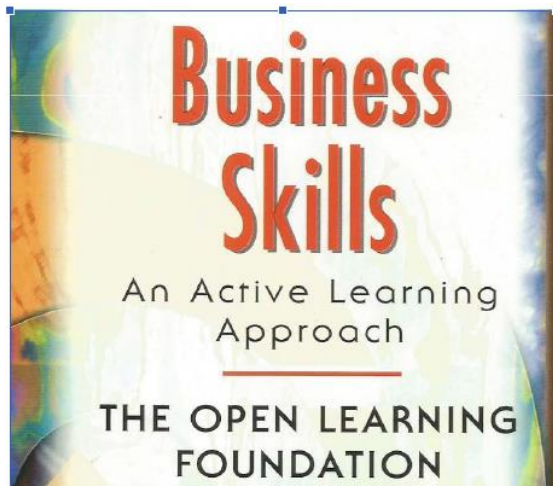
Business Skills is part of a major new national programme of highly developed texts and modules for undergraduate students following business courses. It provides 150 hours of quality study designed to be used by students in a supported learning environment.

This text is aimed at level 1 undergraduates in business studies and covers the basic skills required for effective study including communications, effective business writing, presentation and computing skills (Windows, Word, Excel and databases). Business Skills is the most effective teaching and learning resource available at this level.

About the Authors

Kevin Gallagher is Senior Lecturer in HRM at the Sunderland Business School, University of Sunderland.

Bob McClelland is Reader at the Liverpool Business School, John Moore's University.

9.4.2 Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) Textbooks

2005

Managing for Results
2nd edition
Gillian Watson and Kevin Gallagher

2014

DEVELOPING SKILLS FOR BUSINESS LEADERSHIP
2ND EDITION

EDITED BY GILLIAN WATSON
AND STEFANIE REISSNER

online
resources

Developing Skills for Business Leadership

9.4.3 Oxford University Press: Gallagher Skills Text Books 2010, 2013, 2016

'This book will definitely fill a gap in the provision of study skills guides, and I will be using it with my students from the day it comes out. Its concentration on employability skills is particularly relevant and it will be very accessible to students'.

Professor Helen Higson, Aston University

'An excellent book. Kevin Gallagher's accessible writing style brings skills development alive. Well grounded in relevant theory but far from dry, this practical text takes the Business and Management student on a learning journey which will greatly benefit both their studies and their future careers.'

Marie Kerr, Senior Lecturer, Leeds Business School

'This welcome book uniquely meets the needs of business and management students. It provides the necessary coverage of theory supported by a range of activities, case studies and real life experience'

Jon Curwin, Senior Learning and Teaching Fellow, Birmingham City Business School

9.5 PORTFOLIO APPENDIX 5 : OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS WEBSITE: LATEST GALLAGHER TEXTBOOK (2016)

This is the 3rd edition. A 4th edition has editorial approval for development.

Links to developing emotional intelligence, confidence and promoting independent learning

9.6 PORTFOLIO APPENDIX 6: GALLAGHER SKILLS TEXTBOOKS: AMAZON BEST SELLERS

These are screen shots taken from the Amazon website which ranks books according to daily sales. These two examples demonstrate that my textbook 'Skills Development for Business and Management Students' features annually in their best sellers rankings. This is a indicator of the wide reach of these books to university teachers and students.

Edition 2: Amazon Best Seller 29/09/2015: **Position: 3rd** in Under and Postgraduate Student Guides

Edition 3: Amazon Best Seller 30/09/2017: **Position: 10th** in Under and Postgraduate Student Guides

