

Doctoral Pedagogy in Stage One: Forming a Scholarly Identity

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As a contribution to the scholarship of teaching (Boyer, 1990), the author conducted a self-study of praxis (Kemmis & Smith, 2008) to identify and describe how certain pedagogies help students meet “stage one” challenges in doctoral education (Lovitts, 2001) at one university. Findings from a literature review identified the challenges typically experienced at “entry and adjustment,” including gaining formal knowledge about the structure of a discipline; experiencing growth in conceptual development and modes of scholarly inquiry; learning about and experiencing the role of graduate student and independent researcher; forming relationships with peers and faculty, and participating in department culture and professional networks; and learning about the role, responsibilities, and work of faculty as teachers, researchers, and stewards of a discipline, field, and profession. The author identified seven core strategies associated with stage one doctoral pedagogy and analyzed how and why they supported students in their journey to become scholars and independent researchers.

Introduction

When doctoral students enrolled in an interdisciplinary leadership program attend a Saturday orientation meeting, they begin the first of three stages in doctoral education (Lovitts, 2001; Tinto as cited in Golde, 1998). The first stage involves entry and first year experience in the program. The orientation meeting educates students about their role and responsibilities as graduate students and introduces them to department faculty and culture. Students and faculty introduce themselves to the group, and when my turn comes, I try to get students to laugh. I tell them about a statistic I read somewhere – only 15% of the students enrolled in formal education truly enjoy school – and we're all seated in this room!

Following introductions, faculty and students eat lunch together and briefly review program structures, concentrations, and course offerings. After lunch faculty members depart with the exception of my colleague and me. We introduce the first five credits in the “core” leadership program and conduct a brief class meeting as the final orientation activity. We describe course themes, learning goals, required reading, and assign the first paper, emphasizing important scholarly habits, such as careful reading (and re-reading) of texts and the characteristics of an effective paper. All this occurs in preparation for an intensive four-day, on-campus residential experience, fondly called “boot camp.”

During orientation, students learn doctoral education starts now, and continues in a cycle during their first year: they read texts, write papers, engage in research activities, and reflect on their learning before they enter class to learn together. We also describe some additional goals not found in the syllabus. These include our plan to demystify doctoral education, help them overcome their fears about their ability to do this work, and discover and value the importance of relationships for support and learning in their program.

We end the session by describing the “imposter syndrome” (Brookfield & Preskill, 2005) experienced by many fearful college students:

Students who feel like imposters imagine that they are constantly on the verge of being found out to be too dumb and unprepared for college-level learning. They imagine that once this discovery is made, they will be asked to leave whatever program they're enrolled in, shrouded in a cloud of public shame, humiliation, and embarrassment. Each week that passes without this happening only serves to increase the sense that a dramatic unmasking lies around the corner. ‘Surely,’ these students tell themselves, ‘sooner or later someone, somewhere, is going to realize that letting me onto this campus was a big mistake. I don't belong here, and I'm not smart enough to succeed.’ (p. 143)

Smiles of relief spread across student faces as they read the above passage. We invite students to comment on their fears (most missed a few hours sleep the previous night), and then tell a few inspirational and humorous stories about student fears and subsequent success. We close the session by stating one obvious fact: the faculty accepted them into the program because they met the department's criteria as capable

students likely to succeed in earning a doctorate. The rest is up to them.

Defining Pedagogy and Praxis

In this self-study of praxis, I investigated how the adoption of certain pedagogies may help students to meet stage one challenges in doctoral education. Pedagogy concerns the way knowledge is produced and “the transformation of consciousness that takes place in the interaction of three agencies – the teacher, the learner and the knowledge they together produce” (Lusted, 1986, p. 3). Lusted’s eloquent description of the pursuit of knowledge and consciousness reveals the struggle and rewards of learning for students and teachers:

Knowledge is produced not just at the researcher’s desk nor at the lectern but in the *consciousness*, through the process of thought, discussion, writing, debate, exchange; in the social and internal, collective and isolated struggle for control of understanding; from engagement in the unfamiliar idea, the difficult formulation pressed at the limit of comprehension or energy; in the meeting of the deeply held and casually dismissed; in the dramatic moment of realisation (*sic*) that a scarcely regarded concern, an unarticulated desire, the barely assimilated, can come alive, make for a new sense of self, change commitments and activity. And these are also *transformations* which take place across all agencies in an educational process, regardless of their title as academic, critic, teacher or learner. (p. 4)

“Critical exchanges” and “arrangements” within the learning environment foster co-learning and knowledge construction (Danby & Lee, 2012). Pedagogy concerns the co-creation of knowledge within social communities through interactions between students, teachers, and disciplines with the potential of transformation. Simmons described specific pedagogical elements, “referring to [pedagogy as] the integration in practice of particular curriculum content and design, classroom strategies and technique, a time and space for the practice of those strategies and techniques and evaluation purposes and methods” (as cited in Stenberg & Lee, 2002, p. 328). “Praxis” includes an examination of pedagogy and practice with a moral view, including its effects on participants and “the social and historical consequences of their action” (Kemmis & Smith, 2008, p. 4).

Praxis requires self-awareness of the purposes and goals of learning with the willingness to judge actions by its consequences (Kemmis & Smith, 2008). The complexities involved in student and teacher learning occur and become subjects of investigation through “praxis inquiry” (Burrige, Carpenter, Cherednichenko & Krueger, 2010), involving critical and moral reflection on all aspects of learning and teaching. I use the terms “pedagogy” and “praxis” to offer a social and cultural view of learning and teaching with the construction of knowledge within communities as an ongoing task and product of interactions between students and teachers.

I first describe findings from a review of literature concerning the stages in doctoral education, introduce my research question, and explain my methodology. I then offer as data a description of doctoral pedagogy, including the selection of resources, design of learning activities, arrangement of the learning environment, and campus activities associated with formation experiences in accomplishing the academic and social tasks (Lovitts, 2001, 2008) associated with stage one in doctoral education. My

praxis inquiry revealed seven *core* strategies adopted to meet student characteristics, needs, and goals during induction and formal coursework. I describe and analyze how and why pedagogical intentions, moves, and arrangements within a learning community support doctoral students on their journey. I conclude with brief comments regarding the importance of supporting and mentoring doctoral students within coursework through deliberate staging of learning events.

I offer this study and my analysis as a contribution to a community of practice (Wenger, 2006). My study concerns how learning experiences in coursework contribute to the development of a scholarly or researcher identity. I briefly introduce the three stages in doctoral education, and then describe stage one challenges in detail.

Stages in Doctoral Education

Descriptions of stages in doctoral education show a progression from student admission and entry into a doctoral program to degree completion. “Stage 1 occurs from admission through the first year of coursework. In Stage 2, the student typically completes coursework, passes candidacy exams, and begins the dissertation proposal process. In Stage 3, the student focuses on completing the dissertation” (Tinto as cited in Baker & Pifer, 2011, p. 5). Descriptions of stages refer not only to program requirements but also the accomplishment of developmental tasks associated with pursuing a doctoral degree. For example, Lovitts (2011) used the term “entry and adjustment” to describe stage one, revealing more takes place than simply starting a course of study. Students adjust to the program and transition into doctoral education (Lovitts, 2001).

During stage two, students must shift from consuming to creating knowledge (Baker, Pifer, & Flemion, 2013) to gain competence and independence (Lovitts, 2001). An approved proposal ends stage two and begins the third, and final “research stage,” involving the period from beginning to completion of the dissertation (Lovitts, 2001). Because doctoral faculty must not only know what students need to learn during stage one but also the competencies needed for stage two and three, Horton’s (1998) “two-eyed” theory of teaching applies here. Faculty must keep “one eye on where people are, and one eye on where they can be” (p. xx). Stage one course instructors must help students meet stage one challenges and facilitate their transition from being “good course-takers” to independent researchers (Lovitts, 2005, p. 1) in preparation for stages two and three – a tall order.

