

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The Concepts of Identity

In identity study, it was essential to review the concept of identity foremost. Having observed the evolution of the recent identity conception, Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson (2005) claimed that a new conceptualization of identity had started gaining prominence and recognition in anthropology, sociology, and other associated fields such as general education and language teaching. Thus, a widespread shift from identity in psychology processes towards contextualized social processes (Miller, 2009) explained the new understanding in language teaching (Yazan, 2014). First, "identity is not a fixed, stable, unitary, and internally coherent phenomenon but is multiple, shifting and in conflict" (Varghese et al., 2005, p. 22). Second, identity is context-bound; hence, it is "crucially related to social, cultural, and political contexts-interlocutors, institutional settings, and so on" (p. 23). Third, people construct, maintain, and negotiate their identities to a substantial degree "through language and discourse" (p.23). Thus, people have numerous identities which they incessantly negotiate, reconstruct, and enact through discursive tools as they interact with other people in different contexts.

2.2 The Types of Identity

2.2.1 Professional Identity

The first dimension of identity was professional identity. Many kinds of literature about academic careers had preferred academics' professional identities, often seen as rooted in academic discipline and institution type (Pifer & Baker, 2016). However, the once-standard conceptualization of professional identity ingrained in teaching, research, and service in disciplinary and institutional homes is evolving (Pifer & Baker, 2013). Bamber (2012) provided the professional identity overview among academics. She emphasized the changing nature of academic identity over time, particularly in today's rapidly changing contexts of academic work. Other researchers had called for the study about the possibility of identity

as a tool for understanding and shaping educational contexts and experiences (Amaral, Bleiklie, & Musselin, 2008).

In the studies that defined what professional identity entails, different aspects were highlighted. Most scholars saw professional identity as an ongoing process of combination of the 'personal' and the 'professional' sides of becoming and being a teacher (Beijaard, Meijer, and Verloop, 2004). For instance, Goodson and Cole (1994) perceived that teachers' identity development was rooted both in the personal and the professional. Professional identity was a fluid concept that cannot be construed as fixed or unitary. It was a complicated and dynamic equilibrium in which instructors' professional self-image was balanced with the various roles they felt obligated to play (Volkman & Anderson, 1998). In the teaching practices context, the professional identity contained a set of teacher identity elements such as the pre-service teacher's self-image, job motivation, core responsibilities, self-esteem, perceptions of teaching, subject and subject pedagogy, and teaching as work (Lee & Yin, 2010). Therefore, a teaching practices program could construct the professional identity of the pre-service teacher.

2.2.2 Personal Identity

The second dimension of identity was personal identity. Some research studies aimed at understanding academics' lived experiences had expanded beyond professional identity to include the role of personal identity (Pifer & Baker, 2013). In general, this line of research had focused on set unique characteristics identified by the researchers, with particular attention to race (e.g., Turner, Gonzales & Wood, 2008) and gender (e.g., Hart & Metcalfe, 2010; Sallee, 2011). The literature had also studied sexual orientation, ethnicity, social status, age, physical capacity, and religion (Pifer & Baker, 2013). For example, Gibbs and Griffin (2013) investigated how interest in academic careers evolved among doctoral students in STEM fields, paying particular attention to whether social identity affected those decisions. They discovered that professional interests and personal values influenced postgraduate students' professional decisions to pursue academic study.

2.2.3 Relational Identity

Relational identity was the third and final dimension of identity that I considered. In contrast to individual and social identities, Brewer and Gardner (1996) described relational identity as rooted in close relationships with specific others. They said that people define themselves in three ways based on primary associations, collectives, and characteristics. Their conceptualization of identity that extended beyond the personal and social helped frame this research on the importance of identities in academic careers. Furthermore, Randel and Wu (2011) identified relational identity as the degree to which an individual values interpersonal relationship. Their research looked into how closely people held onto their relational identities in business settings and discovered a positive relationship between relational identity and collective identity, suggesting that work activities promoted links to groups and near others.

2.3 The Roles of Identity

As the importance of professional development, identity had an integral role in the teaching profession context. Identity included what individuals did, believed, valued, and wanted to become (Kier & Lee, 2017). Sachs (2005) located teacher identity at the midpoint of the teaching profession because it "provided a framework for teachers to construct their ideas of 'how to be', 'how to act', and 'how to understand' their work and their place in society" (p. 15). Teachers viewed everything involved in their profession through this framework, supporting how they became teachers (Yazan, 2014). In the same case, Danielewicz (2001) remarked that rather than exposure to methodology, becoming a good teacher "required engagement with identity, the way individuals conceived themselves so that teaching was a state of being, not merely ways of acting or behaving" (p. 3). She examined how to implement this consideration into formal teacher education programs, equates becoming a teacher to construct a teacher identity, and depicts her experience with her teachers (Danielewicz, 2001). Beijaard, et al., (2004) highlighted the salience of investigation into teachers' identity development for those responsible for the education of the future teaching force. That was, the field had directed limited attention "to understand the processes of identity formation,

the interplay between these processes and the identities constituted as teachers position themselves" (Tsui, 2007, p. 658).