9.7 PORTFOLIO APPENDIX 7: 'INSIGHTS' PERSONAL PROFILE
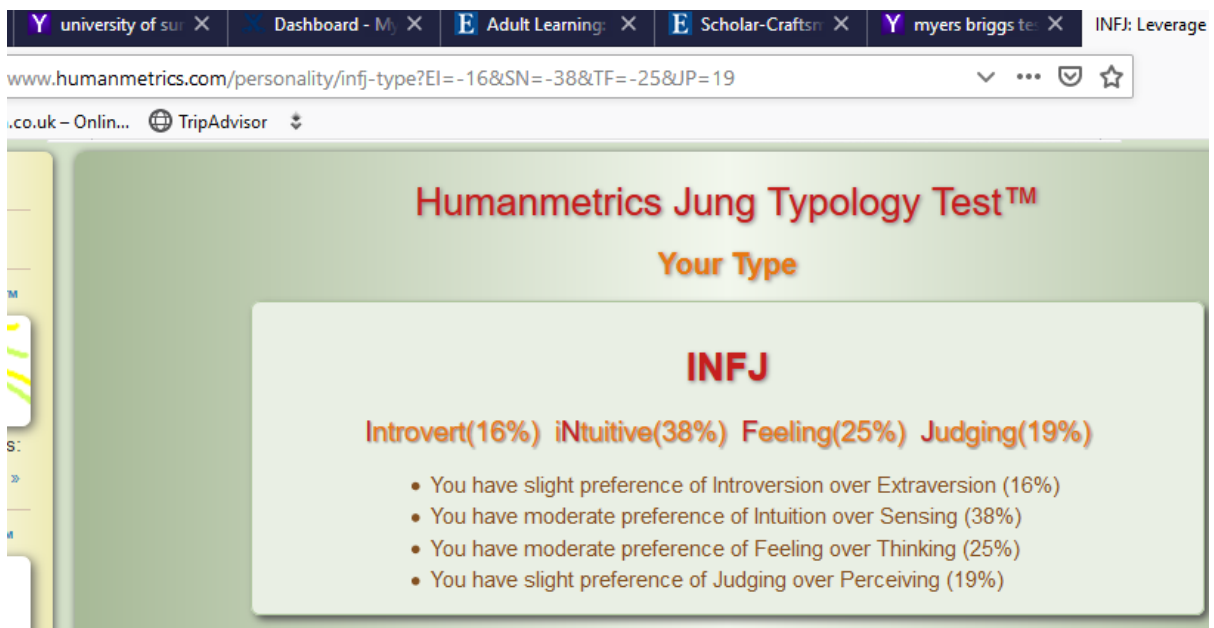
Personality Test – INFJ (1 of 3)

Personality Test: Kevin Gallagher   INFJ - Introverted iNtuitive Feeling Judging [conducted online 29/03/2019]

INFJ stands for Introvert, iNtuitive, Feeling, Judging and represents individual's preferences in four dimensions characterising personality type, according to Jung's and Briggs Myers' theories of personality type.

Your Type Preferences

Introvert(16%) iNtuitive(38%) Feeling(25%) Judging(19%)

Characteristics of INFJs (Introverted iNtuitive Feeling Judging)

INFJs are distinguished by both their complexity of character and the unusual range and depth of their talents. Strongly humanitarian in outlook, INFJs tend to be idealists, and because of their J preference for closure and completion, they are generally "doers" as well as dreamers. This rare combination of vision and practicality often results in INFJs taking a disproportionate amount of responsibility in the various causes to which so many of them seem to be drawn.

INFJs are deeply concerned about their relations with individuals as well as the state of humanity at large. They are, in fact, sometimes mistaken for extroverts because they appear so outgoing and are so genuinely interested in people -- a product of the Feeling function they most readily show to the world. On the contrary, INFJs are true introverts, who can only be emotionally intimate and fulfilled with a chosen few from among their long-term friends, family, or obvious "soul mates." While instinctively courting the personal and organizational demands continually made upon them by others, at intervals INFJs will suddenly withdraw into themselves, sometimes shutting out even their intimates. This apparent paradox is a necessary escape valve for them, providing both time to rebuild their depleted resources and a filter to prevent the emotional overload to which they are so susceptible as inherent "givers." As a pattern of behavior, it is perhaps the most confusing aspect of the enigmatic INFJ character to outsiders, and hence the most often misunderstood -- particularly by those who have little experience with this rare type.

Due in part to the unique perspective produced by this alternation between detachment and involvement in the lives of the people around them, INFJs may well have the clearest insights of all the types into the motivations of others, for good and for evil. The most important contributing factor to this uncanny gift, however, are the empathic abilities often found in Fs, which seem to be especially heightened in the INFJ type (possibly by the dominance of the introverted N function).