State One Challenges in Doctoral Education

During admission, induction, and initial coursework, doctoral students begin to form a scholarly identity and experience the mentored nature of doctoral education (Richardson, 2006). Golde’s (1998) description of four “general tasks of transition and initial socialization” in doctoral education offers a window on the challenges experienced, and questioning characteristic of first-year doctoral students (p. 56). Doctoral challenges identified in Golde’s study included (1) “intellectual mastery” to assess capableness with regard to scholarly work; (2) “learning about the realities of life as graduate student,” to estimate the costs and benefits associated with the struggle; (3) “learning about the profession” to identify and determine whether anticipated career paths remains attractive and

available; and (4) “integrating oneself with the department” to see whether a good fit exists between the student and department (p. 56).

Four questions accompany the transition: “Can I do this? ... Do I want to be a graduate student? ... Do I want to do this work? ... [and] Do I belong here?” (Golde, 1998, p. 56). Doctoral students seek answers to these questions to determine whether they made the right choice. I organized review findings using Golde’s questions.

Can I do This?

The goal of becoming an independent scholar in doctoral education is a “journey toward independence, rooted in the socialization process of graduate school” (Gardner, 200, p. 326). The journey begins in stage one through student engagement in formal coursework and informal learning experiences with the end goal of gaining competence in research, writing a dissertation, and earning a doctoral degree. These concerns mark academic benchmarks achieved in the path toward degree completion and “independence” as a final stage in doctoral education

Coryell, Wagner, Clark, and Stuessy (2013) analyzed “learner impressionist tales” composed by students in response to a class assignment (the course instructor did not serve as a member of the research team) regarding their early experiences in forming a researcher identity. Stories revealed students experienced considerable anxiety, felt threatened, and questioned their capableness in doing research and writing a paper. Students wondered how “real researchers construct knowledge” (p. 375) and “know their work is valid” (p. 378).

Approaching the formation of a scholarly identity through changes in conceptual understanding and adoption of roles, Kiley (2009) found students get stuck due to an inability to understand concepts or ways of conducting research. Doctoral students struggled to understand “the concept of an *argument* or *thesis*, supported by defensible evidence” (p. 298); “the concept of *theory* as underpinning research and being an outcome of research” (p. 299); and the “concept of a *framework* as a means of locating or bounding the research” (p. 299). Threshold theory explains students’ conceptual difficulties and their struggle to achieve understanding (Meyer & Land as cited in Kiley, 2009). Getting unstuck often requires successive attempts at learning and receiving help from peers and supervisors. Emphasizing the importance of cognitive mentoring and academic culture, Kiley (2009) found research supervisors emphasized discussion, concepts maps, and visual aids to help students free themselves from stuck places in their understanding.

Lovitts’ (2001) study of doctoral attrition (and success) revealed how students made progress during stage one: they acquired formal disciplinary knowledge, learned how to engage in scholarly inquiry, and adopted a balanced approach to achieving academic tasks and accomplished social integration within the department and university. Embarking on a journey to become stewards of a discipline and profession, students enroll in coursework during stage one to gain formal disciplinary knowledge as well as concepts and practices associated with scholarly inquiry (Richardson, 2006). Doctoral students join a discourse community, which “defines the field, conducts the research within it, determines criteria for validity, and helps to mentor and support developing stewards” (p. 255). In addition to formal and practical knowledge, Richardson described the intellectual dispositions needed to examine and challenge unexamined beliefs and understandings gained from experience, and determine “what it might

take for others to change these beliefs” (p. 258). Lovitt’s (2008) identified individual resources, including intelligence, motivation, knowledge, personality, and thinking styles, as factors affecting degree completion and creative performance.

Stage one challenges pertain to gaining formal knowledge and also knowing how to move through the program to earn a degree. Beyond the idea of learning whether students can meet the intellectual demands and academic tasks required in doctoral education, students must also know enough about the expectations and requirements to assess their ability to succeed in the program, asking not only “Can I do this?” (Golde, 1998, p. 56) but also, “How do I do this?” The answers to the next two questions largely concern the socialization of graduate students.

Do I Want to be a Graduate Student? Do I Want to do this Work?

Lovitt’s (2001) comprehensive study of doctoral attrition revealed students enter doctoral programs mostly uninformed about program requirements or their potential fit with the department and program. During stage one and two, students must learn the formal requirements and gain an appreciation of the academic and social tasks involved in earning a doctorate and joining a profession. To become a successful scholar and professional, students must also acquire practical knowledge to understand how to enact the role and accomplish the work within the academy or the field (Richardson, 2006).

Developmental challenges involve recognizing a “shift in cognitive development to [meet the] demands of graduate school [and an] understanding professional roles” (Gardner, 2008, p. 344). The formation of a scholarly identity and entry into a new culture and role does not occur instantaneously; instead students experience a state of liminality while attempting to perform a role (Turner as cited in Kiley, 2009). Students in stage one “often focused on short-term goals. They scheduled their life based on assignment due dates and exam dates, the beginning and end of semesters, and the timing and completion of program milestones” (Baker & Pifer, 2011, p. 13). Adopting a researcher identity requires a long-term commitment to scholarship (Baker & Pifer, 2011).

Doctoral students engage in sense-making as they establish their identities as scholar-in-training and reconcile those identities with a preexisting sense of self” (Pifer & Baker, 2014, p. 14). Gaining expertise requires students to experience a period of formation, defined as a “process through which intellectual and social practices of a discipline are gradually internalized by novice practitioners” (Walker, Golde, Jones, Bueschel, & Hutchings, 2008, p. 61). Three principles characterize this journey: “(1) *progressive development* towards increasing independence and responsibility, (2) *integration* across contexts and arenas of scholarly work, and (3) *collaboration* with peers and faculty at each stage of the process” (pp. 61-62).

Delaying formation experiences, such as postponing engagement in research during the early (first) stage of doctoral education, works against developing the capacity for creative and independent work (Lovitts, 2005). Research productivity and strong relationships with mentors favorably predicted degree completion in all five disciplines examined in Nettles and Millett’s (2006) survey of 9,000 doctoral students enrolled in the top 21 degree-granting institutions in the United States. Formation experiences help students develop an appreciation for the long-term goals regarding the dissertation proposal and completion process (Baker & Pifer, 2011).

Drawing from professional education, Golde (2008) described three types of apprenticeship needed to prepare doctoral students for a future faculty role. The first, the “*intellectual apprenticeship* emphasizes content knowledge and ways of thinking inherent in the profession and discipline” (p. 19). The intellectual apprenticeship involves thinking like a professional, learning to adopt modes of inquiry and analytical methods while enacting a professional role. The next two, the “skill apprenticeship,” and the “apprenticeship of identity and purpose” emphasize performing the work (knowing how) and knowing the ethical standards, roles and norms of the profession (p. 19). Golde, Bueschel, Jones, and Walker (2009) argued for expansion of the traditional meaning of apprenticeship involving a senior mentor with a junior scholar “to free it from its connotations of indentured servitude” (p. 55). They recommend students learn from many mentors using an expanded idea of apprenticeship, helping student gain access to expert knowledge and benefitting from multiple relationships and also shared faculty responsibility for student development.

