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Development and Evaluation of Scales for Measuring Self-Efficacy and Teaching Beliefs of Students Facilitating Peer-Supported Pedagogies

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Abstract: Two scales measuring teaching self-efficacy and beliefs were developed from previous instruments for use with near-peer facilitators assisting with peer-supported pedagogies. Construct and face validity, measurement reliability, and factor structure were determined using a population of near-peer facilitators working in a peer-led team learning chemistry classroom at a large research-intensive postsecondary institution in the Southeast United States. Results suggest that the scales produce valid and reliable data. Teaching self-efficacy and beliefs were found to increase between pre and post administrations with small to medium effect sizes. The scales can provide a means to evaluate peer-supported pedagogies and as discussion points for faculty members training near-peer facilitators.

Keywords: Peer-Led Team Learning, teaching self-efficacy, teaching and learning beliefs.

Peer leaders, learning assistants, and the like are becoming integral components of active learning pedagogies being incorporated into science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) courses. Such pedagogies are rooted in constructivist views of learning, wherein near peers (i.e., students who have completed the course) are utilized in lecture periods (e.g., Robert, Lewis, Oueini, & Mapugay, 2016), recitation and discussion sections (e.g., Mitchell, Ippolito, & Lewis, 2012), or supplemental instruction sessions (e.g., Chan & Bauer, 2015) as a means to better bridge the zone of proximal development (i.e., the gap between where the students are and the most realistic jump in understanding achievable at that moment, Vygotsky, 1978). The efficacy of peer-supported pedagogies shows considerable promise for addressing success in gateway courses and retention in STEM degree programs (Tien, Roth, & Kampmeier, 2002; Michael, 2006; Salomone & Kling, 2017; Freeman et al., 2014; Perera, Wei, & Mlsna, 2019). While much is known about the learning and learning experiences of students completing courses that utilize peer-supported pedagogies, less is known about the experiences of the peer instructors. Particularly given the importance of teaching self-efficacy and teaching beliefs of course instructors and graduate teaching assistants on learning, there is a gap in the literature on understanding the self-efficacy and beliefs of the near peers facilitating such pedagogies. We thus report the development and evaluation of an instrument to measure the teaching self-efficacy and beliefs of near-peer facilitators. This new instrument can be used to evaluate the impact of a peer-supported learning experience, evaluate the impact of self-efficacy and teaching beliefs on achievement, and inform associated near-peer professional development programs.

Peer-Led Team Learning and Leaning Assistant Pedagogies

Two key near-peer pedagogies are utilized in postsecondary STEM courses: peer-led team learning (PLTL) and learning assistants (LAs). These, and other similar active-learning pedagogies involving near-peer instruction, rely on experienced undergraduates working with current students on coursework and other learning experiences. These pedagogies have at their core the goal of decreasing the student-instructor ratio in large classes, wherein the near-peer facilitators are considered instructors in the course.

Near-peer facilitators are selected based on success in the course that they will be working within; although not a requirement, many peer instructors have experienced peer-supported pedagogies in the course for which they are assisting. Near-peers guide students through individual and small group activities ranging from single classroom-response system questions (e.g., clicker questions), to back-of-the-chapter textbook problems, to multi-question guided learning worksheets (e.g., Tien, Roth, & Kampmeier, 2002; Michael, 2006; Arendale, 2010; Salomone & Kling, 2017; Freeman et al., 2014; Perera, Wei, & Mlsna, 2019). While peer instructors often answer questions, the goal of a near-peer is to 'facilitate' learning; therefore, they often respond to student questions with a different question to help guide students to their own answer (Wilson & Varma-Nelson, 2016; Tenney & Houck, 2003; Drane, Smith, Light, Pinto, & Stewart, 2005; Tien, Roth, & Kampmeier, 2002; Arendale, 2010; Salomone & Kling, 2017; Freeman et al., 2014; Perera, Wei, & Mlsna, 2019). Learning facilitation, in this way, requires confidence in facilitating learning as well as a belief that collaborative learning is an effective pedagogy. Initial, and typically weekly training programs, are designed to promote the confidence development and reinforce learning beliefs of the near-peers (e.g. Varma-Nelson & Cracolice, 2001), a training experience often modelled after near-peer supported instructional sessions with the instructor of the course acting in the role of the near-peer, and the near-peers acting in the role of the students.

Peer-Led Team Learning (PLTL)

PLTL has been shown to promote achievement in a many STEM disciplines (e.g., Wilson & Varma-Nelson, 2016; Tenney & Houck, 2003; Drane, Smith, Light, Pinto, & Stewart, 2005; Tien, Roth, & Kampmeier, 2002), with notable increases in achievement for underrepresented STEM students (Stewart, Amar, & Bruce, 2007). The pedagogy was first implemented in postsecondary chemistry courses to provide students with the support to solve problems, develop a better understanding of course material, and make connections between course concepts; PLTL has since been reported in an array of STEM disciplines (e.g. chemistry: Mitchell, Ippolito, & Lewis, 2012; Chan & Bauer, 2015; Frey, Fink, Cahill, McDaniel, & Solomon, 2018; math: Hooker, 2011; engineering Loui & Robbins 2012; Horwitz, et al., 2009) and non-STEM disciplines (e.g. nursing: White, Rowland, & Pesis-Katz 2012). Peer leaders (i.e., near-peer facilitators in PLTL) facilitate groups of three to four students in completing the designated learning activity (Gosser et al., 1996). This facilitation is based on social constructivism (Vygostsky, 1978), a learning theory that knowledge is created in mind of the learner (Bodner, 1984) and learning is boosted by social interactions (Driver, Asoko, Leach, Mortimer, & Scott, 1994).

Studies on PLTL have been categorized into five themes by Wilson & Varma-Nelson (2016): student success measures; student perceptions; reasoning and critical thinking skills; research on peer leaders; and variants of the traditional PLTL model. Student success has been measured in numerous aspects within STEM programs (e.g. grades: Mitchell, Ippolito, & Lewis, 2012; Chan & Bauer, 2015; Frey, Fink, Cahill, McDaniel, & Solomon, 2018; Hooker, 2011; Loui & Robbins, 2012; Horwitz et al.,

2009; White, Rowland, & Pesis-Katz, 2012; standardized final exams: Mitchell, Ippolito, & Lewis, 2012; Chan & Bauer, 2015; and retention: Hooker, 2011; Horwitz et al., 2009; Drane, Smith, Light, Pinto, & Swarat, 2005). Student perceptions of their learning, as measured by Finn and Campisi (2015), have been shown to increase positively. Critical thinking skills, as measured by the California Critical Thinking Skills Test, have been shown to increase (Quitadamo, Brahler, & Crouch, 2009. A key critique is that "time on task" or "time engage with tasks" is greater for PLTL learning experiences, and thus, student-level metrics are expected to increase.

The last two themes from Wilson and Varma-Nelson (2016) consider how the PLTL experience effects peer leaders and the how varying the PLTL experience can affect the process. When interviewed after participating in a PLTL course as near-peers, 92% of former peer leaders positively rated their peer leading experience due to an increase for appreciation of small-group learning, different learning styles, efforts made by teachers, as well as an increased confidence in presenting and working as a team (Gafney & Varma-Nelson, 2007). Peer leaders who adopt a facilitator approach to their interactions with students were more likely to acknowledge, build upon, and elaborate ideas as opposed to a more instructional based approach lend to students working individually when not listening to the peer leader, be answer-focused, and unequally participate (Brown, Sawyer, Frey, Luesse, & Gealy, 2010). Integrating active collaboration was found to be a potentially crucial element as it was discovered that organic chemistry students that participated in cyber PLTL (a synchronous online version of PLTL) had significantly less success drawing the correct predicted product of a chemical reaction (Wilson & Varma-Nelson, 2018). Facilitating collaborations is necessary to catalyze social constructivist learning experiences.

Learning Assistants (LAs)

Learning assistants (LAs) are similar to peer leaders of PLTL in that their primary goal is to facilitate learning and reduce the student-to-instructor ratio (Otero, Pollock, McCray, & Finkelstein, 2006; Otero, Pollock, & Finkelstein, 2010). A key component of LAs is the focus on pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986) as the underlying theoretical framework with an emphasis on content, pedagogy, and practice (Otero, Pollock, & Finkelstein, 2010). Weekly planning sessions with the course instructor are used to review the content. Occasionally, LAs enroll in a teaching and learning course to gain a better understanding of the learning processes and how to best facilitate learning (Otero, Pollock, McCray, & Finkelstein, 2006; Otero, Pollock, & Finkelstein, 2010). Learning assistants are incorporated into instruction in two ways: First, facilitating small group work activities similar to the PLTL pedagogical model. Second, assisting with clicker questions, similar to the Mazur's (1997) peer instruction pedagogical model, wherein the LAs are additional instructors during the peer instruction experience. Oetero et al. (2006) have reported that fostering interest in the teaching profession (particularly, K12 instruction) is a secondary goal of learning assistant programs. Unlike PLTL with its origin in chemistry, the origin of LA programs is not attributed to one discipline; LA programs are now found in many disciplines: biology (Sellami, Shaked, Laski, Eagan, & Sanders, 2017); physics (Otero, Pollock, McCray, & Finkelstein, 2006); and chemistry (Jardine & Friedman, 2017).

Teaching and Learning Beliefs

An instructor's beliefs about teaching are related to the instructional practices implemented in their courses (Lotter, Harwood, & Bonner, 2007; Simmons et al., 1999; Gibbons, Villafañe, Stains, Murphy, & Raker, 2018). The implication is that instructors implement pedagogies deemed to be beneficial to learning. When instructors perceive that the best way of learning is through transmission of knowledge, more lecture-based pedagogies are reported by such instructors and observed in their

classrooms. When instructors perceive that learning is best through construction of knowledge, additional small, group work-based pedagogies are reported and observed. These beliefs about learning have origins in how the instructor believes they learn best (Simmons et al., 1999). Thus, an instructor's experience as a student has a powerful influence on their views of teaching (Smith, 2005; Trigwell, Prosser, & Waterhouse, 1999; Kember & Kwan, 2000).

Unlike instructors who predominately have experienced more lecture-based pedagogies in their postsecondary and graduate education, near-peer facilitators have the unique experience of typically having participated as a student in active learning pedagogies prior to their participation in peer-supported instructional pedagogies. Self-selection to be a near-peer facilitator could be, in part, the result of a belief in the effectiveness of the pedagogy. We expect that near-peer facilitators will have some foundational belief in collaborative approaches to learning. Streitwieser and Light (2010) found, through qualitative interviews, that peer instructors implementing PLTL had strong student-centered beliefs about teaching; they also found that peer leaders had positive or no changes in teaching beliefs as a result of their peer leading experience. Johnson, Robbins, and Loui (2015) found through reflection journals that leaders learned to appreciate intellectual diversity among students and that the leaders expressed an increased interest in teaching. French and Russell (2002) found that as graduate teaching assistants gained experience implementing inquiry-based laboratory experiments, they conceptualized their role in learning more as a guide than a conveyer of information. This 'guide' role is a typical characterization of how peer instructors should perceive their role in instruction (Gosser et al., 1996; Hockings, DeAngelis, & Frey, 2008; Kampmeier, Varma-Nelson, & Wedegaertner, 2000). [Authors] (accepted) found that peer leaders report different interactions with students based on how they perceived their role; for example, peer leaders viewing themselves as "mentors" reported engaging with students beyond the scope of assignment including providing broad study skill advice and sharing their experience in the course, in comparison to peers leaders viewing themselves as "teachers" reported more transmission of knowledge interactions including feeling the need to "give students the answers" when the learning activity was challenging.

Teaching beliefs, though, do not, by default, translate into instructional practice (Addy & Blanchard, 2010; Volkmann & Zgagacz, 2004). Confidence in one's ability to enact instructional practices (i.e., teaching self-efficacy) is also associated with pedagogical choices.