2.4 Emotions and Professional Identity

As revealed in the research, teachers' emotions interplayed with teachers' identities (Day & Leitch, 2001). Teachers' emotions were interrelated with their professional identities (Yuan & Lee, 2015). In this case, there was an inseparable dynamic between emotion and identity (Zhu, 2019). Teachers' emotions guided their identities formation (O'Connor, 2008). As Hargreaves (2000) defined that even though "teaching, learning and leading may not be solely emotional practices... they are always irretrievably emotional in character, in a good way or a bad way, by design or default" (p. 812). Therefore, examining the emotional dimension of teaching practices was essential to consider how pre-service teachers constructed their professional identity, which was deeply tied to their professional practices.

In teachers' education study, teachers' professional identities had been increasingly explored from multiple perspectives in China. Lee et al. (2013) examined Chinese teachers' professional identities and emotions in the context of curriculum reform. Yuan & Lee (2016) argued teachers' professional identities and emotions in teaching practices context. Zhu (2017) observed the emotional and ethical dimensions of identity shaping in teaching practices. When discrepancies in identity construction arise, teachers need to negotiate and reposition their professional identities in their daily routines (Zhu, 2019). In addition, this study examined an English pre-service teacher's emotions and his professional identity during online teaching practices. During learning to teach, the pre-service teacher managed his negative emotions (i.e., worrying, challenging, empathetic) into positive emotions (i.e., enjoyable, determination). These emotions were explored in seven key activities during online teaching practices: (1) lesson preparation, (2) administration matters, (3) assessment of learners, (4) methods of presenting lessons, (5) classroom management, (6) maintenance of discipline, and (7) professional development. It insinuated that he delineated a variety of emotions experienced in constructing professional practice during online education

programs. Thus, as future teachers, the pre-service teachers were required to develop and manifest their professional identities.

2.5 Emotions in Language Teaching

In language teaching and learning, emotions had an essential role for both students and teachers. Emotions played a substantial part in learning in general and foreign language learning in particular (Pishghadam, Zabetipour & Aminzadeh, 2016). Emotions also played an integral role in teacher learning, both in the experiences of in-service teachers in completing course work and pre-service teachers in teaching practices (Richards, 2020). The pre-service teachers experienced various emotions during their teaching practice depending on the learning context and their activity. These emotions could impact their academic and teaching performance (Anttila, Pyhalto, Soini & Pietarinen, 2016). Here, a comprehensive investigation of how teachers developed their identities also required an inspection of their emotions and how they learned to handle them (Yazan, 2014). In the same vein, Lasky (2005) sighted teachers' emotions "as a heightened state of being those changes" as a result of their reflections in the past and future teaching practice and interactions with dynamics of their teaching context and with their colleagues, students, and parents of students (p.901). Therefore, teachers experienced various emotions as they responded to numerous instructional and non-instructional situations they met and managed in their teaching contexts (Day & Leitch, 2001; Lasky, 2005).

2.6 Pre-service Teacher

Pre-service teachers were the people who gained experience in the practicalities of teaching practices in schools. Teaching practices offered pre-service teachers increased knowledge of how they went about the many complex tasks complicated in actual classroom practice (Ferrier-Kerr, 2009). Some pre-service teachers' activities in teaching practices were processing information, interpreting the school realities, and internalizing the field experiences (Shwu-yong & Waxman, 2009). During teaching practices, the pre-service teachers were allowed to try the art of teaching before actually getting into the real world of the teaching profession (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009). The chance to put theory into

practice and to take part in teaching lessons provided them (Heeralal, 2014). Thus, their professional identities were primarily constructed in their teaching practices program.

In being competent teachers, the school mentors guided the pre-service teachers during teaching practices. Deng et al. (2018) stated that the construction of teachers' identity in teaching practices is essentially emotional, interacting with a broad range of stakeholders (e.g., school mentors) in specific contexts. The school mentor assisted a pre-service teacher in lesson preparation, administration matters, assessment of learners, methods of presenting lessons, classroom management, maintenance of discipline, and professional development (Heeralal, 2014). Thus, in confronting the professional practice process with which teachers live daily, with the support of mentors, pre-service teachers gained the opportunity to develop the skill of reflection and (re)construct their identities as teacher practitioners.

2.7 Online Teaching Practices

In keeping up with the perceived importance of the teaching practices, current pre-service teachers conducted their pieces of training in an online education platform during the COVID-19 outbreak. Online education became a pedagogical shift from the traditional method to the modern teaching-learning approach from classroom to Zoom, from personal to virtual, and from seminars to webinars (Mishra et al., 2020). With the increasing use of digital education and computer technology, pre-service teachers moved from face-to-face interaction into an online exchange in the digital classroom. Therefore, online education offered an opportunity for pre-service teachers to discuss and learn different ways of teaching (Green, Burrow & Carvalho, 2020).