Lovitts’ (2001) study of the causes and consequences of doctoral attrition revealed factors causing students to leave, such as the lack of good information, the absence of community, disappointing learning experiences, and the quality of the adviser-advisee relationship. Using the metaphor of mental maps, Lovitts (2001) described the importance of accessing global maps (mental models) regarding the overall structure of the program as well as local maps with routes to accomplishing academic and social tasks.

Gardner (2009a) interviewed faculty and students to examine the causes for attrition. Faculty generally attributed attrition to deficiencies described as “student lacking” [missing motivation, initiative, ability, etc.], enrolled in the program for the wrong reasons, and personal problems. Students attributed attrition problem to program fit, departmental politics, and personal problems. The only area of agreement in between faculty and students concerned personal problems (Gardner, 2009a). Nettles and Millett’s (2006) identified three types of personal problems causing students to interrupt or “stop out” of their program: work, money, and family concerns. To improve their experience, student participants in Gardner’s (2009a) study recommended faculty increase efforts to educate them about the program and goals and help them achieve integration with the department and discipline. The last question concerns relationships, “fit,” and networks.

Do I Belong Here?

Relationships change over the course of doctoral education, beginning with peer, faculty, and staff relationships within the department to forming and developing a close relationship with an advisor, and later, establishing a relationship to the “larger discipline” (Gardner, 2008, p. 344). These relationships promote a sense of belonging and eventually membership in an academic community. Baker and Pifer (2011) found relationships provided “general support and advice,” and contributed to identity development as “scholar[s] in training” and scholars engaged in “academic practice” (p. 8). Relationships in doctoral education provide support and facilitate self-discovery during the transition from student to scholar.

Using a sociocultural perspective, “learning is the result of social interactions with members of a given social group...[fostering] epistemological change (what one knows – knowledge) and ontological (identity) change” (Baker & Lattuca, 2010, p. 814). Socialization experiences include academic interactions with faculty, including “the

quality of instruction, faculty availability to meet with students, faculty academic advising, feedback on projects and academic progress, faculty interest in student research and the quality of professional advising, and job placement by faculty” (Nettles & Millett, 2006, p. 94). Participation in different aspects of doctoral education help students to determine the degree to which they “fit” in and gain a sense of belonging and membership in a community (Baker & Pifer, 2013).

Baker and Pifer (2015) applied “fit” theory to doctoral education, identifying three different types of fit, person-environment (PE fit), person-culture (PC fit), and person-vocation (PV fit).

PE Fit encompasses doctoral students’ perception of fit within the university and the academic department or program as well as person–person fit with faculty, staff, and other students – particularly those who comprise a student’s immediate work group, lab group, or research team; cohort, classmates, or peer group; and peer mentors such as more advanced students. (p. 300)

The lack of mentors or the experience of isolation leads to a poor PE fit (Baker & Pifer, 2015; Nettles & Millett, 2006). Gardner’s (2008) study of socialization revealed five groups of doctoral students who “did not fit the mold” of traditional graduate education including women, students of color, older students, students with children, and part-time students” (p. 130). Students reported negative interactions, experienced dissatisfaction, and thought about leaving the program.

The PC fit refers primarily to the fit between doctoral students and the department, discipline and professional associations (Baker & Pifer, 2015). A strong fit between the student and the culture enhances a professional reputation and job placement; a poor fit occurs when goals and ideals are in dispute. Antony and Taylor’s (2004) study on Black student socialization found “expectations of congruence and assimilation ... [and] the need to adjust to these expectations serves [d] as a profound trigger of stereotype threat,” reducing the potential benefits of socialization experiences to advance the career aspirations of Black students (p. 93). Nearly half of all African American Ph.D. recipients earned their degree in education (Golde & Walker, 2006, p. 246), making studies of the inclusion and socialization of students of Color in doctoral education an important focus.

The PV fit concerns the career path associated with the degree program. If the program largely sponsors candidates seeking tenure-track appointments, non-traditional candidates with alternative career paths may experience a poor fit (Baker & Pifer, 2015). Part-time students enrolled in a doctoral program in education with experience in K-12 education may return to their professional careers and seek advancement instead of seeking a faculty position (Golde & Walker, 2006). Students with varying knowledge of and access to academic and social communities achieved different levels of integration within communities (Lovitts, 2001, 2005).

Lovitt’s (2005) emphasized student experience over characteristics with regard to degree completion: “It is less the background characteristics students bring with them to the university than what happens to them after they enroll that affects decisions and completion” (p. 116). Success depends largely on access and opportunities to achieve integration through participation in communities leading to the development of more

sophisticated “cognitive maps” (Lovitts, 2001). Full participation allows students an opportunity to determine whether a good fit exists between the student, department and their future role in higher education.

Summary of Review Findings

Several key areas appeared as stage one challenges: (1) gaining formal knowledge about the structure of a discipline (Lovitts, 2001; Richardson, 2006), (2) experiencing growth in conceptual development and learning modes of scholarly inquiry (Gardner 2008; Golde, 1998; Kiley, 2009; Lovitts 2001, 2005, 2008; Metz, 2001; Richardson, 2006), (3) learning the graduate student role (Gardner, 2008; Golde, 1998; Kiley, 2009; Lovitts, 2001, 2004), (4) forming relationships with peers, faculty, and the department (Antony & Taylor, 2004; Baker & Lattuca, 2010; Baker & Pifer, 2011, 2015; Gardner, 2008; Golde, 1998; Lovitts, 2001, 2005; Nettles & Millett, 2006) and with a discipline, profession, field, and vocation (Baker & Pifer, 2015; Gardner, 2008; Golde, 2005; Lovitts, 2001; Nettles & Millett, 2006).

Because students seek answers to Golde’s (1998) overarching question, “Is this the right choice?” (p. 56), students need rich introductory experiences to learn about the nature of doctoral education, including the personal, social and academic demands associated with the role of graduate student and independent scholar. I turn now to my research question and methodology.

Research Question, Purpose and Significance

I adopted the following question to guide my inquiry: How does the adoption of certain pedagogies help students make the transition into doctoral education and support their future acquisition of stage two and three competencies? My purpose in conducting this inquiry of praxis is to make “pedagogy public” (Andresen, 2010, p. 143) by identifying why and how certain pedagogies serve the developmental needs and programmatic challenges encountered by doctoral students during the early stages of their education. Boyer (1990) argued pedagogy subjected to rigorous peer review and shared with colleagues “educates and entices future scholars” (p. 23). Studies of pedagogy may potentially contribute to knowledge regarding how course instructors help students meet developmental challenges encountered during their first year (Gardner, 2009b; Golde, 2005) and potentially reduce feelings of isolation and poor program fit described by students discontinuing doctoral programs (Lovitts, 2001; Nettles & Millett, 2006).

Methodology

I adopted praxis inquiry, an action research method, to conduct my study regarding how certain pedagogies support student development and learning in the early stages of doctoral education. “Praxis” describes action informed by theory—capturing the important relationship between the action taken and the reasons for its selection and its effects based on viable theories and perspectives. “Being able to look back on an event with hindsight and with access to resources, including discussion with colleagues, references to research, and comparisons with other events,” captures the essential nature of praxis inquiry (Burrige, Carpenter, Cherednichenko & Krueger, 2010, p. 24).

Praxis inquiry fits under the umbrella of formal or informal action research; the methods employed follow a familiar cycle of research, beginning with the identification of an area worthy of investigation, data collection, analysis, experimentation with methods to make improvements, changes in practice, and evaluation of the effect of these changes on student learning. To locate “core” strategies included under the umbrella of doctoral pedagogy during stage one, I followed the action research steps described.