Teaching Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief about their capability to achieve a specific task (Bandura, 1986). Lack of confidence in a task can lead to avoidance of the task. Typically within STEM disciplines, we think about the confidence a student has in solving problems and answering questions, and how that confidence relates to their achievement on an assessment (e.g., Pajares, 1996; Ferrell & Barbera, 2015; Britner & Pajares, 2006; Cheung, 2015; Zeldin, Britner, & Pajaras, 2008; Villafañe, Xu, & Raker, 2016). Teaching self-efficacy is confidence in one's ability to teach in specific ways, and how that confidence relates to how and what occurs in the classroom (c.f., Gibbons, Villafañe, Stains, Murphy, & Raker, 2018).

While there is an absence of literature on the teaching self-efficacy of near-peer facilitators, investigations into the teaching self-efficacy of graduate teaching assistants provide insight into what to expect with near-peer facilitators. Bond-Robinson and Bernard Rodriques (2006) found that low confidence may preclude effective teaching by graduate teaching assistants. Reeves et al. (2018) analyzed pretest/posttest data with first time biology and chemistry laboratory graduate teaching assistants using the Anxiety and Confidence in Teaching scale; they found statistically significant gains in graduate teaching assistants' teaching self-efficacy and pedagogical knowledge, with significant reductions in teaching anxiety.

Research has shown that teaching self-efficacy impacts teacher behaviors, and by association student outcomes. A teacher's self-efficacy beliefs positively impact student learning and the actual success or failure of a teacher's behavior (Henson, 2002). Teachers with high teaching self-efficacy tend to perform better, have a greater desire to continue teaching, and their students have higher achievement metrics (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy 1998). Teaching self-efficacy typically develops early in a teacher's career and becomes relatively stable over time (Morris & Usher, 2011; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy 1998). Morris and Usher (2011) found that early successful instructional experiences, which were are a combination of mastery experiences (i.e., having a command of the course content) and positive feedback from students in the course and fellow instructors, are important for developing high teaching self-efficacy of twelve teaching award winning professors, and that their teaching self-efficacy solidified within the first few years as a faculty member. These studies suggest that experiences in peer-supported instruction, and as a near-peer facilitator, may lead to more active learning experiences being incorporated into postsecondary educational settings as these postsecondary students begin to seek and commence careers in academia.

Research Purpose and Questions

The purpose of our study is to develop and evaluate an instrument to measure the teaching and learning beliefs and teaching self-efficacy of peer instructors. Our work is guided by two key questions:

1. Do the Teaching Belief Scale and Self-Efficacy Scale produce valid and reliable data?
2. What change in teaching and learning beliefs and teaching self-efficacy occur as a result of participation as a peer instructor?

Methods

Research Setting

Data were collected at a large research-intensive university in the Southeastern United States between Fall 2017 and Spring 2019. PLTL is implemented in two variations at the research setting: First, PLTL is incorporated into weekly 50-minute recitation sessions for the first semester general chemistry course. Peer leaders facilitate up to six small groups of three to four students per recitation session, completing worksheets created by the course instructors; on average, 1,500 students are enrolled in the course each term, with peer leaders facilitating up to three recitation sessions per week.

Second, PLTL is incorporated into half of the second semester general chemistry course lecture periods. In this variation, students in the course watch instructional videos prior to each peer learning lecture periods (i.e., flipped-class approach). Peer leaders then facilitate up to four small groups of two to three students within the context of a large-lecture hall completing worksheets created by the course instructors; up to 24 peer leaders are simultaneously assisting in the lecture period. The course instructor is also present in the classroom assisting with small group facilitation and interjecting classroom response questions (i.e., clickers) to formatively assess learning throughout the lecture period. On average, 500 students are enrolled in the course each term.

Peer leaders enrolled in a three-credit training course for both the first and second semester general chemistry courses. The training course was instructed by chemistry faculty members with experience implementing and evaluating PLTL. Within the training course, peer leaders discussed how to facilitate learning, potential problems and opportunities encountered in implementing PLTL, and experienced the small group learning activity from the perspective of a student.

Scale Development

Our teaching self-efficacy and beliefs scales evolved from the *Teaching Assistant Professional Development* (TAPD) survey reported by Wheeler, Maeng, Chiu, and Bell (2017); the TAPD survey originated from the *College Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale* (Navarro, 2005) and the *STEM Graduate Teaching Assistant-Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale* (DeChenne, Enochs, & Needham, 2012). The TAPD is composed of two scales: beliefs (8 items) and self-efficacy (13 items). The TAPD instrument was intended for use with graduate teaching assistants, and thus revisions and additions were necessary to focus the instrument for use with near-peer facilitators.

We first removed mentions of specific course structures (e.g., "Laboratory courses should be used primarily to reinforce a science idea that the students have already learned in lecture") to broaden the utility of the tool across multiple chemistry courses that may or may not have instructional laboratory components. TAPD items addressing two ideas were split into two items. Referents to "chemistry" were added to multiple items to focus respondents on the particular course. Eight beliefs items were added to the instrument to address constructivist underpinnings of peer-supported pedagogies. Nineteen self-efficacy items were added to the instrument to the address the numerous tasks expected of near-peer facilitators as reported in literature on PLTL and LA programs. A five-point confidence scale from "not at all confident" to "extremely confident" was adopted in congruence with the TAPD survey. A total of 14 beliefs items and 32 self-efficacy items were evaluated in our study. The resulting items were reviewed by four chemistry education researchers and two general chemistry instructors to establish face validity.

Participants

Peer leaders completed the instrument during the first week of term before they led a peer leading session (pre), and again at the end of the term after their last peer leading session (post). Data were collected via Qualtrics over four academic terms (Fall 2017, Spring 2018, Fall 2018, and Spring 2019). Peer leaders received credit for completing the instrument amounting to 5% of their overall grade in the training course. The instrument was administered to 227 peer leaders, with 211 peer leaders (93%) completing all items at both administrations. With 9 peer leaders completing just one administers. Therefore 431 individual response instances were collected. Peer leaders can only serve for one term at the research setting; therefore, participants had no prior experience serving in the role prior to the study.

Data Analysis

Data were pooled and then split into an exploratory analysis set ($n = 217$ responses) and a confirmatory analysis set ($n = 214$ responses). These samples are sufficient for conducting the proposed analyses (Costello and Osborne, 2005). Principle components exploratory factor analyses (EFA) with Varimax rotation, Kaiser Criterion, and Scree tests were conducted using SPSS 24.0 on each scale (i.e., beliefs and self-efficacy) to determine the internal structure. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted using Mplus 7.31 on each scale to verify internal structure. Comparative fit indices (CFI) greater than 0.90 and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) values less than 0.08 determine good fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). RMSEA values can be unreliable, however, with models that have a small degrees of freedom (Kenny, Kaniskan, & McCoach, 2015). Internal consistency was measured with using JASP (https://jasp-stats.org) to measure McDonald's omega values; an omega coefficient greater than 0.60 indicates acceptable consistency (Cortina, 1993). Because of the

randomization process it is possible that some individuals had both their pre and post responses recorded in either the EFA or CFA.

Results

Teaching Beliefs Scale – Development

Exploratory factor analysis of the Teaching Beliefs Scale originally suggested between one- and five-factor solutions with support from Kaiser Criterion, eigenvalues greater than one. Inspection of the Scree plot indicated either a two-factor or three-factor solutions. Loadings from the three-factor solution resulted in a non-result, and so the two-factor solution was examined with the removal of one item (see Table 1) due to the item (14) cross loading across both factors. Upon closer inspection of the two-factor items revealed that one factor was a collection of items that would be considered non-supportive of social constructivism. To verify this, the five items (1,2,5,8,12) were reversed coded; the resultant EFA was again two-factor with the non-supportive items grouping together. Because of the redundancy of two factors differing only in positive or negative valence, the five non-supportive items were removed. This left one factor with eight items in the teaching beliefs scale (see Table 2). This parsimonious set of items resulted in a one-factor solution with support from the Kaiser Criterion and Scree plot. All factor loadings were significant at $p<.05$.

Table 1. Teaching Beliefs Scale – First iteration and reasons for item removal.

| Item	Reason Removed
Chemistry instruction should cover many topics superficially to maintain interest from the largest variety possible of students	NS
Students learn chemistry best when grouped with students of similar abilities	NS
Inadequacies in students' chemistry knowledge and skills can be overcome through effective teaching	
Students should be provided with the reason for why the content they are learning is important	
Personal studying is the best way to learn chemistry	NS
Chemistry instruction should be aimed at helping students make connections between their science courses	
Students learn chemistry best when grouped with students of differing abilities	
Learning from peers is not helpful in chemistry because they do not have the same level of understanding as a professor	NS
Small group work should be used to learn chemistry	
Chemistry courses should provide opportunities for students to share their thinking and reasoning	
Small group work should be used to reinforce concepts already learned in lecture	
Chemistry instruction that makes connections to other science courses can lead to confusion	NS
Chemistry instruction should focus on ideas at an in-depth level, even if that means covering fewer topics	
Small group work should be used to learn new concepts	CL

Note. Items are listed in the order in which they were presented to the respondent. "CL" denotes cross-loading. "NS" denotes a non-supportive item.

Table 2. Teaching Belief Scale – Final iteration.

Level of agreement with the following statements[2]	Factor loadings[1]
Inadequacies in students' chemistry knowledge and skills can be overcome through effective teaching (TB1)	0.282
Students should be provided with the reason for why the content they are learning is important (TB2)	0.401
Chemistry instruction should be aimed at helping students make connections between their science courses (TB3)	0.516
Students learn chemistry best when grouped with students of differing abilities (TB4)	0.314
Small group work should be used to learn chemistry (TB5)	0.500
Chemistry courses should provide opportunities for students to share their thinking and reasoning (TB6)	0.752
Small group work should be used to reinforce concepts already learned in lecture (TB7)	0.541
Chemistry instruction should focus on ideas at an in-depth level, even if that means covering fewer topics (TB8)	0.329
Eigenvalue	2.512
Percent (%) of total variance explained	31.41
Factor mean[2]	4.06
McDonald's omega	0.61

[1]Principal axis factor analysis
[2]Items coded on a 5-point scale of 1 = Strongly disagree to 5 = Strongly disagree

Inspection of the items within the factor suggest the emergence of a single factor with 8 items using a WLSMV parameter estimator which is required for ordinal and categorical data. Item statistics and Spearman rho correlations for the Teaching Beliefs Scale are reported in Appendix 1. CFA on the confirmatory data set supports the one-factor solution: $\chi^2(20) = 52.553$, p = .0001, CFI = 0.908, RMSEA = 0.087 (see Figure 1).
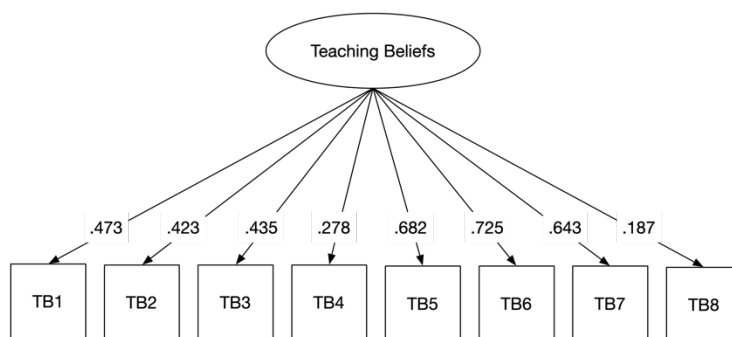
Figure 1: Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Teaching Beliefs Scale.

McDonald's omega is 0.61 for the factor indicating acceptable reliability for a low stakes test measuring change in beliefs about teaching. While McDonald's omega is sensitive to the number of items; 8 items seems reasonable to give appropriate results (Cortina, 1993; Murphy & Davidshofer, 2005). Items TB4 and TB8 have lower than normally accepted values (< .400); however, we believe that these items are integral to the overall theoretical construct. We agree with Bandalos and Finney

(2019) that while variable elimination is an important part of the process for creating a model, researchers should be less cavalier with the elimination of variables because doing so changes the construct. Bandalos and Finney (2019) suggest retaining any questionable variable until further research can be done to verify if the transgressing variable repeats upon replication of the study. These psychometric measures suggest that the scales produce valid and reliable data.