This empathy can serve as a classic example of the two-edged nature of certain INFJ talents, as it can be strong enough to cause discomfort or pain in negative or stressful situations. More explicit inner conflicts are also not uncommon in INFJs; it is possible to speculate that the causes for some of these may lie in the specific combinations of preferences which define this complex type. For instance, there can sometimes be a "tug-of-war" between NF vision and idealism and the J practicality that urges compromise for the sake of achieving the highest priority goals. And the I and J combination, while perhaps enhancing self-awareness, may make it difficult for INFJs to articulate their deepest and most convoluted feelings.

Usually self-expression comes more easily to INFJs on paper, as they tend to have strong writing skills. Since in addition they often possess a strong personal charisma, INFJs are generally well-suited to the "inspirational" professions such as teaching (especially in higher education) and religious leadership. Psychology and counseling are other obvious choices, but overall, INFJs can be exceptionally difficult to pigeonhole by their career paths. Perhaps the best example of this occurs in the technical fields. Many INFJs perceive themselves at a disadvantage when dealing with the mystique and formality of "hard logic", and in academic terms this may cause a tendency to gravitate towards the liberal arts rather than the sciences. However, the significant minority of INFJs who do pursue studies and careers in the latter areas tend to be as successful as their T counterparts, as it is *iNtuition* -- the dominant function for the INFJ type -- which governs the ability to understand abstract theory and implement it creatively.

In their own way, INFJs are just as much "systems builders" as are INTJs; the difference lies in that most INFJ "systems" are founded on human beings and human values, rather than information and technology. Their systems may for these reasons be conceptually "blurrier" than analogous NT ones, harder to measure in strict numerical terms, and easier to take for granted -- yet it is these same underlying reasons which make the resulting contributions to society so vital and profound.

Beneath the quiet exterior, INFJs hold deep convictions about the weightier matters of life. Those who are activists - INFJs gravitate toward such a role - are there for the cause, not for personal glory or political power.

INFJs are champions of the oppressed and downtrodden. They often are found in the wake of an emergency, rescuing those who are in acute distress. INFJs may fantasize about getting revenge on those who victimize the defenseless. The concept of 'poetic justice' is appealing to the INFJ. "There's something rotten in Denmark." Accurately suspicious about others' motives, INFJs are not easily led. These are the people that you can rarely fool any of the time. Though affable and sympathetic to most, INFJs are selective about their friends. Such a friendship is a symbiotic bond that transcends mere words.

INFJs have a knack for fluency in language and facility in communication. In addition, nonverbal sensitivity enables the INFJ to know and be known by others intimately. Writing, counseling, public service and even politics are areas where INFJs frequently find their niche.