Action research “empowers teachers in monitoring and analyzing personal practices with the intent of expanding ... [the] knowledge base and enhancing instructional prowess” (Schoen, 2007, p. 215). The knowledge gained may be shared in communities of practice (CoP; Wenger, 2006) with the intent of learning by making improvements in practice. I reviewed, described, and reflected on “pedagogy” (the larger meanings of this term described earlier) adopted and refined over more than a decade of critical reflection on practice. As I learned more about students, including their characteristics, needs, and experiences as primarily part-time students and the goals of doctoral education, I made changes to pedagogy with colleagues in response to student learning and feedback. I used the continued discovery of the purposes and goals of doctoral education to sharpen my focus and practice.

Collaborative efforts with teaching partners and colleagues produced changes in my understanding and approach, affecting my idea regarding what it means to be a “good” teacher and professor. My investigation allowed me to name and describe core strategies for stage one doctoral education in my analysis – revealing how and why certain methods establish a “good” beginning for doctoral education. Using professional knowledge and established criteria for “good learning and teaching,” allowed me to scrutinize the identified strategies and explain their contribution to student learning based on principles associated with effective learning and teaching. I named the strategies and used theories from education, psychology, and sociology and findings from empirical studies to explain their success.

Boyer (1990) identified four types of scholarship in higher education: the scholarship of discovery (original research), the scholarship of integration (multidisciplinary work aimed at identifying “large intellectual patterns” in research; p. 19), the scholarship of application (applying theory to practice and learning from its application to advance knowledge and serve society), and the scholarship of teaching. A scholarly teacher uses the results of research in teaching (Boyer, 1990), however, a scholar of teaching engages in critical inquiries of practice to discover knowledge and pedagogy “previously ignored, or inadequately understood or presented” (Andresen, 2010, p. 149) with the potential to “draw attention to aspects of subject knowledge previously ignored, or inadequately understood and appreciated” (Eizenberg as cited in Andresen, 2010, p. 149).

Before continuing to the next section involving the program description, I wish to acknowledge here my substantial collaboration with Dr. Kate Boyle, a colleague and friend, and now chair of our department. Her contributions to the course content, arrangements, and my learning produced significant change in the course and me. We taught together for many years and continued to add and refine the methods described in this study. I also recognize the contributions of other teaching partners (Drs. Huber, Fish, Radd, Sathe, and Klein) as co-collaborators in course design.

To reflect the contributions of my teaching partners and the department practice of co-teaching *core* courses, I use “we” instead of “I” in my description of our efforts. In

the spirit of praxis inquiry, I share the methods I consider representative of doctoral pedagogy and analyze how and why they show promise in addressing student challenges in doctoral education. I briefly explain the position of the first two courses (five credits) in the *core* program and describe the student arrangements and course goals at their entry point in their doctoral program.

Leadership “Core” Courses

Students enrolled in an interdisciplinary doctoral leadership program at the University of St. Thomas participate in a “core” curriculum (18 credits) as one component of their doctoral coursework leading to a doctorate in education (Ed.D.). The *core* introduces multiple perspectives of leadership as well as the methods and habits of scholarship in the Academy. The first two courses, designated as EDLD 910 and 911: Leaders and Organizations: Multidisciplinary Perspectives, introduce the purposes and goals of doctoral education in a six-month period. The first two of a five-credit course sequence occurs during a four-day intensive summer course, followed by a three-credit course offered during the fall term as a continuation of *core* coursework.

Students participate in an open cohort model, attending *core* courses one weekend a month in fall and spring terms over a three-year period. Students also enroll in other coursework to meet degree requirements and prepare for a candidate examination and proposal defense. Approximately 15-20 students begin their study yearly with backgrounds in K-12 education, higher education, business, health, government, non-profit, and social service fields. The *core* sets the stage for inducting students into the doctoral program and providing foundational experiences in leadership and scholarship. The “content” of the curriculum serves a larger purpose: introducing students to the contributions of different disciplines to education, learning different assumptions, practices, and modes of disciplinary/interdisciplinary inquiry, participating in an intellectual community, and gradually learning about and successfully performing the role of researcher/scholar.

Course goals emphasize leadership and scholarship, including: critical reflection on practice, naming and critiquing dominant traditions influencing leadership, expanding multiple perspectives using theories drawn from a variety of disciplines to analyze critical leadership issues in a global society, and increasing knowledge and skills with regard to critical thinking, analysis, and forming a scholarly argument. I describe features of doctoral pedagogy to address stage one challenges next.

Doctoral Pedagogy

I identified seven “core” strategies useful in helping students to meet stage one challenges in doctoral education, and as preparation for future success in stage two and three. These included: (1) cohort development and participation in department culture, (2) critical reading and discussion to experience interdisciplinary frameworks and modes of inquiry, (3) writing papers and receiving strategy instruction and feedback, (4) participating in research teams and writing group-authored reviews of literature; becoming familiar with academic genres, (5) participating in active, collaborative, and novel learning experiences using constructivist approaches, 6) using journals to keep

track of ideas and development, and engage in critical reflection, and (7) learning from role models, advisors, and mentors through interactions, example, and story. (see Figure 1. Doctoral pedagogy in stage one). Since doctoral students typically learn through coursework in stage one, the pedagogy described in this paper primarily concerns facilitation of student learning within courses.

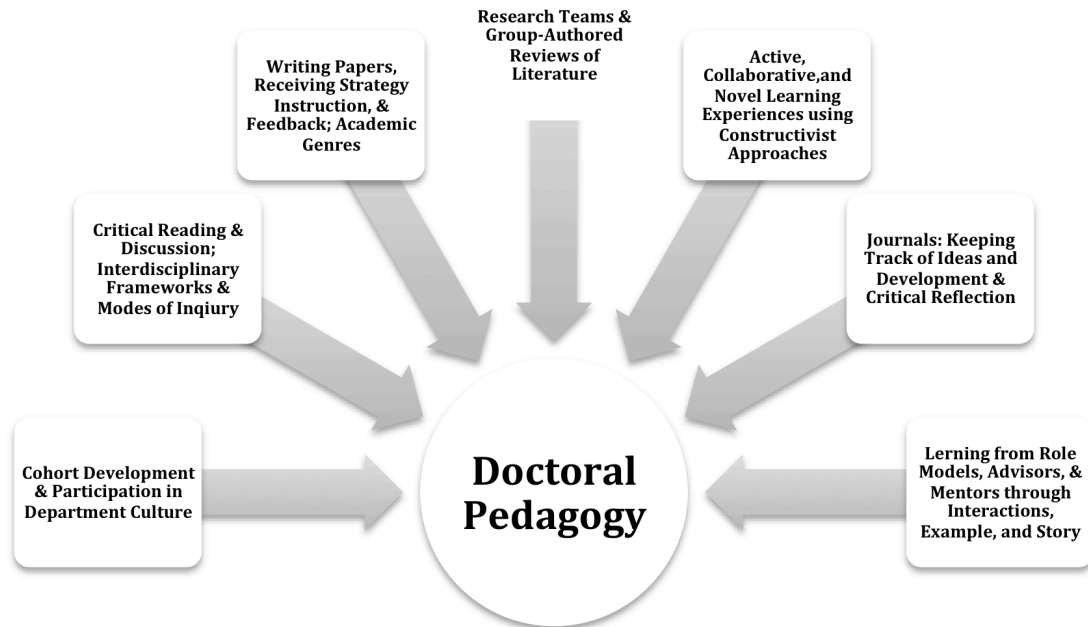


Figure 1. Doctoral pedagogy in stage one, seven core strategies

Cohort Development and Participation in Department Culture

Cohort formation involves the selection and organization of doctoral students in a cohort with deliberate arrangements to facilitate group cohesiveness and trust for peer support and learning. While not described in detail here, the selection process involves an assessment of individual capabilities for doctoral work and the contributions students may make to cohort learning. Once accepted, students enroll in a two-credit summer intensive course with a required residential life experience at the beginning of their program. Students live in dorms for four days and complete assigned work during the evenings. They stay up late, form friendships, and establish the norms for participation and membership in the cohort. We know this indirectly through conversation and observation.