Self-Efficacy Scale – Development

Exploratory factor analysis of the initial 32-item self-efficacy scale (see Table 3) using the exploratory data set suggested a one-factor solution based on the Scree plot; Kaiser criterion suggested up to four factors; however, three of those factors had eigen values near one. As such a one-factor solution is a probable solution.

Table 3. Self-Efficacy Scale – First iteration and reasons for item removal.

Item	Reason Removed
Create a positive atmosphere for learning in small groups	
Encourage students to ask their fellow students questions	
Show students that I have a personal investment in their learning	
Think of my students as active learners as opposed to information receivers	
Learn all of my students' names	DNL
Provide encouragement to students who are doing well	
Let students take initiative for their own learning	
Evaluate students' conceptual understanding of chemistry	HC
Discuss in-depth chemistry content with students	
Correct students' incorrect ideas in a positive way	HC
Actively engage my students in the small group learning activities	HC
Show my students respect through my actions	NN
Promote student participation in small group work	HC
Address student questions that you do not immediately know the answer to	
Deal with disputes between students	
Gain students' trust	HC
Be a representative of the course instructor	
Encourage students to interact with each other	HC
Motivate students to study outside of required class time	
Promote a positive attitude toward learning chemistry	
Share personal insights on learning the course material	
Spend personal time preparing for students' needs	
Assist students in clarifying their attitudes and ideas about chemistry	HC
Relate to students from different backgrounds and life experiences	
Help students develop a willingness to share ideas	HC
Show students that I have a personal investment in them and their success	HC
Provide opportunities for students to receive immediate feedback on their learning	HC
Encourage students to ask me questions in class	HC
Strengthen students' interpersonal relationship skills	HC
Provide support to students who are having difficulty learning	HC
Help students set reasonable goals for learning the course material	HC

| Improve the critical thinking skills of my students | HC |

Note. Items are listed in the order in which they were presented to the respondent. "DNL" denotes does not load onto factor. "NN" denotes non-normal. "HC" denotes highly correlated.

To obtain a more parsimonious self-efficacy scale, we engaged in multifaceted item reduction. First, examination of EFA factor loadings showed one item ("Learn all my students' names") did not sufficiently load (< 0.300) on the factor. Second, one item ("Show my students respect through my actions") was extremely non-normal (kurtosis = 6.19). Lastly, Spearman correlations were evaluated between scale items to determine redundancy; values greater than 0.4 were examined with 15 items being removed due to correlating to a large number of other items. An EFA was run on the resulting 15 items of the exploratory set; per EFA criterion, a one-factor solution was best. Factor loadings are between 0.50 and 0.68 for all items of the self-efficacy scale (see Table 4).

Table 4. Self-Efficacy Scale – Final iteration.

How confident am I in my ability to[2] …	Factor Loading[1]
Create a positive atmosphere for learning in small groups (SE1)	0.618
Encourage students to ask their fellow students questions (SE2)	0.625
Show students that I have a personal investment in their learning (SE3)	0.641
Think of my students as active learners as opposed to information receivers (SE4)	0.601
Provide encouragement to students who are doing well (SE5)	0.597
Let students take initiative for their own learning (SE6)	0.578
Discuss in-depth chemistry content with students (SE7)	0.556
Address student questions that you do not immediately know the answer to (SE8)	0.636
Deal with disputes between students (SE9)	0.560
Be a representative of the course instructor (SE10)	0.644
Motivate students to study outside of required class time (SE11)	0.608
Promote a positive attitude toward learning chemistry (SE12)	0.643
Share personal insights on learning the course material (SE13)	0.579
Spend personal time preparing for students' needs (SE14)	0.479
Relate to students from different backgrounds and life experiences (SE15)	0.607
Eigenvalue	6.009
Percent (%) of total variance explained	40.06
Factor Mean[2]	4.34
McDonald's omega	0.91

[1]Principal axis factor analysis
[2]Items coded on a 5-point scale of 1 = not at all confident to 5 = very confident

CFA on the confirmatory analysis data set supports the one-factor solution: $\chi^2(90) = 202.61$, p < .0001, CFI = 0.966, RMSEA = 0.076 (see Figure 2). WLSMV was used as the parameter estimator. McDonald's omega is 0.91 for the confirmatory analysis data set. These psychometric measures suggest that the instrument produces valid and reliable data.
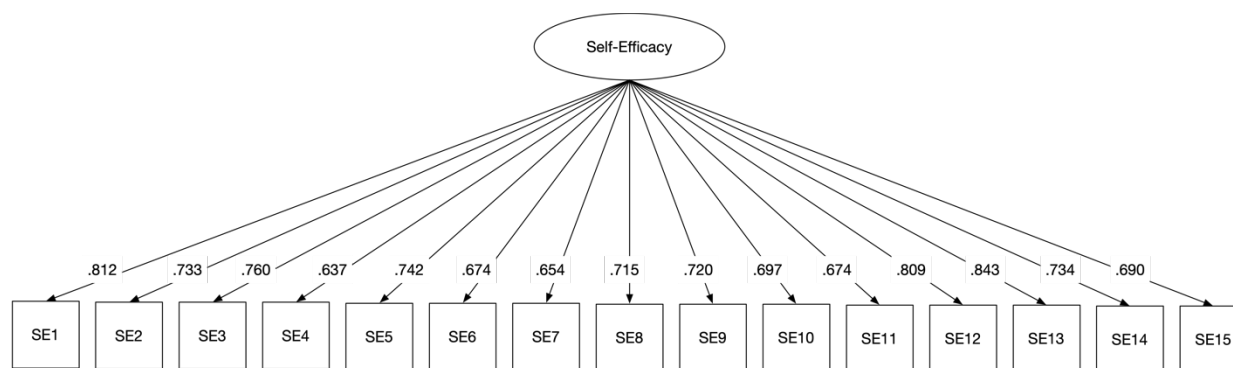
Figure 2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Self-Efficacy Scale.

Impact of Participation in Peer Leading

Spearman's rho correlations between the Teaching Beliefs Scale and the Self-Efficacy Scale by pre and post measures are reported in Table 5; only peer leaders who had completed all pre and post items are included in this analysis ($n = 211$). These correlations suggest that the constructs are related; however, the constructs are independent (rho < .75) and are not autocorrelated between pre and post measures.

Table 5. Correlations between study measures at pre and post administrations.

	Self-Efficacy (Pre)	Constructivist Teaching Beliefs (Pre)	Self-Efficacy (Post)	Constructivist Teaching Beliefs (Post)
SE(Pre)	1.00	.27	.45	.23
TB(Pre)		1.00	.26	.43
SE(Post)			1.00	.47
TB(Post)				1.00

Note. p < .01. N=211

Differences between pre and post measures are determined using Wilcoxon signed rank tests (see Table 6). The Wilcoxon signed test is a comparison of pre and post tests, similar to a t-test but has more flexibility in that it allows for non-parametric data to be examined. Significant pre/post differences were observed for both factors with increasing Self-Efficacy and increasing constructivist Teaching Beliefs; these differences have small to medium effect sizes: $r = z / \sqrt{n_{pre} + n_{post}}$ (Cohen, 1988; Pallant, 2007).

Table 6. Wilcoxon signed rank tests between pre and post administrations.

Factor	median (Pre)	mean (Pre)	std. dev. (Pre)	median (Post)	mean (Post)	std. dev. (Post)	Z	p	r (size)
Self-Efficacy	4.13	4.13	0.50	4.53	4.49	0.41	−9.03	< .001	0.440 (medium)
Teaching Beliefs	4.00	3.98	0.39	4.13	4.13	0.44	-4.43	<.001	0.216 (small)

Discussion and Implications

Two scales, a Teaching Beliefs Scale and a Self-Efficacy Scale, were developed to measure the impact of peer-supported instruction experiences on near-facilitators in postsecondary chemistry courses. Exploratory factor analyses were conducted on half of the data set, followed by item-reduction procedures in order to obtain parsimonious measures. Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted on the remaining half of the data set. Suitable psychometric evidence for the validity and reliability of the data were obtained to justify initial use of the instrument.

The developed instrument serves two purposes: First, as used in this study, administration of the instrument in a pre/post manner can provide evaluative data on the combined impact of any professional development experiences (i.e., weekly peer leader training in our study) and experiences implementing peer-supported instruction (i.e., enacting PLTL experiences). Use of the scales at multiple settings should include additional reliability and validity investigations. Second, results of the two scales can inform trainers of peer leaders and learning assistants as to initial confidence levels and teaching beliefs prior to professional development experiences; thus, we suggest the scales be used as a formative assessment tool to measure the current state of the near-peer facilitators. Administration of the instrument followed by a whole group discussion could serve to further prepare the near peers for their learning facilitator roles. Because of the convenience and prevalence of online surveys the complete instrument for each scale is presented within the paper complete with the 5-point Likert scale. We hope that use of these scales becomes implemented across near-peer programs across the globe. Our tool was developed for chemistry programs which limits its transferability as near-peer programs exist in a variety of disciplines (Wilson & Varma-Nelson, 2016). Previous instruments such as the Achievement Emotions Questionnaire (AEQ; Pekrun, Goetz, Frenzel, Barchfeld, & Perry, 2011) have been taken from a general context and converted into chemistry specific (AEQ-OCHEM; Raker, Gibbons, & Cruz-Ramírez de Arellano, 2019) and we hope that future researchers will implement the reverse in creating discipline specific variations so the impact can be universal.

Looking at the long-term effects of peer-leading on individuals Gafney and Varma-Nelson (2007) found similar results as the individuals that they surveyed finding that 32% (n=38) of those surveyed described a new appreciation for differences among people, particularly in how they learn or understand new material. In the same study 28% (n=33) reported increased confidence, comfort, or patience in working with people, particularly in teaching–learning situations which relates well with our findings of increase self-efficacy (Gafney & Varma-Nelson, 2007). In today's society installing students with activities that give them opportunities for growth are vital. In a study comprising 875 students from 10 institutions done by Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, and Burkhardt, showed that when students are involved in leadership activities, they "showed growth in civic responsibility, leadership skills, multicultural awareness, understanding of leadership theories and personal and societal values." While this study did not look at near-peer facilitating specifically we believe that the principles learned during near-peer facilitating are supporting these leadership values and will continue to play a role in the betterment of near-peer facilitators.

Positive impacts of the peer instruction experience on self-efficacy mirror those found with graduate teaching assistants (Burton, Bamberry, & Harris-Boundy, 2005; Prieto & Almaier, 1994; Prieto, Yamokoski, & Meyers, 2007; Tollerud, 1990). The effect size of our pre/post teaching beliefs differences are much lower, potentially confirming that teaching beliefs are malleable, but may be resistant to change; such a conclusion is support by studies on the teaching beliefs of postsecondary instructors (Morris & Usher, 2009; DeChenne, Enochs, & Needham, 2012; Simmons et al., 1999). Given the importance of learning experiences both as a student and as a facilitator of learning on future choices to enact instructional practices (Sunal et al., 2001), the data from our developed scales

show promise for a long-term, broader impact on instruction should our participants choose to pursue a career in education.

Teaching beliefs and self-efficacy, by proxy through how these constructs are related to the use of more effective pedagogies, are associated with increase course performance (Ashton & Webb, 1986; Tschannen-Moran, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998). While such an investigation is beyond the scope of the study we report herein, our scales could be used in further work to identify the association between peer instructor espoused beliefs and self-efficacy, and the performance of students for whom the peer instructor assists in facilitating learning. Analogous studies have been conducted considering the beliefs and efficacy of graduate teaching assistants (e.g. Prieto & Almaier, 1994; Prieto, Yamokoski, & Meyers, 2007; DeChenne, Enochs, & Needham, 2012; Wheeler, Maeng, Chiu, & Bell, 2017).