Eventually, the embedding of digital technologies as part of educational practices was not new nor unique to the global pandemic – distance education and networked learning had been around for many years (Green et al., 2020). Previously, non-formal education popularly considered e-learning, distance education, and correspondence courses as part of education. Still, if the circumstances persist over time, it seems that it would gradually replace the formal education system (Mishra et al., 2020). In post-COVID-19 cases, some of the most

online education platforms that would change the destination of the whole education system across the world were Classtime, Classwize, Neo, Start.me, Ted-Ed, Coursera, Google Classroom, Edmodo, Canvas, G Suite, Floop, Future Learn, Blackboard Learn, Adobe Captivate, Shift, Lectora Inspire, and many more (Mishra et al., 2020).

On the other hand, in teacher education programs, pre-service teachers received teaching through technology courses. They were trained with the skills and knowledge to integrate digital devices in face-to-face classes. Yet, they did not practice incorporating digital resources into teaching in virtual classrooms (Atay, 2020). Hence, many pre-service teachers often encountered difficulties, reporting frustration during teaching practices (Shwu-yong & Waxman, 2009). Nevertheless, pre-service teachers had to adapt their teaching activity in digital media during online teaching practices and construct the professional identity they would convey to the classroom and their future careers.

2.8 Narrative Inquiry

The research design of this proposed study utilized the narrative inquiry. It was deployed since narrative structures generate recursive chain events directed at a particular goal (Labov, 2006). The narrative inquiry stemmed from an epistemological stance taken by John Dewey's (1938) pragmatic philosophy (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). Dewey theorized experience as a changing stream characterized by the continuous interaction of human thought with our personal, social, and material environment. A particular view of experience as a phenomenon under study was adopted using narrative inquiry methodology (Connelly & Clandinin, 2006). Narrative research "looked backward and forward, looked inward and outward, and situated the experiences within the place" (Creswell, 2006, p. 220); it was an approach that examined the completeness of an experience situated within the life and reality of the experiencer. Narrative research has generally been seen as a method for collecting and analysing data (collecting the stories of participants) or reporting (telling the story of the participants), or both (Long, 2016, p. 26). In brief, Barkhuizen, Benson, and Chik (2014) concluded that the core point of narrative inquiry lied in an emphasis on how people used stories to make sense

of their experiences in areas of inquiry where it was essential to consider phenomena from the viewpoint of those who experience those stories.

In narrative inquiry design, narrative analysis was relevant to be conducted to analyse the data. Polkinghorne (1988) drew a clear distinction between "narrative analysis" and "analysis of narrative". Narrative analysis referred to research in which storytelling was used to analyse data and present findings. In contrast, narrative analysis referred to the study in which stories were used as data (Barkhuizen et al., 2014). Informed by the theoretical underpinning of teacher identities and emotions (e.g., Zembylas, 2003; Bloomfield, 2010), narrative analysis of the collected data was conducted to interpret and (re)construct my emotions and identities as the units of analysis. Narrative analysis was about information that comprises actions, events, and happenings analysed to produce stories (Polkinghorne, 1988).

Labov's narrative structure to analyse such narrativization of the life story was one of narrative analysis. As suggested by Labov (1972, as applied in Özyildirim, 2009), these narrative structures fall into the following categories:

- a. Abstract (the essence of the story being summed up)
 - e.g., *'The most frightening experience I've ever had was a traffic accident.'* (Özyildirim, 2009).
- b. Orientation (a context to orient the reader)
 - e.g., *'Two years ago, we were driving from Artvin to Ankara. In the car was my father, my father's colleague, one of my friends, and me.'* (Özyildirim, 2009).
- c. Complicating action (the event sequence)
 - e.g., *'After we had passed Samsun at about 2.00 a.m., all of a sudden the road became covered with ice. As a result of a mistake made by my father while changing gear, the car started to slip on the icy road. We spun 360 degrees in the middle of the road. There was a precipice on the edge of the road, and we were approaching it quickly.'* (Özyildirim, 2009).

- d. Evaluation (the importance and meaning of the incident, as well as the narrator's attitude)
- e.g., *'I've never been as scared in my life as the moment of the accident. While I was spinning around on the ice, my life passed before my eyes like a film. The last thing I remembered was that I was murmuring to myself, "please God, don't let us die!"'* (Özyildirim, 2009).
- e. Result of resolution (things finally happened)
- e.g., *'However, some kind of barrier prevented us from falling, and unbelievably, the car stopped at the edge of the road. Nothing happened to any of us.'* (Özyildirim, 2009).
- f. Coda (the perspective returning to the present)
- e.g., *'After this event, I could not come to my senses for a long time, and still, I'm afraid of getting in a car in winter.'* (Özyildirim, 2009).