Most students find ways to contribute – making arrangements for the group, playing music, telling stories, mentoring others in using technology, or offering a ride to campus when the bus breaks down. Students begin the first day quietly and this changes

dramatically by the next morning. Signs of group cohesion (Johnson & Johnson, 2013) include increased social interactions, inclusion of group members (noticing missing members and providing assistance), increased consideration for colleagues, humor and inside jokes, and a group Facebook™ page.

During the summer course and continuing through the core program, students also enjoy meals together every day during the summer and on Friday nights during fall and spring semesters. The meals facilitate social interactions between students and professors and often, colleagues from different programs. Program founders believed meals fostered community. Despite a few attacks on the budget, the tradition of the dorm experience and meals continue to find favor among faculty and students.

We begin the core program with an opening ritual. A bucket of fresh flowers, a vase, and a pair of scissors sit on the center table. Students receive a simple instruction: introduce yourselves to the cohort, identify a leader in your life you wish to be with you this week as you begin your doctoral journey, describe his/her contribution to your life, select a flower to represent your leader, trim it, and add your flowers to the bouquet. Next, write the name of your leader on the blackboard, and then return to your place.

When the ritual ends, we discuss the various ways leaders facilitate our development and model ways of being in the world. The room fills with emotion as students describe important relationships and life experiences. We emphasize the importance of relationships as critical source of support in doctoral education, including those who guided us on the journey, those present in the room, and those in our future. We ask the students to take care of the bouquet over the next four days and the members of their cohort for the duration of the program.

Students plan and conduct the closing activity at the end of four days. Their rituals generally feature their hopes and goals for doctoral education and the way they intend to support each other. Many express relief and happiness with the completion of the first two-credits in doctoral education. A few confess they never expected to enjoy learning. A favorite closing ritual for the end of the five-credit sequence occurs on the last day of class in the fall semester. Shortly after students complete and share their end-of-the-course summary and reflection, we slip into our offices and put on our academic gowns and caps. Surprising students as we enter the classroom, we use the gowns to describe the history and distinguishing features of the Academy represented in academic wear. We then share the words of our university president after conferring the doctoral degree during the graduation ceremony, “Welcome to the community of scholars.” The ritual emphasizes degree completion and membership in the Academy – a future symbol of their achievement and confirmation as a scholar.

The rituals introduce students to department culture, and the gown serves as a symbol of the university and future role. The culture of the department and university affect the socialization experiences of students as they join an established culture with strong norms regarding what it means to become a member of a profession (Baker & Pifer, 2013).

An important aspect of doctoral education concerns forming relationships with peer, faculty and the department. Developmental networks serve as important sources of “*psychosocial support*... [, helping students gain a] sense of competence, identity, and work-role effectiveness” (Baker & Lattuca, 2010, p. 810). Active and engaged learning

experiences requiring collaboration with peers in class contribute to group cohesion and foster sincere feelings of belonging inside and outside of class.

Participation in “in an academic community and acquiring knowledge provides “entrée into a community: without this base, the doctoral student cannot become a member of that community” (p. 812). McMillan (1996) described four characteristics of community, including spirit, trust, trade, and art. Spirit refers to the “spark of friendship [with] connections to others so that we have a setting and an audience to express unique aspects of our personality” (p. 315). Communities provide emotional safety to encourage truth, including descriptions of “internal experience” and feelings.

The first step require (*sic*) the member's courage to tell his or her intensely personal truth. The second and third steps involve the community. Can the community accept this truth safely? Can members of the community respond with courage equal to the self disclosing member's courage and develop a circle of truth tellers and empathy givers? (p. 316)

Spirit fosters trust (McMillan, 1996). An “authority structure” with shared expectations, group norms, equal distributions of power, and “principle above person” allows community members to contribute (p. 320). McMillan described “trade” as benefits derived from participation in groups, beginning with positive feelings but eventually allowing safe discussion of “criticisms, suggestions and differences of opinion” (p. 321). Finally, art refers to the stories, experiences, dramatic moments, and collective memory fostered by a common experience. McMillan’s description of a sense of community offers criteria for measuring whether membership and participation in communities allows truth-telling and challenges to dominant views bolstered by friendship, empathy, boundaries, and shared norms and values.

Critical Reading and Discussion: Interdisciplinary Frameworks and Modes of

Inquiry

Selected texts, such as Takaki’s (2008) *A Different Mirror: A History of Multicultural America*, help students explore leadership in historical and contemporary contexts. Takaki provided an immigrant history with descriptions of cultural, political, social, and economic history often left out of traditional texts. The text invites readers to engage in a critical analysis of American history. Reading and interpreting texts with a critical stance creates openings for seeing things differently. Students develop “an intertextual network – historical, epistemological and methodological webs – among texts which ‘spoke’ to each other and which would serve later in writing and other forms of academic communication” (McAlpine, 2012, p. 354).

To study individual and collective leadership in social movements, students read *The Long Haul*, Horton’s (1998) biography of leadership. They see the power of education, the effects of radicalizing moments on individual and social change, strategies used in social activism, and the importance of social justice in leadership. Students read Morgan’s (2006) *Images of Organizations*, to learn how application of different

metaphors provides new ways of analyzing leadership challenges to gain perspective and consider alternative actions.

Following a long-established liberal arts tradition at our university and program, students read Cliff's *Abeng* (1994), a deceptively simple "coming of age" novel set in Jamaica during post-colonial times. We explore the universal themes in the human condition (identity, life stages, socialization, the search for meaning, and membership in communities). Students examine and analyze the various constructions of race, class, gender, and sexual preferences as well as the costs and legacy of slavery and oppression in the novel.

Greene's (1988) text, *The Dialectic of Freedom*, introduces the various meanings of "freedom" in a democracy, and argues for an opening of spaces and inclusion of diverse perspectives within communities as a condition of authentic freedom. Students struggle to interpret Greene's text and soon learn the work involved in reading and interpreting a difficult text. We ask students to nominate a passage for close reading. This requires them to select and read a passage, explain the meaning derived from the reading, and then explain why they selected this passage. Students often select passages about identity, education, and the effect of culture on their lives. Greene's text helps students see different purposes and possibilities for education in their program and life.

I feature only a few selected texts to illustrate how critical reading and discussion create disturbances with sometimes unexpected results (Lesko, Simmons, Quarshie, & Newton, 2008). Texts undermine and challenge taken-for-grant assumptions, and offer opportunities to engage in analysis – helping students see how the selection of theory and subsequent analysis foster deep learning and expanded perspectives.

Not only must a good critical reader be conscious of how his or her own reading compares with other possible readings, but he or she must also recognize how his or her own position, in a particular situation and in a broader historical and cultural location, affects his or her response to the text. Readers, like texts, are culturally grounded. When we read texts, our responses and questions reflect our cultural assumptions. (Linkon, 2005, p. 251)

Reading and interpreting texts with a critical stance creates openings for seeing things differently and analyzing experience using grand and small theories from different disciplines. Reading also prepares students to detect the underlying structure of writing expected of scholars in the field and become familiar with different types of scholarly texts.