Conclusions

Two scales were created to help measure the teaching self-efficacy and beliefs of near-peer facilitators assisting with peer-supported pedagogies. These instruments were taken from previous work done that addressed teaching assistants and general teaching, however it is believed that the unique context of near-peer facilitators deemed that more specific scales be developed. Construct and face validity, measurement reliability, and factor structure were determined and show that the scales produce reliable data, although we recommend that addition research be conducted in order to extend the scope and validity of our work. Teaching self-efficacy and beliefs were found to increase among near-peer facilitators between pre and post administrations with small to medium effect sizes. These newly developed scales can provide a means for faculty training near-peer facilitators to efficiently evaluate their students and programs and can help serve as discussion points for improving their programs.

Limitations

Three key limitations should be noted for our study: First, the development of instruments that produce valid and reliable data necessitate a sufficient number of respondents in order to conduct thorough psychometric evaluations. Four iterations of data collection were necessary at our research setting in order to collect a sufficient number of respondents even with the large number of peer leaders facilitating general chemistry courses each term; we expect for smaller institutions and smaller courses that even more data collection iterations would be necessary. Despite our sufficient sample size, we acknowledge that more data is needed to further confirm our results and establish stronger evidence for the reliability and validity of data generated by our instrument.

Second, while our instrument is designed for near-peer facilitators, our instrument development and psychometric evaluations were conducted with a specific type of near-peer facilitators: peer leaders in a peer-led team learning pedagogical environment. Given the parallel roles of peer leaders and learning assistants, we do not anticipate that the instrument will function differently; however, we recommend thorough psychometric evaluations when using the tool in any new setting, and strongly recommend when using the tool with learning assistants.

Third, Likert-scale self-report is one form of data from which to gather teaching beliefs and self-efficacy data. Interview data, reflection essays, and even observation data can provide additional insights into the experiences of near-pear facilitators; such methods have shown to be a value for studies of teachers and graduate teaching assistants. These additional data courses would provide a more holistic understanding, including triangulation of assertions. While data collected from all methods synthesized in a single study may be impractical (and a burden on participants to provide such copious data), studies parallel to those of teachers and graduate teaching assistants would further illuminate the dimensionality of teaching beliefs and self-efficacy of near-peer facilitators

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Appendix

Appendix 1. Table A. Teaching Beliefs Scale – Item statistics and Spearman rho correlations.

	TB1	TB2	TB3	TB4	TB5	TB6	TB7	TB8
n	431	431	431	431	431	431	431	431
min.	2	1	1	1	1	1	2	1
max.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
median	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4
mean	4.26	4.23	3.95	3.68	3.98	4.26	4.42	3.63
std. dev.	0.67	0.81	0.91	1.07	0.74	0.65	0.61	0.97
skewness	−0.91	−1.22	−0.86	−0.60	−0.65	−0.92	−0.78	−0.37
kurtosis	1.72	1.88	0.32	−0.55	1.00	2.67	0.91	−0.49
TB1	1.00	.30**	.16**	.04	.16**	.26**	.22**	.08
TB2		1.00	.30**	.10*	.17**	.28**	.12*	.14**
TB3			1.00	.15**	.24**	.39**	.20**	.22**
TB4				1.00	.22**	.20**	.22**	.10*
TB5					1.00	.43**	.42**	.14**
TB6						1.00	.45**	.14**
TB7							1.00	.16**
TB8								1.00
TB9								

Note. * p < .05; ** p < .01.

Appendix 2. Table B. Self-Efficacy Scale – Item statistics and Spearman rho correlations

	SE1	SE2	SE3	SE4	SE5	SE6	SE7	SE8	SE9	SE10	SE11	SE12	SE13	SE14	SE15
n	435	435	435	435	435	435	435	435	435	435	435	435	435	435	435
min.	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1	1	2	2	1
max.	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
median	5	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	5	4	5
mean	4.40	4.20	4.50	4.34	4.58	4.26	4.15	4.09	3.90	4.46	3.97	4.44	4.56	4.36	4.39
std. dev.	0.67	0.76	0.64	0.74	0.57	0.70	0.82	0.91	0.89	0.70	0.92	0.71	0.63	0.71	0.74
skewness	-0.97	-0.66	-1.01	-0.78	-1.15	-0.60	-0.61	-0.81	-0.39	-1.22	-0.63	-1.25	-1.24	-0.93	-1.14

kurtosis	-1.10	-0.03	0.40	-0.31	1.15	-0.03	-0.41	-0.30	-0.57	1.30	0.01	1.77	0.94	0.54	1.27
SE1	1.00	.58	.55	.45	.48	.41	.37	.38	.43	.38	.35	.46	.41	.37	.36
SE2		1.00	.41	.41	.36	.44	.36	.46	.47	.37	.39	.38	.33	.32	.33
SE3			1.00	.51	.42	.37	.42	.40	.37	.40	.41	.45	.42	.43	.42
SE4				1.00	.41	.47	.40	.36	.36	.35	.29	.37	.36	.30	.32
SE5					1.00	.48	.32	.34	.35	.41	.32	.42	.46	.40	.41
SE6						1.00	.35	.42	.40	.33	.33	.38	.34	.25	.36
SE7							1.00	.48	.35	.37	.33	.36	.37	.40	.32
SE8								1.00	.50	.46	.40	.39	.44	.39	.35
SE9									1.00	.41	.42	.39	.34	.36	.35
SE10										1.00	.41	.49	.44	.41	.38
SE11											1.00	.54	.42	.40	.42
SE12												1.00	.58	.44	.51
SE13													1.00	.44	.56
SE14														1.00	.42
SE15															1.00

Note. All correlations are significant, p < .01.

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Student Perceptions of Great Teaching: A Qualitative Analysis

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Abstract: What behaviors do students consider as representative of exemplary teaching? Do those representations vary by context? This study evaluates 176 student nominations for a teaching award that asked nominators to articulate specific acts by individual instructors that exemplify "great teaching." Through an iterative process, our content analysis identified 10 themes, which generally represent socioemotional connection, behaviors relevant to student learning, and instructor characteristics. We also identified two themes—the instructor as a model and as someone whose efforts exceed expectations—that do not appear frequently in existing literature. The quantitative analysis revealed that frequency of themes differed for instructors from traditional liberal arts and sciences disciplines and those from professional programs in the health sciences.

Keywords: teaching awards, exemplary teaching, student perceptions of teaching excellence.

The goals of this study were (1) to determine what behaviors students consider to be examples of "great" teaching, (2) to determine whether those behaviors may vary by teaching context, and (3) to examine how this approach, which focuses on students' perceptions, may relate to other strategies for defining effective teaching. Our approach is unusual in it uses the words of students who nominate faculty members for teaching awards as evidence of their perception of teaching effectiveness.

Although attempts to define effective teaching have involved a multiplicity of sources (primarily students and faculty) and methods (fixed-response/quantitative, open-ended/qualitative), there is considerable overlap among the definitions derived from these sources and approaches. Catano and Harvey (2011) found considerable overlap in the competencies identified in their analysis and competencies reported in other studies of master teachers (Cohen, 1981; Fulton, 1996; Marsh & Roche, 1997). Of the nine competencies they identified, only problem-solving and availability had not been identified previously. The other seven (communication, creativity, individual consideration, social awareness, feedback, professionalism, conscientiousness) had been identified in at least one of the previous studies. Furthermore, in a comparison of five studies (Marsh, 1987; Braskamp & Ory, 1994; Murray 1997; Feldman, 1989, 2007; Hativa, Barak, & Simhi 2001), Hativa (2014) notes:

> In spite of the variation in number and content, several components appear repeatedly in many of these lists (under different titles). Four of these appear in at least four of the five studies: Organization; clarity; engagement/enthusiasm/interest/expression, and rapport/interaction/ concern about and respect of students. Another four components appear in only three of the studies: Interaction/questioning and discussing; exams/grades/student evaluation; workload/difficulty; and student's perceived learning/perceived outcome of impact of instruction. (p. 19).

While there is something of a consensus being built around general characteristics of effective teaching, Devlin and Samarwickrema (2010) argue that context is critical when considering effective teaching. Indeed, there is evidence that approaches to teaching may vary by discipline (Hativa, Barak, & Simhi, 2001; Lindblom-Ylänne et al., 2006; Neumann, 2001) and that students in different disciplines may value different instructor characteristics (Alhija, 2017). Alhija (2017), for example, found that students in social sciences and humanities considered the relationship between student and instructor and teaching methods to be more important than did students in the hard and natural sciences.[1] Alhija concluded that students in the exact sciences either have "different expectations in terms of good teaching and/or views teaching in higher education as more instrumental than do students from the other groups" (p. 11). Directly relevant to the current study, Al-Mohaimeed and Khan (2014) report that medical students valued characteristics related to performance more than personality characteristics.

Current Study

The current study aimed to define effective teaching through nominations for a teaching award that identified specific acts of "great teaching," rather than characteristics of excellent instructors. Rather than have participants respond to questions about general behaviors or characteristics or about teachers or teaching in general, we analyzed responses from a pool of nominations for our institution's "Caught in the Act of Great Teaching" award. Thus the descriptions of exemplary teaching came from self-directed nominators. We provided no further guidance, no lists of behaviors, no previously determined factors. Nominations described specific behaviors of specific individuals. So, this examination of students' perceptions of teaching is based on spontaneous input from students in a variety of learning contexts and allowed us to have students independently identify behaviors that distinguish exemplary teaching.

Because ours is a mid-sized university that has an undergraduate curriculum in the tradition of the liberal arts and sciences and professional programs in the health sciences, we were able to gather data from a wider variety of teaching situations than those encompassed in many previous studies, thus allowing us to compare student perceptions of effective teaching in liberal arts and sciences and in health professions education. The context of teaching and learning varies between traditional liberal arts and science disciplines and professional health sciences disciplines at our university. Although high impact practices and experiential learning are encouraged in liberal arts and sciences classes, most interaction between instructors and students takes place in the classroom and most teaching involves lecture- and discussion-based pedagogy. Faculty who primarily teach in the liberal arts and sciences typically have some expectation for research productivity but, for most, the majority of their work effort is focused on teaching. On the other hand, education in the health professions includes both lecture/classroom-based foundational science as well as hands-on clinical experience in a professional context. Many of the faculty who teach in the health sciences are clinicians (e.g., physicians, physical therapists, nurses) or research scientists, i.e., their work effort is less focused on teaching. For example, the medical school curriculum consists of large lectures (with poor attendance and student access to video recordings of the lectures through the learning management system) during the first two years and education in the clinic or at the bedside in the later years. Thus, it is likely that the acts that qualify as exemplary teaching may differ in the two contexts.

In sum, the present study aimed to determine what students perceive to be characteristics of great teaching and to determine if those characteristics vary by discipline. We conducted a qualitative analysis of student voluntary nominations for a teaching award and comparing frequency of themes

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[1] Alhija (2017) did not identify which specific disciplines were included in each category.

derived from this analysis. Finally, we compared the outcome of this approach to defining teaching effectiveness to approaches used by others.

Method

Augusta University, formed by the consolidation of a health sciences university and a regional comprehensive university, consists of ten colleges. Five focus on education in the liberal arts and sciences (Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences; Business; Computer and Cyber Science; Education; Science and Mathematics), and five train health science professionals, primarily at the post-baccalaureate level (Allied Health, Nursing, Dental, Medical, Graduate School). Of the approximately 9000 students enrolled, 60% are undergraduates, 19% are graduate students; and 21% are students in the health professions.[2]

The nomination process for the Caught in the Act of Great Teaching Award comprised writing a paragraph of no more than one hundred words describing an act of exemplary teaching by a faculty member.[3] From Fall 2012 to Spring 2016, 176 students submitted nominations for the award. There were 107 nominations for instructors who taught primarily in the liberal arts and sciences; 69 nominations were for instructors who taught primarily in the health sciences. Since the nomination process did not require that the nominator provide any identifying information, we were unable to capture any demographic information on the students who submitted nominations. We determined the origin/department of the nominee by searching university records. Faculty members who taught in departments in the medical college, allied health sciences, nursing, and dentistry were considered health professions faculty.

Our analysis included both qualitative and quantitative approaches. We answered the question about what students consider exemplary teaching by seeking consistent themes through a content analysis of the nominations. We examined differences between students in the two educational contexts with quantitative analysis of differences in frequencies of nominations.