9.8 PORTFOLIO APPENDIX 8: MY PERSONALITY LINK (INFJ) TO RESEARCH DESIGN ACCORDING TO WERNER AND ROGERS (2013) METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK
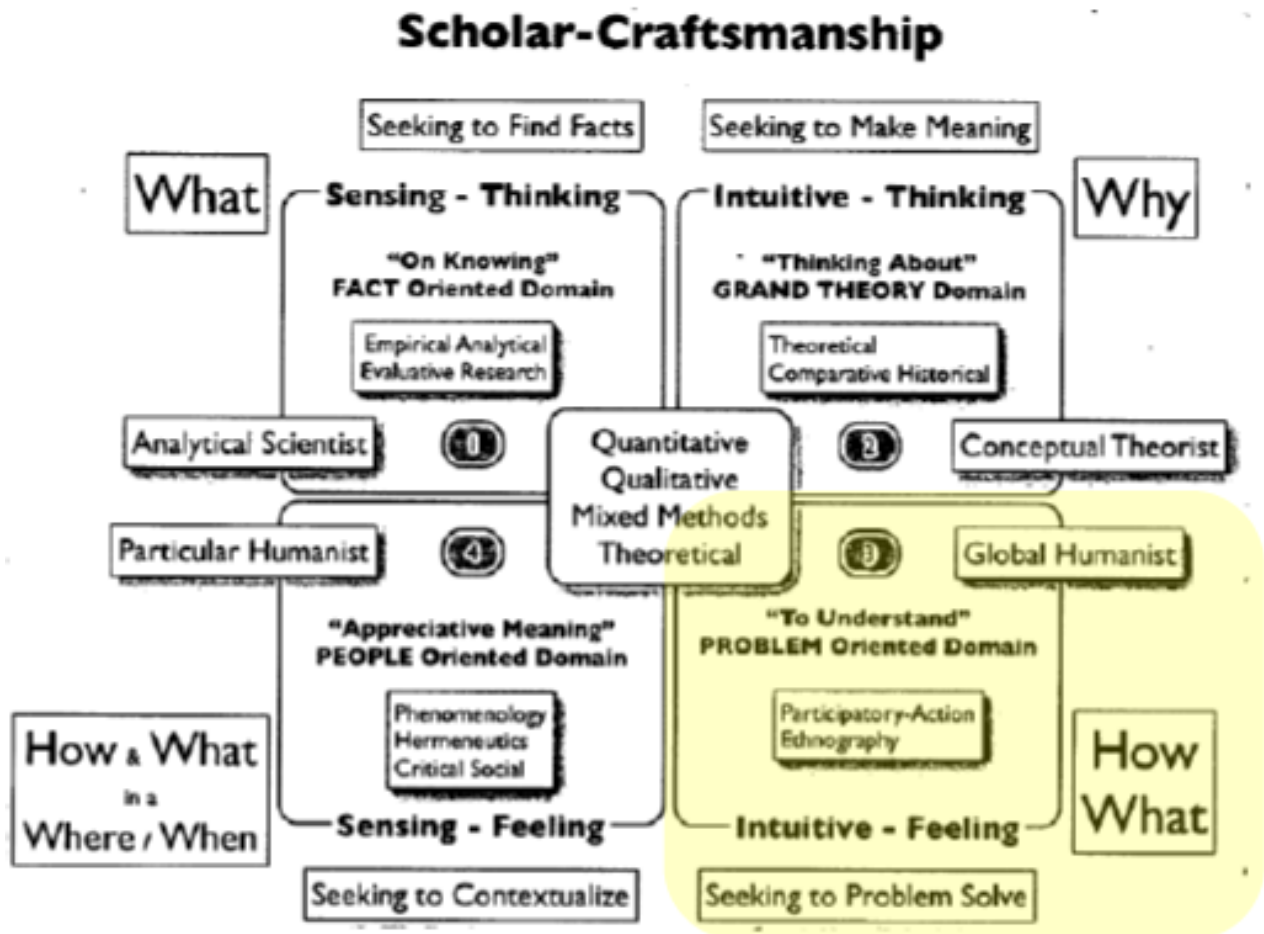

Figure 1. Scholar-Craftsmanship: The intersection of question-type, epistemology, culture of inquiry, and personality-type in dissertation research.

Source: Werner, T. and Rogers, K. (2013) 'Scholar-Craftsmanship: question-type, epistemology, culture of inquiry, and personality-type in dissertation research', *Adult Learning*, 24(4), p.160.

9.9 PORTFOLIO APPENDIX 9: UNIVERSITY TEACHING AND LEARNING FELLOW 2001-2003 : EXPERIENTIAL LOG FOR PLACEMENT STUDENTS

By the year 2000 the Business School of the University of Sunderland had some 150 students out on yearly placement for their BA (Hons) Business Studies. Each student had a placement mentor who was an academic member of staff. However, up until that point there was not one agreed way of establishing and recording students planned and unplanned learning with their host organisations. At this point I was successful in securing a two-year teaching and learning fellowship at the university: the subject of my project was 'The Experiential Learning Log for Placement Students'. The experiential learning log was devised to bring commonality amongst the 35 placement tutors. As such it expanded into a project of training and development for placement tutors. It was influenced by the theories of Kolb (1983) and personal discussions with John Cowan and his theories on teaching and learning within universities (Cowan, 2006).

The experiential learning log was piloted in May 2001 before being disseminated to all placement tutors following the University Teaching and Learning Conference 2001. Following this I presented a paper on its use at the ASET (Association of Sandwich Education & Training) Conference, Sept 2001, Fitzwilliam College, Cambridge.