Writing Papers, Strategy Instruction, Feedback, and Academic Genres

Prior to attending their first *core* course, students receive a writing assignment and submit their work a week before class begins. The assignment requires students to write a six-page paper about their family's experiences in the work and economic structure of the United States or in their native country. The exercise engages them in examining how their family and cultural experiences affected their assumptions about work and education. The paper serves as launching point for discussion of Takaki's (2008) *A Different Mirror: A History of Multicultural America*. The assignment allows students to enter the classroom

with a history and story, and offers diverse students an opportunity to share their family experiences and stories, achieving visibility in history and among peers.

Pifer and Baker's (2014) study of "Otherness" in doctoral programs concerned the experience of diverse students in doctoral education, including their estimates of success and fears associated with gaining acceptance and experiencing success in a doctoral program.

We found that students were acutely aware of the ways in which they may be different during a time in which they are engaged in risk-taking and identity transformation in the pursuit of the doctorate. Further, they pondered these differences carefully and accepted them as potential explanations for failure or inequitable access to resources in that pursuit. Findings reiterate what the diversity literature indicates: race, gender, and nationality matter in terms of understanding experiences in higher education and inequity across those experiences. (p. 26)

Valuing diversity and encouraging expressions of family and cultural stories provide a corner of safety for diverse students enrolled in doctoral education.

After sharing the content of their papers, students receive detailed feedback on their papers, including the conceptual and technical aspects of writing. We provide several pages of "line edits" to illustrate the changes needed in their text to meet standards for doctoral writing, and warn them this "editing service" does not occur elsewhere in their program. The tracked changes and comments on electronic versions of their papers give students an appreciation of the improvement needed in their writing and the value of editing. Their ideas and voice still appear in their papers but the overall quality of their writing improves dramatically for most, not all students.

We continue with a discussion of different forms of scholarly writing and identify the roles and purposes of writing in different academic genres. Viewing writing as a developmental project, we provide detailed feedback knowing this serves as the primary way students learn to write in doctoral programs (Aitchison, Catterall, Ross, & Burgin, 2012). Stories of revisions/rejections" of our submissions of conference proposals and articles reveal the risk of putting work out there and experiencing rejection. Our message: this happens to all of us – get over it!

Another writing assignment requires students to select a single theme described in two texts and produce a new understanding of the theme through critical reading and analysis. This exercise affords them an opportunity to describe how different authors contribute to an exploration of theory or concept, a valuable skill used in many forms of academic writing. We describe ways to construct an argument – one author might define the concept more clearly, while another might provide vivid examples to illustrate its application. Two authors might agree on several points but emphasize or arrange them differently. We warn students against a "book report" style of writing – author "A" said this, and author "B" said that, and instead advise students to consider and integrate the authors' contributions to a central theme.

This type of scaffolding supports students in their initial attempts to write through strategy instruction and comparison (Harris, Santangelo, & Graham (2010). Introducing an assignment, providing specific feedback, and the debriefing process complete a

developmental cycle of practice. Writing instruction addresses typical problems of novice or struggling writers, helping them avoid the obvious mistakes. Quite often students use “good looking” quotations to write their papers. They lack knowledge regarding how to regulate their efforts and compose text, and instead borrow the words from others without introducing and placing the quotation in an appropriate context based on the original text. We kindly explain this does not qualify as scholarship and discuss how to think and write differently.

Following this discussion about quotations, students return to their groups to revise their writing. I overheard one student say to another, “I can’t do this - I can’t write without quotations!” The second student replied, “I can’t do it either, but we’re going to learn how to do it, starting right now!” The two students read an article together, discussed the findings, and wrote a summary, sentence-by-painful sentence. They learned an important lesson: they can write like this but it takes time.

Students write a mini-case study of their leadership experience and apply metaphorical thinking to their analysis using Morgan’s (2006) *Images of Organizations*. Before they tackle the assignment, I share a guide to support student thinking in forming an argument called STAR (Noonan, 2013). The letters represent simple steps in forming an argument: summarize the data, select and describe a theory to analyze data, analyze (showing how theory explains and elevates their understanding of data), and reflect and recommend based on the insights gained from analysis. The results of their analysis represent “new” knowledge and offers insights valuable to their personal development or professional practice.

Research Teams and Writing Group-Authored Reviews of Literature

The most challenging assignment during the summer and fall term involves writing a group-authored review of literature on an assigned research question. During the course of a single semester, students review literature, identify significant themes, learn how to introduce the review and describe studies, become “familiar” with APA style, and gain experience regarding the scholarship needed in preparing a research project.

Group-authored reviews require strategy, significant collaboration with peers and a good deal of instructor support. Students do not simply add their paragraph to the larger review, but instead incorporate the work of colleagues into a single body of work. Ensuring individual accountability, students submit text within the review using an assigned text color to show their contribution throughout the review. A poor review typically shows long blocks of color (taking turns writing sections or a dominant author) and lack of good description and integration of findings; good reviews, written in one voice with colorful text patterns in most paragraphs, show evidence of collaboration and integration. One student summarized the process for novice scholars: claim, cite, and explain! Later students write a review of literature as solo scholars - but first they begin their scholarly journey by working together.

Metz (2001) taught a seminar on diverse research traditions in interdisciplinary educational research to show students a “common anatomy for social science research,” irrespective of disciplinary perspectives and methodologies. “The key element, the starting point and most important issue in developing research, is the research question.... The research question should be tied to *a summary and analysis of prior knowledge of*

theoretical (or practical) significance” (p. 13). The review assignment introduces the logic of research design and shows how contributions from different disciplines contribute to an understanding of the issue and question. The act of writing and submitting the product of one’s mind and effort to the scrutiny of peers plays a central role in academic work. Students learn the costs and benefits of scholarship, and perhaps consider whether they wish to be a graduate student - one of Golde’s (1998) four questions.

Active, Collaborative, and Novel Learning Experiences

During the five-credit course sequence, students construct knowledge through a variety of engaging activities. For example, students select ten events in Takaki’s (2008) history during an assigned timeframe, and analyze how these events or actions affected the economic and social history of the period. We crowd around the group space to view a graphic illustration of their “events” and analysis. Removing the distance between presenters and audience. The close space invites dialogue. Instructors avoid talking and instead encourage students to add to the analysis and reflect on the group’s findings. The room settles down for deep listening and discussion.

One student notices a recurring theme in the analysis and makes connections between the group’s work and their individual or group understanding. Another student adds a different layer of analysis not seen by others. A third student invites the group to consider the author’s intent, bias, and missing data and interpretations left out of the text. We often return to the text, reading passages, offering new interpretations, and seeing new ways the text might be “read.” In this way teachers and students construct knowledge together.

Engaged learning requires an inquiry approach, students do something with the text before they try to figure out what it means. Learning comes from listening and reflecting on the findings, and then extending the ideas with skilled debriefing by instructors.

During debriefing, the teacher introduces, extends, or enriches disciplinary concepts or procedures, drawing on student experience to present and solidify concepts.... The teacher adopts a “conversational” style, probing students for their explanations and understandings of events and experience. The explanation adds a new layer of understanding to previous learning, exposing new concepts now under scrutiny. Debriefing refers *back* to experience to introduce and solidify general concepts and principles associated with the learning activity. The teacher expects students will encounter certain concepts as a result of the experience, naming and defining them. Teachers do not give up their position in the classroom as someone with knowledge and experience to share with students, but they regulate the use of more teacher-focused methods, such as lectures, until students use their knowledge and experience to engage in learning. (Noonan, 2013, p. 122)

After reading Noddings’ (2011) text, *Philosophy of Education*, students apply theory from the text to an analysis of “musty books.” Students “read” the text for examples of educational philosophy described or implied in the text, matching the example with descriptions of pedagogy. A second reading requires students to locate

images (missing and present) within text to analyze the representations of gender, class, and race/ethnicity within the musty books. This leads to a rich discussion of ways to read texts with a critical eye. The next morning, students plan a “Dewey Day Spa,” to illustrate principles and practices based on Dewey’s educational philosophy (in Noddings, 2011).