Coding Nominations

Through an inductive iterative process, 10 themes were identified based on students' nominations. These themes represent the commonalities found within the over 400 codes developed from student nominations. First, all nominations were de-identified, so that the nominator and nominee were unknown to the coders. The three researchers then read nominations independently and identified a word or phrase that characterized essential components of the nomination. One nomination could include multiple codes. (No limit was placed on the number of themes at this point.) Eleven themes emerged when the researchers initially shared their lists of possible themes and identified similarities.

The researchers then created descriptions (see Table 1) to clarify the themes and provide coding guidelines. During the coding process, each coder reviewed nominations and referred to the guidelines to select themes. A nomination needed to include only one aspect of the theme described in the coding guidelines to be identified for that theme. To evaluate consistency of coding, 30 nominations were randomly selected for independent coding. The coders then met to compare results and to discuss inconsistencies in assigning themes. This phase also involved updating the coding guidelines to better distinguish among themes.

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[2] The graduate student category consists of students in the liberal arts, sciences, business, and education. Health professions students may be either graduate or undergraduate.
[3] For further information see Bledsoe and Richardson (2016).

The nominations were then split into three groups. Each coder independently coded two groups of nominations, so that each group was coded by two independent coders. They agreed on the presence of a theme in 85.79% of the codes; disagreements were resolved by discussion to consensus. The Thorough category was removed from subsequent analysis because of its very low frequency of occurrence in the data set ($n = 4$).

Table 1: Theme Coding Guidelines.

Theme	Theme description
Care	Instructor cares about student as a person, treats students as adults, respects the students.
Challenge	Instructor challenges students to learn.
Expert	Instructor is expert in the discipline, has extensive content knowledge
Above and Beyond	Instructor is hard-working or goes "above and beyond."
Engaging	Instructor engages students in learning activities, is fun, or is not boring. Instructor creates engaging atmosphere, positive learning environment, or an atmosphere conducive to learning.
Enthusiasm	Instructor expresses enthusiasm, passion, or loves teaching.
Model	Instructor serves as mentor, role model, models professionalism, or is identified as an excellent professional.
Approachable	Instructor is accessible to students, welcoming, open, or makes the students feel comfortable about the class or learning.
Pedagogy	Instructor incorporates activities that extend knowledge; course design; teaching intentionally; or specific teaching behavior.
Student success	Instructor cares about student success or supports student learning. This theme does not include the instructor being passionate about teaching.
Thorough	Instructor encourages deep learning (removed from final analysis).

Results

A total of 440 codes was identified from the 176 nominations, with 252 describing faculty members from the liberal arts and sciences and 188 describing faculty members from the health professions. The researchers identified an average of 2.5 ($SD = 1.21$) codes per nomination.

Themes

Student success. The most frequent theme was Student Success (48.3%), which was defined as caring about student learning and achievement. In this case, the nominators valued instructors who

seemed to care about students learning and achieving success in their courses and their professions. For example, one student said that "[the instructor] isn't focused on how well we do on a test but rather on how well we become nurses." Students also reported that having a professor who cares about their success inspires them to work harder: "Dr. X's desire to see me succeed inspires me to continue to strive to achieve my dream of being a clinical psychologist."

Above and Beyond.[4] 36.9% of the nominations that provided examples of acts that "go above and beyond" general expectations noted the willingness of instructors to work longer or harder or outside of "regular" hours to ensure student learning. One student reported that "She [the instructor] dedicates a great deal of her time running extra help sessions, working one-on-one with students, and organizing interactive modules that greatly broaden our experiences." Another stated that they "never had a teacher go to such great length," and reported their teacher "went out of his way to help me …. He sat down with me for an hour out of his day and really thought out how he could help me." Another reported that the faculty member: "contacted the financial aid office to help resolve stressful delays and communication breakdowns [on behalf of a student], and kept the student abreast of her actions and progress."

Pedagogy. Nominations also focused on pedagogy, especially approaches and activities that foster student learning (35.2%). Students reported that they benefited from pedagogical techniques that incorporated real world application, fostered discussion, or organized content for learning. For example, one student noted how illustrations helped to organize information, reporting that "He draws diagrams and pictures to help his explanations and asks questions to encourage students to help formulate plans and be more involved in patient care." Another student recognized that the instructor had developed strategies to help organize the information, noting that "She has also mastered the use of instructional cues – she clarified and emphasized key points and used charts to organize the topic." Nominators mentioned a variety of activities, such as those packed into this one nomination: The instructor makes "lectures come alive through the use of simulation, games, and media to prevent boredom and provide clarity. For example, while teaching a group of nursing students about care of cardiac patients, she used a variety of teaching strategies dividing the class into groups and using a cardiac jeopardy game combined with hands on skills and lecture for active participation and enjoyable learning."

Engaging. Acts that engaged students in learning were mentioned in 34.7% of the nominations. The description of acts for this theme emphasized the extent to which the instructor's behavior or specific activities generated and maintained student interest during the learning process. Making classes "enjoyable," "fun," "interesting," "engaging," and "fascinating" were recurrent descriptors for this theme. The engagement included intellectual as well as emotional stimulation—"Each day of class, students are mesmerized by this professor's artfulness at creating an intellectually charged atmosphere." This theme often focused on how a positive atmosphere is conducive to learning, and that engaging learning experiences help students remember the content—"This is an activity students talk about and remember for years."

Care. Caring for and respecting students as multi-dimensional human beings was identified in 26.1% of the nominations. Care was evidenced by instructors' availability for personal contact—"X is the kind of professor you can talk to on and off campus about anything …. He is not only there for school, but he is someone to talk to and someone to trust"—and by demonstration of concern for students' personal issues—"[This instructor] helped me get through classes when I've gone through some of the roughest patches in my life." Expressions of appreciation that instructors seemed to respect students were also included in this category – "We value the way that she respects our education, our opinions, and never minimizes our contributions in clinic."

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[4] This theme was identified as "Extra" during the coding process.

Approachable.[5] A notable percentage of students (17.6%) perceived openness—a general sense of approachability and availability—as a quality associated with acts of exemplary teaching. Nominations that identified instructors as "approachable," "accessible," "available," and "willing to help" were identified as representing this theme. For example, one nomination reported that the instructor "is never too busy for her students." Nominations that mentioned that instructors offered direct assistance to students—"Without her assistance, I do not think I would have been able to complete the thesis process with the success that I did"—were also considered to represent the Approachable theme. Another nomination indicated that the instructor was "ALWAYS patient and willing to explain any question." Instructor availability to students was coded for this theme as well— "[He] made himself more available than any other professor that I've had."

Enthusiasm. Enthusiasm was a marker for 17.6% of students who described the professor's passion for teaching. Common descriptors in this category included "excited," "passionate," "energetic," and "enjoys teaching." Some nominations that represented this theme specifically mentioned the instructor's enthusiasm about teaching—"Professor X's enthusiasm for delivering the course content is evident by the way she covers the material." Other nominations for this theme noted passion for the content of the discipline—X is "very passionate about his subject, which motivates students to perform well on assignments and exams."

Model. Students valued acts that reflected the professionalism of their instructors and their ability to serve as role models (17%). Some common descriptors coded in the Model theme were "mentor," "role model," "guide," and "exemplary." Nominations that included this theme often noted that the instructor demonstrated the skills and characteristics important for the profession or discipline—"X exemplifies the teacher/clinician in its best form, always having the time to teach young minds clinical skills even within the pressure of clinical work demands." Nominations that identified instructors as mentors were coded for this theme as well—"X is a fantastic teacher and mentor."

Challenge. Some students (9.1%) reported acts that involved presenting challenges to learners. These students noted that they often learned more when their teachers challenged them—the class "was very difficult, but I learned more that semester than I have learned in the past 3 years of being in college." Other nominations that represented this theme noted that challenging instructors garnered respect from students—the instructor "has earned the respect of all her students by challenging us and treating us as future colleagues."

Expert. Some students (7.4%) considered an instructor's expertise. These nominations typically identified the instructor as possessing advanced knowledge in their field—"He demonstrates the utmost knowledge in his field." Nominations in this category also recognized extensive experience of instructors—"Dr. X is an outstanding educator who effectively integrates her 25 years of clinical experience into the classroom setting."

Differences between teaching contexts

We conducted *t* – tests to determine if the number of codes per nomination varied by teaching context. Number of codes in nominations of faculty who taught students in the health professions were slightly greater (*M* = 2.72; *SD* = 1.28) than number of codes per nomination of instructors who taught students in the liberal arts and sciences (*M* = 2.36; *SD* = 1.51), *t* (174) = -1.99, *p* = .048.

We conducted chi-square analyses to compare frequency of themes for the two contexts. As revealed in Table 2, several themes varied significantly by teaching context. Acts of instructors in the health professions were more likely to be considered as contributing to *student success*, to be *above and*

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[5] This theme was labelled as "Open" during the coding process.

beyond the expected, and to *challenge* learners than acts of instructors in liberal arts and sciences disciplines. Acts of instructors in liberal arts and sciences were considerably more likely to be identified as *engaging* than were the acts of health professions' instructors.

Table 2. Frequency of nominations including each theme overall and by teaching context.

Theme	Overall		Undergraduate		Health Professions		Chi-Square Results		% Difference between AS and HP	
	%	Rank	%	Rank	%	Rank	χ^2	phi	UG> HP	HP> UG
Student Success	48.3	1	38.3	2	63.8	1	9.89*	.25		25.5
Above and Beyond	36.9	2	29.9	4	47.8	2	5.04*	.18		17.9
Pedagogy	35.2	3	34.6	3	36.2	3	.00	.02		1.6
Engaging	34.7	4	43.9	1	20.3	6	9.33*	-.24	23.6	
Care	26.1	5	28	5	23.2	4.5	.29	-.05	4.8	
Approach-able	17.6	6.5	20.6	6	13	9	1.16	.10	7.6	
Enthusiasm	17.6	6.5	17.8	7	17.4	7	.00	-.01	.04	
Model	17.0	8	13.1	8	23.2	4.5	2.36	.13		10.1
Challenge	9.1	9	4.7	9.5	15.9	8	5.15*	.19		11.2
Expert	7.4	10	4.7	9.5	11.6	10	2.01	.16		6.9

*Note: * p < .05.*

Discussion

The primary goal of this study was to determine students' perceptions of exemplary teaching through a qualitative analysis of nominations for a teaching award. The four most frequently identified themes all addressed student learning. These nominations addressed instructor concern for student success and learning (Student Success), teaching techniques and behaviors (Pedagogy), instructors working especially hard to support student learning (Above and Beyond), and engaging students in learning activities (Engaging). One other theme, Challenge, was mentioned less frequently but also addressed instructor emphasis on student learning.

Students also valued a socioemotional connection to their instructors, evidenced in themes of respecting students and caring for them as a person (Care) and accessibility and approachability (Approachable). Finally, characteristics of the instructor were mentioned in a number of nominations; students reported instructor professionalism and mentorship (Model), love of teaching (Enthusiasm), and content knowledge (Expert).

Comparing Nominations between Contexts

As discussed above, a comparison of the ranking of the themes when these are divided between those expressed in nominations for faculty in the liberal arts and sciences and those in the health professions shows considerable overlap. There are, however, two themes that were ranked notably differently. Engaging, ranked 4th overall, was ranked 1st for faculty in the liberal arts and sciences and 6th for faculty in the health professions. On the other hand, while Model was ranked 8th overall and for liberal arts

and sciences faculty members, it was tied for 4th in nominations for health sciences faculty members. A closer examination of the rankings may help explain this.

When one examines the percentage difference for each theme between the two contexts, an interesting pattern emerges (cf. the last two columns of Table 2). While Enthusiasm and Pedagogy are ranked similarly, faculty members in the liberal arts and sciences are nominated more in categories that stress socioemotional components of student-instructor interactions, such as Engaging, Approachable, and Care, while nominations for faculty members in the health professions emphasize the extent to which they are committed to student success and give time and effort beyond that anticipated. The nominations of health sciences faculty members also placed value on expertise and modeling professionalism. These findings are consistent with those of Al-Mohaimeed and Khan (2014), who note that medical students valued characteristics related to performance rather than personality. A look at the Model and Expert themes, which were low in overall rank but held more significance for health science faculty members, may help us understand why this is the case.