THE TEXTBOOK CLUB

A friendly and supportive
meeting place for current and
aspiring textbook writers

An Opening Talk: 17th April 2008 by Kevin Gallagher

email kevin.gallagher@sunderland.ac.uk

Aims of the Textbook Club

- To act as a supportive community of University writers
- To hone research, writing and creativity skills
- To update subject knowledge
- To enhance teaching confidence and credibility
- To network inside and outside the University – including other universities, authors, and publishers

As a published author since 1997 I had used my own textbooks within my teaching at university. My first textbook authorship was for the Open Learning Foundation, where I collaborated with a number of writers from other Higher Education institutions. The accent was upon writing innovative, interactive learning materials. My interest in writing textbooks continued. My aspirational goal was, and remains, to bring the subject to life and to enthuse

my readers, encouraging them to use the textbook as an initial springboard, the catalyst for their own exploratory learning. I was so convinced of the benefits that writing had brought me as a teacher, that I wanted to invite other like-minded academics in the university to share their experiences. So, I persuaded fellow members of the University Learning Enhancement Board to allow me to set up 'The University Textbook Club'. As shown above, in the adaptation of one my presentation slides, the club was launched at the University Teaching and Learning Conference (2008) and ran for about a year. The launch attracted about 20 writers from difference schools in the university. High points of future meetings were talks given by the commissioning editors of Oxford University Press and two authors who had just had their new (CIPD) textbook published.

One of my favourite textbook writers (because of his humour and ability to explain tricky statistical concepts) is Andy Field. But as he succinctly puts it, his decision to write textbooks was initially seen by his fellow academics as 'academic suicide'(Field, 2009); what he meant by this was that in the 'traditional' universities academic staff gained kudos through their research writing. Government funding was allocated to universities because of new research in the relevant discipline; teaching was something which they were expected to do, but there was little recognition of 'teaching and learning pedagogy' as a fundable area of research. Of even less significance for university managers was the writing of textbooks which had 'no new knowledge' seemingly impervious to the role of the textbook as an active means of creating meaning and facilitating understanding, especially when shared with other students as a community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991). Fortunately, in my university the writing of textbooks was tolerated, and has continued to be a feature across many schools.

9.11 PORTFOLIO APPENDIX 8: UNIVERSITY OF SUNDERLAND TEACHING & LEARNING CONFERENCE MAY 2015: OUTLINE)

Title: Reflections on linking dissertation proposal research to Year 2 student personal development using student volunteers

Background The majority of UG business students undertake a dissertation in the final (3rd or 4th year) of their degree. Currently the dissertation proposal is formulated within the final year; this is often a difficult task for students who can feel under time pressures to come up with a suitable topic and research question. Kevin's doctoral research is investigating various ways of helping students during their initial stages of engagement with their dissertations. At the same time we have the situation whereby students in year 2 (stage 2) of their degree are expected to engage with their personal tutors for the purpose of 'personal development' – however, there had been relatively little uptake of personal development sessions, on a voluntary basis, by the current year 2 students. Kevin and Sarah (Year 2 stage leader) are both personal tutors and had been rather disappointed at the uptake of surgery sessions. After a review of the situation in early January they agreed that students would only volunteer to attend personal development sessions if they felt there was 'something in it for them'. They both felt that preparing for the final year of study - and in particular the dissertation – was something which year 2 students would be interested in, particularly as it is worth 40 credits and may be linked to their future career/ career prospects. So, without actually calling it 'personal development', any workshops which helped students to think about and plan for their dissertation would actually also have a strong personal development component. Additionally, the intention was that Kevin would be able to use these workshops to further his research into the area. And so, Kevin and Sarah organised a series of 'dissertation proposal workshops' which they held during this March and April 2015. All participants were volunteers from stage 2 of the suite of business degrees.

Session outline This session reflects upon the process we went through in establishing the dissertation proposal workshops. It shows initial student views on their forthcoming dissertations; it tracks student volunteer attendance; and it draws up tentative conclusions about the usefulness and relevance of such interventions for both students and staff.