Students enjoy planning and conducting a talk show modeled after the Face the Nation program (see <http://www.cbsnews.com/face-the-nation/>). They play roles as the host and guest panelists from conservative and liberal camps. We assign roles and issues, such as the Occupy Wall Street movement, the 2008 financial collapse and housing crisis, the collapse of the 35W bridge (a Minnesota event attracting national attention), Obamacare, and this year’s topic – legalization of marijuana (we served brownies). One group plans and facilitates the program, prepares the show’s host, and creates and presents two commercial breaks lasting 60 seconds. The remaining three groups support the “guest” panelist, a volunteer from their group. The planning takes 60 minutes and the program another 30 minutes.

Panelists and host must incorporate Morgan’s (2006) metaphors in their remarks and debates during the program, and lead a debriefing on their analysis once the program ends. The metaphors stem from different disciplinary traditions, allowing us to show how a event or problem benefits from interdisciplinary analysis. Students observe the performance and also participate with online comments using Today’s Meet™ (see <https://todaysmeet.com/>); they lampoon panelists and add their ideas to the debate. The online comments resemble “tweeting” without all the bother - talk about action!

Another favorite activity involves a “dramatic performance” stemming from Cliff’s (1984) novel, *Abeng*. We assign students to small groups and ask them to extend and enrich our understanding of *Abeng* through performance and discussion. The assignment requires students to read the text together, and use creativity and drama enhance understanding. Their interpretations feature student artistic abilities as actors, musicians, and dramatic readers. Again, the debriefing adds to the analysis. The arts raise critical consciousness (Greene, 1988), and novelty contributes to enjoyment and pleasure to learning (Noonan, 2013).

The activities and cohort model lend themselves to collaborative learning, allowing us to use learner-centered psychological principals to engage and sustain learning (American Psychological Association, 1997). Lovitts (2005) study of forming a research identity identified the importance of creativity and experimentation in producing original research. Students learn early in their program about how to adopt creative approaches in their analysis, gaining confidence by experimenting with ideas through novel learning experiences and interdisciplinary modes of inquiry.

Active learning activities using constructivist approaches allow instructors to avoid coming at hard work directly (Noonan, 2013), and instead we use experiential learning and novelty to open up student minds and facilitate analysis. Students learn they can achieve depth in their analysis through collaborative learning in a safe and inclusive learning environment. Student participation in engaging learning activities serves as a form of “cognitive apprenticeship” (Collins, Brown, & Holum, 1991). Key ingredients favoring engagement and success involve the reliance on small group learning (Johnson & Johnson, 2013), the design of tasks with sufficient challenge – not too simple or difficult within the range

of student abilities with support (Vygotsky, 1978), and the design of novel tasks with skilled debriefing (Noonan, 2013).

Journals: Keeping Track of Ideas and Development and Critical Reflection

During orientation we identify three purposes of journaling, including (1) responding to instructor-provided prompts and in-class reflections on learning, (2) taking notes on reading and keeping track of terms, concepts, and theories informing their intellectual biography, and (3) recording “seeds” or ideas for their dissertation. Students use journals to record ideas and keep track of their progress. “Decades of work on how novice learners move toward advanced forms of understandings and action is that expert learners – those who continue to grow and develop throughout their careers – have a keen sense of how they learn” (Walker, Golde, Jones, Bueschel, & Hutchings, 2008, p. 85).

Grant (2007) analyzed her experience as a doctoral student and researcher, and described the importance of reflection in not only noticing changes in personal transformation but also adopting the habits of reflection as an established routine in research. “Reflecting on what angers, surprises, and/or intrigues me in both my rereading of literature as well my analyses of empirical observations from my time in the field, helps to identify the researcher I am becoming” (p. 270).

Journaling helps students keep track of their development during a significant identity change by noticing and recording insights and emerging ideas from research and reflection in their field.

Encouraging students to undertake reflective activity *regularly*... provides a starting point.... Introducing students to a range of reflective activities (for example, some form and/or combination of meditation, discussion, journaling or art) may provide a path through the wilderness – enabling students to explore which approach(s) best suits them. (Grant, 2007, p. 272)

Scholars establish practices to keep track of literature, theories, projects, writing, and ideas as an ongoing idea-generating and reflective process. The routine supports original approaches to research, accomplishment of intellectual tasks, and the habits needed to forming an intellectual biography of theories and texts. Another goal, critical reflection on practice, requires students to apply insights gained from analysis to their professional roles and duties. Students write regular reflections from instructor-provided prompts located strategically at certain turning points in learning, and see and learn the benefits of journaling in their academic and professional career.

Learning from Role Models, Advisors, and Mentors

Course instructors serve as role models, informal advisors and mentors, and “stand-in” representatives of department, university, field, and profession. Different types of experiences within formal coursework and through informal interactions with students help students begin to see and experience the purpose, goals, and work of our profession. We facilitate group development, induct students into department culture, guide students in critical reading and interpretation, introduce different forms and expressions of

scholarship, describe and model scholarly habits and virtues, and foster the development of curious and analytical minds.

A prime pedagogy for communicating about roles associated with the professoriate involves story. During class discussion and informal activities, professors transmit culture and invite participation through story (Noonan, 2007; see Andrews, Hull, & DeMeester, 2010 for storytelling as method). Quite often we tell stories about how graduates identified a research issue, developed a research design, and completed a dissertation. We share their findings to tell a research story and reveal the rewards of scholarship. Students experience three mini-forms of apprenticeship and mentorship in class: intellectual, skill-based, and identity and purpose (Golde, 2008). They begin to learn the difference between taking courses and the journey in becoming an independent researcher (Lovitts, 2005). Informal advising, discussion of the program structure and requirements, and joyful learning gets them started on their journey.

The seven core pedagogies reveal how students might begin to meet the challenges in stage one of doctoral education. A successful experience contributes to a successful transition to stages two and three, and the formation of a scholarly identity. I use Gee's (2000) identity theory to illustrate how doctoral students come to understand how to become and be scholars.

Forming a Scholarly Identity – Becoming and Being a Scholar

Gee (2000) defined identity as the experience of “being recognized as a certain ‘kind of person,’ in a given context” (p. 99), and named four ways to view identity: nature-identity, institution-identity, discourse-identity, and affinity-identity (p.100). Students seeking confirmation of their scholarly identity must be viewed as individuals capable of performing and accomplishing work valued by others. The confirmation comes from a combination of identities.

The “nature-identity”(N-Identity) exists from forces outside of individual control and must be recognized by the self and others before they become a meaningful part of an identity (Gee, 2000). Gee describes his identity as a twin to illustrate this point. “Thus the N-Identities must always gain their force as identities through the work of institution, discourse and dialogue, or affinity groups” (p. 102). The confirmation of an academic and scholarly identity from student to scholar comes from several sources. “Institutional-identities,” such as a student, professor, graduate, or scholar, must be “authorized by authorities within institutions” (Gee, 2000, p. 100). Professors assigning grades, departments conferring candidacy, and institutions granting degrees fall within the list of authorities. Gaining acceptance into a program as a student, earning a degree, or receiving an appointment to faculty fosters an institutional-identity.

A discourse-identity comes from the “*discourse* or *dialogue*” of “rational” people who recognize and confirm the qualities or characteristics possessed by individuals (Gee, 2000, p. 103). Gee described a friend with charismatic qualities to explain how recognition by others confers and confirms identity: “It is only because other people treat, talk about, and interact with my friend as a charismatic person that she is one” (p. 103).