Nominations coded for Expert most often referred to disciplinary knowledge and expertise, albeit this was frequently tied to the ability to impart that knowledge to others. The Model nominations often considered the nominees within a context of professionalism; however, there were subtle differences between the two contexts. Those for faculty members in the liberal arts and sciences often invoked the idea of the faculty member as a model teacher, and over 60% of the nominations also referenced the themes of Student Success and/or Above and Beyond. Half of the liberal arts and sciences nominations that mentioned Model described the nominee as a mentor offering guidance in education and life in general.

The health science nominations coded with Model as a theme also generally coded for Student Success and Above and Beyond. However, instructors acted as models in two ways: as teachers and as clinicians. Intriguingly, 46% of the health science nominations coded for Model also cited the faculty member's enthusiasm, while none of the liberal arts and sciences nominations mentioned both. The health science nominations that coded for both Model and Enthusiasm often noted a passion for teaching and the profession in combination with, as one nomination put it, "kindness [and] genuine affect" in dealing with students and patients. This focus on the affective aspects of professional behavior may account for the infrequent combination of nominations with both Expert and Model as codes. (Fourteen percent of the nominations coded with Model also coded for Expert.). Therefore, while students of liberal arts and sciences faculty members may tend to see faculty members primarily as teachers, students of health science faculty members see their instructors primarily as practitioners who model professional deportment and combine this with an enthusiasm for training others to enter the field. The two groups of faculty seem to be conceptualized differently and consequently are valued for different aspects of their interactions with students.

The differences noted above likely reflect differences in both students' expectations and the context of teaching and learning. The context of learning in the health profession disciplines often involves bedside or hands-on teaching and a focus on the development of professional skills and attitudes. Health science faculty members who were nominated for the award appeared to be primarily from the medical college, and some of the nominations came from medical residents, whose training occurs in the workplace. The nominations addressing student success, extra effort to assure students pass exams or develop as professionals, and challenging learning are consistent with this teaching and learning context. Several of the nominations mentioned appreciation for instructors taking time after a long day of patient care to stop and counsel them or to help them learn difficult material.

The appreciation of extra effort on the part of health professions faculty members also likely reflects the perception of those faculty members as practitioners for whom teaching is a secondary role. Indeed, differences did come out in the types of activities that were coded Above and Beyond. A significant number of health science nominations mentioned time the faculty spent preparing course

materials and slide presentations, conveying difficult material comprehensibly, arranging additional study sessions or the posting of additional resources within the course management system. For instance, one nomination highlighted the extra time the instructor spent "making sure students understand what is expected and providing clear explanations, guidance, and just in general spending many afterhours and weekends preparing things for the students." Nominations of liberal arts and sciences faculty members more frequently mentioned advising activities outside the classroom and individual interventions, not only to improve student learning but also to help students be prepared to learn. Again, this attentiveness to the socioemotional aspects was common throughout, but for the liberal arts and sciences, it was often at a more basic human level than in the nominations in the health sciences. This difference reinforces the idea that the two groups may conceptualize their instructors differently.

Additionally, differences between health professions students and liberal arts and sciences students may also help to explain the differences we have identified. Academic programs in the health professions are typically quite selective; their students are a carefully selected group of highly motivated students. Those students are typically focused on developing a specific set of skills that will allow them to succeed in their chosen profession. Thus, they are especially likely to value instructors who are also concerned with their success, who challenge them to learn, and who are willing to exert extra effort to assure their success. As highly motivated students, they are also less likely to consider that a positive learning atmosphere or engaging activities (Engaging) are important for their success in their future career. The different conceptualizations and expectations of instruction and instructors present a rich field for further study and comparative research.

Comparison to Previous Findings

Our final goal was to determine how closely the themes that emerged from this study matched previous research. Thus, we compared our finding to those from other schemes (Alhija, 2017; Buskist et al., 2002; Catano & Harvey, 2011; Cohen, 1981; Fulton, 1996; Hativa et al., 2001; Marsh & Roche, 1997; Onwegbuzie et al., 2007; Yoo et al., 2013). The comparison of the themes to those in the nine other schemes indicates considerable overlap. Pedagogy, Engaging, Care, and Enthusiasm are mentioned as characteristics in at least seven other schemes, and Student Success, Challenge, Expert and Approachable have at least five mentions. Thus, most of the themes we identified among the student nominations were similar to those identified in previous research and hint at a core set of behaviors and qualities that students associate with exemplary teaching.

Since terminology varies widely, themes were considered a match when their descriptions contained significant elements in common. The extent of the overlap is difficult to quantify more exactly, because, while the comparison of the themes to those in the nine other schemes indicates considerable overlap, alignment does not mean that the terms are congruent. For instance, Alhija's dimension "teaching methods" includes "teaching in an interesting and fascinating manor (sic)" as one of fourteen items and "goals to be achieved" includes "Stimulating motivation and interest in the course subject" as one of its five elements (2017, p. 8). Both of these are captured in our Engaging category.

Considering the difficulties in aligning categories between schemes, it may be more helpful to consider some of the distinct differences between previous work and our findings. For example, Challenge and Expert were low in our ranking but were noted in 5 other schemes. Above and Beyond was the second most frequently cited characteristic in our study, yet only two other schemes included it. Model was not found in the other schemes.

Content knowledge and subject matter expertise, which we captured in Expert, are ranked highly in other schemes but found little resonance in our study. This difference may be due at least

in part to the nature of the nominations. The call for nominations specifically targeted "great acts" of teaching, which likely led to descriptions of behaviors that were perceived as exceeding expectations rather than embodying effective teaching. For most nominators, the instructor's content knowledge may have been a given that did not deserve mention. The relative popularity of the Above and Beyond theme in our study may also be attributed in part to the nature of the nomination process, which asked students to nominate faculty for "great acts."

The Challenge theme is also found frequently in other schemes. Unlike Expert, however, it is assigned less importance by students in various rankings. For instance, while in Buskist et al. (2002) faculty ranked "promotes critical thinking" third out of 28 items, it was one of the four items tied for 23rd in the student rankings. Therefore, the low ranking by students in our study is not incongruent. The nature of the data may play a role here also. Nominations often cited an instructor's ability to make difficult material comprehensible or work with the student until it had been comprehended. This implies that the course included challenging material, but this was not articulated explicitly.

Limitations

We were unable to collect background information on nominators, so we were unable to determine whether students' conceptions of exemplary acts of teaching differed according to demographic characteristics such as age, race, or gender. Similarly, demographic information on the instructors was not collected. The nominations were a response to a single prompt, limited in length and gathered from a single institution. They also captured specific acts that students saw as extraordinary and so are neither representative nor normative and do not coalesce into a definition of exemplary teaching. Furthermore, although the results of our study share considerable similarities with other research aimed at describing exemplary teaching, since the nominations were gathered at one institution, it is unclear if the results could be extended to other institutions and instructional contexts.

Implications

These findings have implications for evaluation of faculty work. By showing that faculty in the liberal arts and sciences and those in the health sciences were valued for somewhat different qualities, this study adds to recent work (e.g., Hativa et al., 2001; Lindblom-Ylänne et al., 2006; Neumann, 2001) that emphasizes differences among disciplines in approaches to teaching and confirms Alhija's (2017) finding that students' conceptions of good teaching varied by discipline. Although the differences between the two contexts were not large and the overall rankings of the themes was similar across health professions and liberal arts and sciences contexts, the differences in value attached to Student Success, Engaging, and Model are an indication that, as we strive to define exemplary teaching, we need to remain aware of the multiple factors involved in the teaching context that influence which traits and specific behaviors will be considered significant and to develop models that allow for flexibility and variation. Furthermore, the distinctions within the institution reinforce the need to consider different evaluative instruments both within and between institutions, despite the additional burden that will place on those individuals who develop and validate the instruments.

In addition, a significant number of the nominations mentions acts that institutional evaluations of faculty often capture inadequately (especially in the Above and Beyond category). The nominations describe acts that take place outside the formal classroom, on the "edges" of the primary educational experience—such as working with students when they are neither currently enrolled in a class or designated advisees, and helping students negotiate problems, such as financial and personal exigencies, that erode students' preparedness and motivation to learn. The issue of mentorship also is often on the margins of our evaluative processes. Since students clearly place a high value on these

activities and research on the positive effects of student-faculty contact is strong (Chambliss & Takacs, 2018; Cuseo, 2018), mechanisms should be developed for capturing, assessing, and rewarding these activities and accounting for them in faculty workload.

This study raises other issues that that deserve further attention. While other studies have included professionalism as a category of exemplary teaching, the focus has primarily been on the deportment and appearance of the instructor (e.g., Buskist, et al., 2002). The idea captured in the current study as Model, i.e., of the faculty member as a role model and a mentor, has generally not been captured in schemes describing teaching excellence. It would be informative to determine if this quality is important primarily in health professional programs as was the case here, or if it also emerges with students enrolled in majors leading to professional degrees, such as Education, Engineering, and Business. Alternatively, perhaps the theme emerges as students start to take more courses in their major and identify themselves with a discipline regardless of its professional culture. This is a direction for further research.

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Questioning CRAAP: A Comparison of Source Evaluation Methods with First-Year Undergraduate Students

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Abstract: Librarians and instructors see college students struggle with evaluating information and wonder how to best teach source evaluation in a one-time course integrated library research session to ensure understanding and improve student performance. This research compared multiple sections of first-year students over two semesters taught two evaluation methods: the CRAAP method, and the six journalistic question words. Results indicate that students taught to evaluate information using the six question words produced better end-of-semester papers. Results of the pre-, post-, and end-of-semester quizzes were less conclusive, but do highlight some of the challenges first-year students face when determining credibility. Results have the potential to inform instructional practice.

Keywords: evaluating information, instruction, six journalistic question words, information literacy

Evaluating information is a critical information literacy proficiency that students use not only in college, but after graduation for the rest of their lives (Hart Research Associates, 2015). Instructors and librarians observe students' struggle with evaluating information especially during their first-year (for example, Jankowski et al., 2018). Students have trouble differentiating which information is the best evidence for their purpose and whether the information is credible. A Stanford study found high school students had difficulty differentiating fake from real news sources and college students were swayed into believing sources were credible if they looked polished (Wineburg et al., 2016). Project Information Literacy found that, while students do evaluate the information they find, 77% only look at whether the information is up-to-date, and 61% ask friends and family members when they need help evaluating information (Head, 2010).

The authors of this study have all taught first-year students and reviewed papers and projects containing inappropriate or inadequate sources to support claims. The authors' research question was relatively simple: is there a "better" way to teach source evaluation to first-year students in a one-time course integrated library research session that could lead to student learning and retention of concepts?

For this study, the CRAAP and six question words (6QW) were chosen for comparison for several reasons. The CRAAP checklist is a long-standing (Blakeslee, 2004), ubiquitous evaluation method. CRAAP appears numerous times in a Google search of library research guides on evaluating sources. Online information literacy assignment repositories like CORA (Community of Online

Research Assignments) and the ACRL (Association of College and Research Libraries) Framework for Information Literacy Sandbox both have multiple assignments that specifically mention CRAAP. The checklist is so popular that it has moved beyond libraries and library instruction to other units within higher education (for example, writing centers (Purdue University)). Additionally, while originally developed in a higher education environment (Blakeslee, 2004), it is now used by K-12 (for example, Curtis High School and Santarosa). The six question words, also known as the Five W's or the Journalistic Six (Wikipedia, "Five Ws") were also chosen due to their ubiquity. A Google search of "journalistic question words" brings up hundreds of results.