Title: **The 'University Teacher as Guide' metaphor in developing the research potential of Masters students**

Author:

Kevin Gallagher

Hand out Summary for Discussion at BAM 2017 Conference (University of Warwick)

WED 16:00 – 17:30| Oculus OC1.03, Oculus Building Developmental Papers

Developing Research Potential Session Chair: Mark Saunders

Summary

Drawing on the author's doctoral research, this paper relates to the role of the University Teacher in developing the research potential of Masters students. This relates to how he, as a University Teacher, interacts with Masters students as they engage with their research-based projects. It highlights the need for teachers of research methods to value both cognitive and affective needs of students. It introduces the use of a mountaineering metaphor: the Guide. The author argues that the 'University Teacher as Guide' metaphor provides a way to conceptualise the teaching and learning experience. It provides a means of working with issues which students experience when engaging with their research. The metaphor pictures students on a challenging journey in which they climb new ground with their teacher as 'guide'.

==**Stop and discuss (1)**==: *==How do you view the use of metaphors for the purpose of developing students as researchers?==*

==**Participants' Written Feedback:**==

A	*Very helpful, make more of the metaphor as discussed! Question – how do 'Guiding Activities' differ from 'Managed Learning'?*
B	*Essential, new things can only be described with metaphors.*
C	*Teacher as girl 'guide'. 4 Badges of competence! Promoting community, ethics, possible social change agents.*
D	*Essential, because they can contextualize-decontextualize and are short-cut storytelling.*
E	*The students don't have wide experience and whilst metaphors can be useful it is difficult to identify a metaphor that makes sense to all of the students.*
F	*Defines cases. Case Approach?*
G	*Journey, Onion. Partners. Critical Friend. Spiral. Mountain.*
H	*I think it is so useful and helps to break down the material and the reason behind the steps of the journey they are taking'*
I	*Mentoring, Coaching*
J	*Very effective*

Participants' Written Feedback:

A	*Potentially very valuable for students interested in self-development, helps engage with own work in the process. Could be tied in to the notion of reflexive practitioner.*
B	*Can be useful if done well.*
C	*What about learning from each other? Again, as part of the community.*
D	*Needs to be hand in hand with reflection <u>and</u> reflexivity.*
E	*Useful- how might the utility of this change after time? Is student reflection built in?*
F	*Are you seeking triangulation?*
G	*Expect them to do it and they will (usually)…learning contract.*
H	*It is a key way to engage the student and see the relevance of the key parts of the journey. Need to ensure they are ready. Pitch it at the point to which they are able.*
I	*Are they introduced to the methods prior to the questionnaire? Self efficacy.*
J	*This is appropriate, as it relates to reflexivity*

Stop and Discuss (3): *Comments on*
   (a) class size and appropriateness of teaching approach
   (b) Nationality and cultural issues and 'buy-in'

Participants' Written Feedback:

A	
B	*Depends on the teacher – I love a 400-600 students group.I teach in 5 countries in 3 languages. Needs to be done very differently in delivery to get buy-in.*
C	*Life is a mixed group! Must find ways to work together.*
D	*Appropriate for students. More complex than that because it also depends on institution's/ group's culture etc.* *Recommendation: phenomenonological focus on the phenomenon (essential dimensions) rather than the sample.*
E	*(a) Class size seems appropriate to the types of activities (and associated with this, or anyway, what is the relationship between student and teacher?)* *(b) Will vary but with small groups it is difficult to generalise on national and cultural issues.*
F	*Limits of only masters students – all education? PhD/ UG – L3?* *'Drop out' – is more discussion and justification necessary?* *Is this a single 'case' or are you replicating this? What about the ethical limitations of a 'tutor' conducting this research project – limitations?*
G	*(a) You can do really exciting things with large classes (small ones can be v. difficult)* *(b) There will be cultural differences but can be overcome!*
H	*(a) Needs to be small and tight. Key questions is how much time can you give them, will dictate how much you can 'guide'. Also depends on how much confidence and maturity the student has.* *(b) More to do with maturity and motivation of the student, rather than nationality, although nationality may influence the hunger the student has to succeed.*
I	*(b)Gender? Age? Prior maths skills level.*
J	*(a) Appropriate, allows for in depth (b) Very varied*

9.13 PORTFOLIO APPENDIX 13: ONGOING WORK ON 4TH EDITION OF GALLAGHER 'ESSENTIAL STUDY AND EMPLOYMENT SKILLS': OXFORD UNIVERSITY PRESS

I wrote the following justification for the inclusion of an innovative pedagogical approach within the 4th edition. This has been agreed in principle by Oxford University Press.