Individuals gain an “affinity-identity” through involvement and membership in certain groups, “their allegiance is primarily to a set of common endeavors or practices and secondarily to other people in terms of a shared culture or traits” (Gee, 2000, p. 105).

Membership in affinity groups provides opportunities for the development and expression of a scholarly identity in academic and professional settings. Gee argues different concepts of identity may be “woven together as a given person acts within a given context” (p. 101).

Consider the transition of a doctoral student at admission to the program. Students enter with well-established identities formed from the combination of identities, including professional roles and degrees earned. They represent someone who possesses certain features of identity assigned to them through discourse, such as being intelligent, capable, creative, or accomplished. Membership in groups defines them as “the kind of person” (Gee, 2000) who belongs and participates in certain groups, such as leaders of non-profits or educators in K-12 or higher education. Students already possess graduate degrees and an academic identity formed from years of experience in formal education. Students enter doctoral education with the desire for a degree conferred from a legitimate authority and soon realize this must include becoming someone capable of conducting research and writing a dissertation. To join this community, they must learn how to construct and perform a scholarly or researcher identity. A legitimate authorizer granted students admission to the program, a first step in a long journey from student to scholar.

Individual qualities such as being smart, capable, and creative must be recognized in the new context by professors and colleagues, despite the perceived and actual fears and difficulties associated with being viewed this way at entry into the program. Finally, students must join and become authentic participants in several affinity groups, including a “cohort” of students pursuing a doctoral degree, a person affiliated with a department, discipline, and university, and later, someone who conducts research and achieves membership in a community of scholars.

The “imposter syndrome” (Brookfield & Preskill, 2005) applied to doctoral education may be viewed as a theory representative of the uncertainty and stress associated with attempts to form a new identity. The coursework at entry into doctoral education must provide safe opportunities for experimentation with new and future identities, such as student, scholar, graduate, and professor. When students use their talents during the early stages of doctoral education, confirming what they can do, they become known as someone who possesses the qualities of a capable student and aspiring scholar. The cohort offers membership in an affinity group and supports students transitioning to a new identity through participation and shared goals. The deliberate arrangement of learning and socialization experiences fosters the formation of a scholarly identity.

More challenges (and potential threats) to forming a scholarly identity occur at different stages in doctoral education not described here. The development of this identity occurs in stages and may be characterized as an “oscillating” identity (Jazvac-Martek, 2009). During doctoral education, students experience opportunities to practice a new identity. When students engage in scholarly activities and experience moments when they feel and perform like scholars, their identity reaches higher levels, and then returns or oscillates to a student or novice role with even more challenges (perhaps not as low).

This shifting or oscillating pattern (Jazvac-Martek, 2009) looks like waves, taking students to higher levels through authentic experiences and then dropping them back down again. Successful students and scholars stay longer on an upward track with

practice and accomplishment, and hope to avoid the plunge to a novice state.

The notion of *oscillating* role identities foregrounds the incremental transition into academic role identities; there is no definitive moment when student role identities are left behind. Continuous oscillation is evidenced in constantly shifting perceptions of roles in relation to others, sometimes passively accepted, independently projected or actively enacted. (p. 259)

Practicing academic and scholarly roles in formal coursework provides opportunities for students to feel more like scholars and less like novices. The strategic selection and arrangement of meaningful learning experiences may be viewed as an important aspect of an identity development and socialization during stage one of doctoral education. “Learning, both in and out of the classroom, expands a student’s knowledge base (e.g. content knowledge, specialized vocabulary, methodological skills). This expanded knowledge base allows a student to participate at a higher level in the practices of the community” (Baker & Lattuca, 2010, p. 821).

Summary and Implications for Practice

Golde’s (1998) four questions may be viewed through the lens of identity. Four questions accompany the transition: “Can I do this? ... Do I want to be a graduate student? ... Do I want to do this work? ... [and] Do I belong here?” (p. 56). Students ask Gee’s (2000) question: Am I “the kind of person” with the individual characteristics needed for doctoral study? Do the costs associated with becoming a graduate student, including my estimates of success and competing demands of other identities, justify the resources expended to continue in this program? Does performance of this role fit or threaten the other valued identities? These questions prove particularly important for diverse students in doctoral education (Pifer & Baker, 2014) because their knowledge and experience warns them about the potential of not being seen and included as a member of a new community.

My analysis of doctoral pedagogy revealed how certain pedagogies support the identity projects of doctoral students during stage one. This included experiences with group formation (includes residential life experiences, meals, and rituals), constructing knowledge with peers and faculty, learning through and from critical reading, writing, journaling, and discussion as forms of cognitive apprenticeship. Yilmaz (2011) described the methods associated with a “cognitive perspective on learning,” including cognitive apprenticeship, reciprocal teaching, anchored instruction, inquiry learning, discovery learning, and problem-based learning (pp. 209-210). Cognitive apprenticeship involves “modeling,” “coaching,” “articulation” (thinking about and discussing strategies), “reflection,” and “exploration” (based on a problem, investigation, detection of different perspectives, and thinking independently; p. 209).

Professors adopt certain pedagogies and design learning experiences to foster critical thinking, providing practice and feedback typical of expert coaches, mostly through “critical exchanges” and “arrangements” within the learning environment (Danby & Lee, 2012). Reciprocal teaching, “based on information processing,” engages students and teachers in a dialogue about the text (Yilmaz, 2011). “Reciprocal teaching is composed of modeling, coaching, scaffolding, and fading” to achieve goals (p. 209).

This strategy closely resembles “critical cultural reading” described earlier by Linkon (2005). The meaning of text grows through multiple readings and interpretations of the text.

“Anchored instruction” involves using “cases, stories, or situations” as the context for knowledge building and theorizing (Yilmaz, 2011, p. 209). We zigzag in and out of texts to discover the meaning and applications of theory through case studies involving leadership practice and stories of experience. Difficult concepts must be encountered indirectly (Noonan, 2013), beginning with the “anchor” and then applying theory to analyze the case.

Rituals, meals, and a residential life experiences support relationships with peers and professors, and foster socialization into the department, discipline, and profession. This helps students learn and value the norms forming and sustaining a community of scholars. Students gain visibility and receive affirmation for valued individual characteristics, such as intelligence, creativity, or capacity for academic work by gaining visibility within the cohort and authentically, sometimes joyfully, participating in learning. Cohort membership serves as the first of several affinity groups in higher education – first as a “doctoral student” and later as graduates and scholars in the Academy.

Because students enrolled in education doctoral programs as part-time students and often continue in their professional careers, they lack opportunities to participate in informal learning experiences and department research opportunities available to full-time doctoral students (Golde & Walker, 2006). Students rely on the learning experiences within formal coursework during the first few years to prepare them for conducting research and writing a dissertation.

Armed with knowledge regarding the developmental challenges experienced by students during the first year of their program, stage one doctoral faculty may provide students with the “gift” of a good beginning in their first year described by Golde (1998):

A good first-year graduate school experience might well be one in which a student is deliberately exposed to the practice of the life they are being prepared to enter...[,] opportunities to observe the lived life of professional practitioners...[,] and opportunities to interact with graduate students at various stages of the process to learn about graduate student life. Good beginnings, then, help students to make informed, early decisions in response to the socialization challenges they face. ‘Bad’ beginnings delay students’ ability to answer key questions or provide experiences that inaccurately reflect student and professional life. (pp. 63-64)

Making pedagogy public invites dialogue about the scholarship of teaching with the goal of serving students and our field. I encourage more of us to share practices at the pedagogy table, continuing the dialogue regarding the success of our students, the scholarship of teaching, and the future of doctoral education.

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