Anecdotally, the authors have employed checklist methods, such as CRAAP, in the past, but found students were not engaging with the sources as critically as hoped. The authors were all familiar with the six journalist question words (who, what, where, when, why, how) and wondered if it would provide, not a checklist, but rather a framework for evaluating information. In other words, would the structure of the 6QW allow for schema creation (Gerjets et al., 2009) by linking something known (six question words) to new information (critically evaluating sources) more effectively than a mnemonic device (CRAAP) leading to "better" source evaluation? To test this research question, teaching librarians collaborated with a business instructor who coordinates and teaches multiple sections of a business first-year seminar to deliver course embedded library research sessions teaching either the CRAAP method or the six journalistic question words.

Literature Review

The literature is robust with varied source evaluation methods. Relevant to the present study is the extensive presence of checklist approaches. The CRAAP method (Currency, Relevance, Authority, Accuracy, Purpose) (Blakeslee, 2004), the CARS Checklist (Credibility, Accuracy, Reasonableness, Support) (Harris, 2018), and RADAR (Relevance, Authority, Date, Appearance, Reason for Writing) (Mandalios, 2013) are just a few of them. While memorable, checklist methods have come under criticism as not being adequate for the current information landscape (Caulfield, 2017; Crum, 2017; Ostenson, 2014). They require a binary "good" or "bad" mindset without allowing for nuance (Lenker, 2017; Meola, 2004). Additionally, although they have catchy acronyms, they are not easily remembered (Lenker, 2017; Radom & Gammons, 2014). To address these deficiencies, Lenker (2017) proposes combining these methods with a developmentalist approach, so that students learn through the evaluation process, questioning sources and not just looking for sources to support their position. Wichowski and Kohl (2013) refute claims of inadequacy and argue that the CRAAP checklist is useful for students new to research.

Others have proposed alternatives to these checklists. Results from Radom and Gammons' (2014) study suggest employing the 6QW which may not only allow for more meaningful and nuanced evaluation, but may also be more easily remembered by students than acronyms such as CRAAP. Meola (2004) proposes a contextual approach using three techniques: promoting peer- and editorially-reviewed resources, comparison, and corroboration. Metzger (2007) suggests a dual processing model that involves assessing how the source fits within the larger body of information as well as iterative models of evaluation. Russo et al. (2019) developed an evaluation strategy based on information containers, and cues, questions, to help students evaluate based on the container. Strand and Wishkoski (2020) employ a problem-based learning approach. Introduced in 2017, another relatively new evaluation method is the SIFT (Four Moves) fact-checking method (Caulfield, 2019). The SIFT method (Stop; Investigate the source; Find better coverage; Trace claims, quotes, and media to the original context) draws on methodologies fact checkers use to evaluate information on the web, a method that has been adapted by some librarians (Fielding, 2019).

Beyond discussion of evaluation methods, how have CRAAP and the 6QW been taught to undergraduate, especially first-year, students? There are a few examples in the published literature. Henry et al. (2015) taught a first-year English class to analyze websites using CRAAP. Berg (2017) in a 75-minute library research session, teaches first-year students to evaluate an article from a website using the CRAAP checklist (Berg, 2017; Padgett, 2017). Lewis (2018) used CRAAP as part of a two-part library instruction session in an undergraduate science writing course to evaluate the sources for their assignment. In the session, students evaluate a blog post (Lewis, 2018). As mentioned, Radom and Gammons (2014) used the 6QW in a first-year composition course while Elmwood (2018) used them in a first-year information literacy course.

The bulk of the literature is situated around proposals for evaluation methods and research focuses on the effectiveness of the individual methods. For instructors wondering which is the best method for student learning and retention, the literature becomes a blur of various evaluation methods each with their own findings that state effectiveness. The present study is one of the few that examines evaluation methods in comparison to each other to determine which, if any, is most effective.

Method

The authors targeted multiple sections of a business first-year seminar course. One business instructor coordinates all sections of the business first-year seminar and teaches multiple sections of the course. The business librarian teaches a one-time library research session in all sections of the course. This ensured a similar experience between sections.

In Spring 2018, the authors piloted the methodology in two sections of the course. The authors created a pre- and post-library instruction quiz, as well as an end-of-semester quiz (see Appendixes 1, 2, and 3), which were integrated into Canvas course sites. The authors also developed a rubric for end-of-semester papers to assess depth of source evaluation (see Table 1). Students were asked to complete the pre-quiz prior to the library research session. The post-quiz opened two weeks after the library session. The end-of-semester quiz opened two weeks before the end of the semester. To encourage higher response rates, the business instructor gave participation credit to students for completing the quizzes. The business librarian exported quiz results and end-of-semester papers from Canvas course sites into a secure Box folder only available to the authors. The authors replaced student names with random numbers. The project was deemed exempt by University IRB.

At the end of the semester, the quizzes and end-of-semester papers were reviewed. Students misinterpreted some quiz questions, so the authors rephrased those questions for clarity in subsequent semesters. The authors tested and modified the paper rubric. Additionally, the authors read sample student papers in pairs and normed the rubric to ensure interrater reliability.

The course relies on a course-specific research guide embedded into Canvas course sites using the SpringShare LibApps LTI (SpringShare). The course research guide was identical between sections except for the evaluation page. One section displayed CRAAP, the other the 6QW. The course lesson plan was also the same for both sections except for the source evaluation section. The business librarian taught one section to evaluate sources using CRAAP, the other the 6QW each semester (Fall 2018, Spring 2019).

Table 1. Rubric for final student papers.

	Highly Developed (4)	Developed (3)	Emerging (2)	Initial (1)
Sources used in the context they were intended (purpose, why) (relevance, what)	Always distinguishes between types of sources (e.g., scholarly v. popular, fact v. opinion)	Usually distinguishes between types of sources (e.g., scholarly v. popular, fact v. opinion)	Does not consistently distinguish between types of sources (e.g., primary v. secondary, scholarly v. popular, fact v. opinion)	No distinction between types of sources (e.g., scholarly v. popular, fact v. opinion)
Sources are appropriate (relevance, what)	Does not over- or under-rely on the ideas of others or the work of a single author. Sources are always used in a way that provides evidence toward the argument.	May over- or under-rely on the ideas of others or the work of a single author. Most sources are used in a way that provides evidence for the argument.	Relies on too few or largely inappropriate sources	When included, sources are too few or badly inappropriate
Sources are authoritative (authority, accuracy, who, where)	Uses a variety of authoritative sources	Sources are used support claim(s) but may not be the most authoritative source to make claim	Many unsupported claims and clearly selected sources out of convenience	Does not explore outside sources or present evidence when called for
Sources are timely for the research question (currency, when)	Student utilizes current sources and/or data on the issue	Most information used is current, however some may be outdated	Most information used is outdated with no discussion of relevance in the paper	The student does not appear to have considered currency in selecting sources and/or data

Results

Pre-, Post-, and End-of-Semester Quizzes

A total of $N = 85$ students completed either the pre-quiz, post-quiz, or end-of-semester (EOS) quiz. Of the total, $n = 39$ took all three quizzes, $n = 58$ took the pre- and post-quizzes, $n = 42$ took the pre- and EOS quizzes, $n = 44$ took the post- and EOS quizzes (see Table 2).

Table 2. Percentage of pre-, post-, end-of-semester (EOS) responses for students introduced to source evaluation via CRAAP or six question words (6QW).

	CRAAP	6QW
Responded to Pre-Quiz (n = 71)	44%	56%
Responded to Post-Quiz (n = 74)	53%	47%
Responded to EOS Quiz (n = 48)	40%	60%
Responded to All Quizzes (n = 39)	36%	64%
Pre & Post Only (n = 58)	47%	53%
Pre & EOS Only (n = 42)	33%	67%
Post & EOS Only (n = 44)	41%	59%

The pre-quiz asked several background questions to ascertain student understanding of source evaluation and experience with library instruction (see Table 3). Prior to the business first-year seminar course: 87% of students in CRAAP sessions and 70% of students in 6QW sessions had not had a library session; and, 84% of CRAAP and 75% of 6QW students either had not used a library research guide, were not sure if they had, or did not understand the question.

Table 3. Pre-quiz background questions.

Have you had a library research session in your time at the university?	CRAAP (n = 31)	6QW (n = 40)
No	87%	70%
Yes	13%	30%
You indicated you have had a library research session. How many have you had?	CRAAP (n = 4)	6QW (n = 12)
1	75%	75%
2	25%	17%
3	0%	8%
Have you ever used a library research guide?	CRAAP (n = 31)	6QW (n = 40)
I don't know what you mean	6%	10%
I'm not sure	26%	20%

No	52%	45%
Yes (once or twice)	16%	20%
Yes (many times)	0%	5%

Question 4 of the pre-quiz asked students to identify the characteristics of a peer-reviewed article. Of five choices, three were correct. Each correct answer selected gained 1 point and deselection of incorrect answers gained 1 point for a maximum score of 5. Overall scores averaged above 3 (see Table 4). CRAAP students scored an average of 3.23 while 6QW students scored 3.33 on average. When broken out by those who indicated they had not had a prior library research session, averages were similar to the overall average (3.33 for CRAAP, 3.29 for 6QW). CRAAP students who indicated they had a prior library session scored much lower (2.5) than the average while 6QW students with a prior library session scored higher (3.42).

Table 4. Pre-quiz question of what a peer reviewed article means.

				Had a prior library session?					
	All Respondents			No			Yes		
Score	CRAAP	6QW	All	CRAAP	6QW	All	CRAAP	6QW	All
0	100%	0%	n = 2	50%	0%	50%	50%	0%	50%
1	33%	67%	n = 6	100%	50%	67%	0%	50%	33%
2	63%	38%	n = 8	100%	100%	100%	0%	0%	0%
3	35%	65%	n = 26	78%	76%	77%	22%	24%	23%
4	33%	67%	n = 12	75%	63%	67%	25%	38%	33%
5	53%	47%	n = 17	100%	63%	82%	0%	38%	18%
Average Score	3.23	3.33	3.28	3.33	3.29	3.31	2.50	3.42	3.19

In order to determine students' pre-existing knowledge on source evaluation, as well as determine the depth of schema creation, a question on the pre-, post-, and EOS quizzes asked students to list 3 to 6 criteria for evaluating resources. The answers were coded for alignment with criteria as listed in CRAAP and the 6QW for all respondents no matter which evaluation source they were taught (see Table 5). There was no marked difference between student responses and the evaluation method they were taught. The number of student responses referring specifically to either CRAAP or 6QW vocabulary in several areas dipped from the post- to the EOS quiz.

The evaluation criteria coded most often referenced authority, specifically who wrote something or where it was published. The top three criteria coded based on the CRAAP evaluation

model were authority, accuracy, and currency. The top three for the 6QW were who, where, and when. Students were less likely to mention reasons that could be coded as relevance, purpose, what, and why. Many students commented on looking for spelling, grammar, or appearance which falls under accuracy (CRAAP) and what (tone of document, 6QW).

Table 5. List 3 to 6 criteria for evaluating sources.

Criteria	CRAAP			QW			ALL		
	Pre	Post	EOS	Pre	Post	EOS	Pre	Post	EOS
Currency	43%	53%	50%	57%	47%	50%	n = 37	n = 45	n = 34
Relevance	0%	78%	40%	100%	22%	60%	n = 2	n = 9	n = 5
Authority	43%	52%	38%	57%	48%	62%	n = 67	n = 67	n = 47
Accuracy	43%	56%	28%	57%	44%	72%	n = 44	n = 43	n = 25
Purpose	63%	50%	50%	38%	50%	50%	n = 8	n = 18	n = 2
Who	42%	50%	53%	58%	50%	47%	n = 57	n = 54	n = 32
What	33%	48%	52%	67%	52%	48%	n = 15	n = 23	n = 33
Where	44%	57%	44%	56%	43%	56%	n = 48	n = 46	n = 34
When	43%	52%	47%	57%	48%	53%	n = 37	n = 42	n = 34
How	47%	51%	29%	53%	49%	71%	n = 34	n = 35	n = 21
Why	63%	80%	100%	38%	20%	0%	n = 8	n = 10	n = 1

All three quizzes presented students with a source and asked if they would use the source for their course research paper about current issues on that topic. The three sources were: pre-quiz, scholarly article from 1984 on drug addiction; post-quiz, web-based reference article on privacy published in 2013; EOS quiz, scholarly article on business ethics of privatized prisons published in 2017.