Rationale for 'Critical Animations' Exercise, as proposed for the 'Learning Reflections Day'

The Critical Animations exercise is based upon the following interconnected factors (please note from the outset – I am also a fan of Reflective Journals, especially for professional practice (Moon, 2006) so this is a complementary approach, and is aimed at an exercise which the university teacher can use to engage groups of students rather than individuals, although it could be used to inform individual self-reflection in subsequent journal writing) :

First year at University is a time of transformation

There is a growing body of research showing that first year students at university need to cope with a range of issues as they attempt to make the transition from school or work to university life. Thus they may suffer from home sickness, have to assimilate new academic conventions, new social situations and other cultures (Devis-Rozental, Eccles and Mayer, 2017, p.6). Indeed, this time of transformation may be regarded as one of identity development, one in which the individual *becomes* a student (Beard, Humberstone and Clayton, 2014, p.632). {KG aside: at any rate a first-year or neophyte student, as becoming is a continuing process}.

Question: So, how does this relate to 'Essential Study and Employment Skills for Business and Management Students' (4E)?

Answer: The book has always been angled towards developing students holistically; the title reflects the need for students to develop their academic skills, in particular their critical-thinking abilities and their self-awareness. From chapter 1 it discusses the importance of developing the whole person using the concept of multiple intelligence (Gardner, 2014), and in particular that of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1996). In chapter 2 it goes on to argue the importance of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) ie of students' belief that they can successfully achieve a particular goal.

Learning and becoming are emotionally charged processes

Beard et al (2014, p.632) emphasises the importance of *emotions* to the learning experience and to the becoming process. (See attached article).

Critical Reflection makes ready use of Narrative and Metaphor

Egan (1992, p.50 cited in Norman,2000) (see attached article) states that 'Whether and how we learn…is affected by the complex of meaning structures we already have in place, which in turn are affected by our *emotions* [my emphasis], intentions, and so on'.

Norman (2000) supports the argument that the mind integrates the cognitive and affective as it makes sense of and creates meaning from experiences. He states that in critically reflecting upon experiences, individuals create narrative and readily make use of metaphor (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003). This appears to support using learning journals and critical incidents to tell students 'stories' (KG).

Crucially, he advocates the following:

> Immersion in an aesthetic or artistic experience can lead to imagining alternatives, especially for people who normally think in linear problem-solving ways. (Norman, 2000)

Thus, telling stories through artistic media – itself often rich in metaphor- can be very effective, although it may not come naturally to some people.

Combining Narrative and Metaphor has benefits

 So, which is better when it comes to making sense of one's learning experiences – narrative or artistic endeavour? As a civil engineer earlier in my career, and not overly governed by my emotions, I would probably have thought that a careful, analytical unpicking of my experiences via a learning journal would be the way to go. And my focus would have been upon a reflection of what I had done – not why I had acted as I did. This tendency towards the rational was still evident in me right up to the point of designing my doctoral research. I originally wanted my research to be about an analysis of the self efficacy of my students in 'doing' their research projects. The method of data collection was to be video-recorded interviews of students recalling their critical incidents in learning 'to do' their research. I designed a teaching and learning intervention which led up to this point through a series of increasingly demanding activities, on the basis that asking students to volunteer for video participation was a 'big ask'. One of my introductory exercises was the '3 words and drawing' activity. Suffice to say that my design worked. The big surprise was the amount of really useful data I obtained from the drawings – quick (15 minutes) , but powerful in allowing participants to identify their *issues* and express their *emotions*. **But, they needed to build narrative around them (they did this in focus groups and later in the video interviews). So drawing and narrative are complementary. Their sum is bigger than their individual contributions. Also, this is a good approach to use in group situations.** [thinks – maybe could add to chapter on Teamwork skills?]

For more on this synergistic effect, please refer to the article attached (Bessette and Paris, 2016)

<div align="center">===0===</div>