Overall 44% chose correctly in the pre-quiz, 52% in the post-quiz and 100% in the EOS quiz (see Table 6). Students who learned the CRAAP method performed better on the post-quiz, 76% chose correctly, versus 42% of the students who learned the 6QW.

Table 6. Would you use [source] for a research paper on the topic?

	Percentage of Respondents (shaded cell = best answer)	
CRAAP	Y	N
Pre-Quiz (n = 31)	58%	42%
Post-Quiz (n =21)	24%	76%
EOS-Quiz (n = 19)	100%	0%
6QW	Y	N
Pre-Quiz (n = 40)	55%	45%
Post-Quiz (n = 52)	58%	42%
EOS Quiz (n = 29)	100%	0%
ALL	Y	N
Pre-Quiz (n = 71)	56%	44%
Post-Quiz (n = 73)	48%	52%
EOS-Quiz (n = 48)	100%	0%

Responses detailing the reasons why students would or would not use the source were coded using the following scheme (see Table 7):

- Incorrect use of criteria: 1
- Used criteria correctly & incorrectly, mostly incorrectly or missed a significant piece of criteria: 2
- Used correct or incorrect criteria, mostly correct: 3
- Used correct criteria: 4

The differences between students who learned CRAAP versus the 6QW and the evaluation methods used were not statistically significant for either average scores or change in scores (see Table 8). In other words, the higher performance by CRAAP students in the post-quiz who chose correctly to *not* use the source was not based on using evaluation criteria correctly.

Table 7. Average score of evaluation criteria for deciding a resource is suitable for a research paper *(shaded cell = correct answer).*

	CRAAP			6QW			Either		
Would you use the article	Yes	No	All	Yes	No	All	Yes	No	All
Pre-Quiz	2.13	**3.50**	2.77	2.16	**3.57**	2.90	2.14	**3.54**	2.84
Post-Quiz	1.75	**1.75**	2.04	2.04	**2.20**	1.97	2.09	**1.75**	2.00
EOS Quiz	**3.06**	NA	3.07	**3.10**	NA	3.07	**3.09**	NA	3.07

Table 8. Change in score on evaluation criteria for deciding a resource is suitable for a research paper.

Change in Score*	CRAAP	6QW	ALL
Pre-Quiz vs Post-Quiz	(0.68)	(1.00)	(0.85)
Pre-Quiz vs EOS Quiz	0.40	0.18	0.26

*T-Tests do not show a significant difference in Average Score or Change in Score between CRAAP vs 6QW.

When analyzing student responses to pre-, post-, and EOS quizzes as to how they evaluate sources, several themes emerged. Many students stated that website domain is a good indicator of credibility; they value .org and .edu as more credible than a .com website (see Table 9). Responses indicate that a number of students decided a source was valid to use if the citation format looked correct (Post-quiz 15% CRAAP, 35% of 6QW; EOS quiz 11% CRAAP, 10% 6QW). The quiz data also revealed that respondents judged credibility based on a source coming from a "safe database" like ProQuest (9% respondents, 12% CRAAP, 7% 6QW) or from the library website (9%, 12% CRAAP; 7% 6QW); 12% of respondents listed either ProQuest or the library website (21% CRAAP; 14% 6QW).

Table 9. Student responses mentioning domain name as a tool to evaluate credibility.

Domain Name	Pre-Quiz (n = 17)	Post-Quiz (n = 30)	EOS Quiz (n = 15)
CRAAP	26%	44%	32%
6QW	23%	37%	31%

Finally, responses indicate that students had a difficult time evaluating web resources. Evaluation scores lowered with the post-quiz, indicating that students had difficulty evaluating the non-scholarly resource, as opposed to the scholarly articles listed in the pre- and EOS quizzes. They failed to understand that the web resource in the post-quiz was a reference article. In fact, only one student recognized that the article was a reference source that should only be used if needed for providing a definition.

End-of-Semester Papers

The authors collected a total of $N = 88$ papers for analysis. For Fall 2018, n = 26 CRAAP and n = 16 6QW papers were received. For Spring 2019, n = 24 CRAAP and n = 22 6QW papers were received. Overall, papers written by students in the sections taught the 6QW outperformed students in the CRAAP on the rubric (2.81 versus 2.28 out of 4) (see Figure 1). The authors assessed the differences between CRAAP and 6 question word sections using one-way ANOVA (see Table 10). Results indicate that students taught the 6QW scored significantly higher on the rubric than students taught the CRAAP method (F (1, 354) = 40.89) (see Table 9) and that the difference was statistically significant at $p < 0.005$. Cohen's $d = 0.10$ indicating a large effect size.
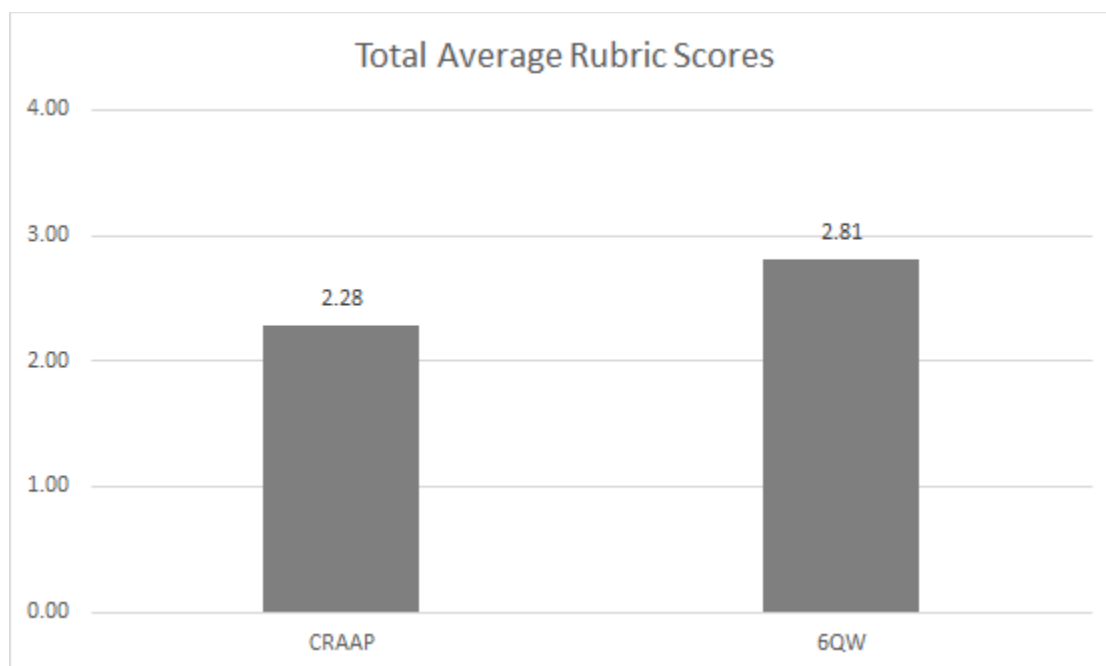
Figure 1. Total average rubric scores.

Table 10. ANOVA results for CRAAP and 6 question word overall rubric scores.

	SS	*Df*	Mean Square	F
Between	24.55	1	24.55	40.89*
Within	212.58	354	0.60	
Total	237.14	355		

* Statistically significant at $p < 0.005$.

The 6QW outperformed CRAAP in all four rubric criteria (see Figure 2). In three of the criteria, "Sources are authoritative" (F (1, 85) = 23.45; d = 0.21), "Sources used in the context they were intended" (F (1, 85) = 20.29; d = 0.19), and "Sources are appropriate" (F (1, 85) = 15.03; d = 0.15) the differences were statistically significant at $p < 0.005$. Cohen's d for all three criteria was above 0.1 indicating a large effect size. Only the difference in the criterion "Sources are timely for the

research question" (F (1, 85) = 1.78; d = 0.02) was not statistically significant (p = 0.18) and Cohen's d indicates a small to medium effect size.
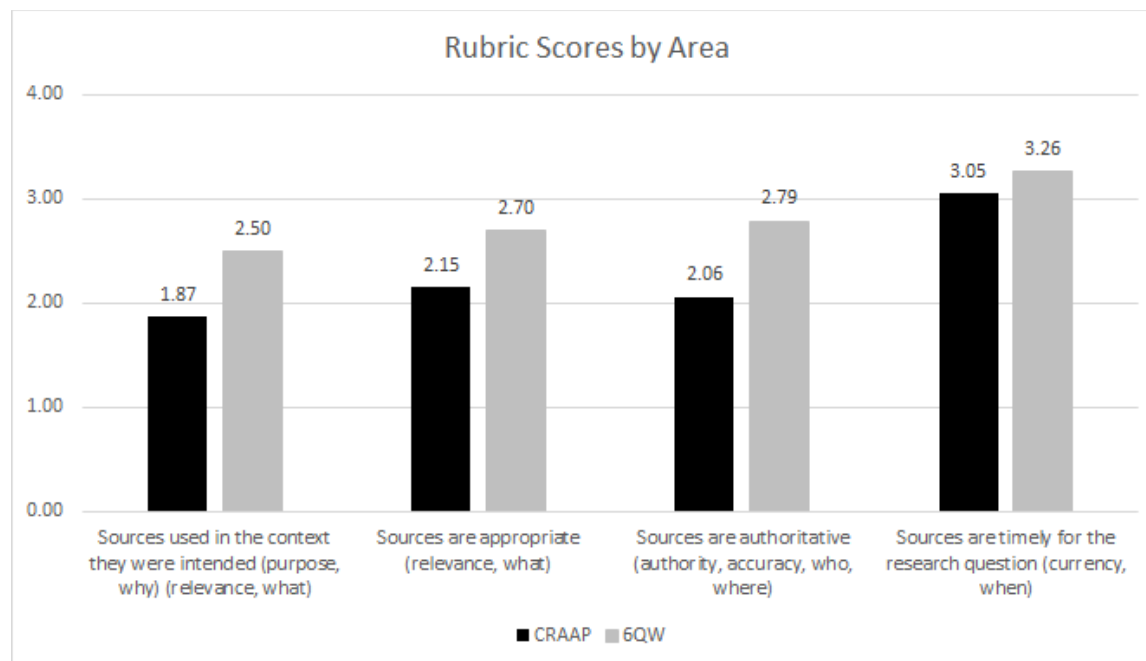

Figure 2. Rubric scores CRAAP versus 6 question words.

Discussion

Returning to our research question: is there a "better" way to teach source evaluation to first-year students in a one-time course integrated library research session that would lead to improved student learning and retention of concepts? The authentic assessment of student research papers indicates that sources chosen by students taught the 6QW were more appropriate than those chosen by students taught the CRAAP method, showing a significant difference when judging authority, context, and appropriateness. The easiest criterion to judge, timeliness, was the only one without a significant difference. It is not clear, however, if the difference in performance was related to the present instruction or the slightly higher percentage of 6QW students who had received prior library research sessions, as indicated in the pre-quiz, or other unknown factors.

The pre-, post-, and end-of-semester quiz results did not provide conclusive data as to which evaluation method was better for student learning and developing their evaluation skills. Both CRAAP and 6QW students scored about equally on the pre- and EOS quizzes. CRAAP students did score higher than 6QW students on the post-quiz, but analysis of students' answers for why they chose, or did not choose, the source revealed flawed logic, so the higher percentage of correct responses may be attributed to guessing.

Returning to schema creation and retention of evaluation method, as addressed in the literature review, acronyms and checklists have come under scrutiny as being difficult to remember. The present study found that students in the post- and EOS quizzes used the actual language of CRAAP and 6QW indicating there was some retention of concepts. Declines in language usage from the post- to EOS quizzes, however, indicate that concepts were not retained long-term. Specific mention of the words in the CRAAP acronym was higher than the specific 6QW possibly due to evaluation techniques learned in high school. Results add evidence to the criticism in the literature of acronyms and checklists

as inadequate in helping students develop deeper, more nuanced, critical thinking skills. In the present study, demonstrated retention of terminology did not necessarily translate into students providing a correct rationale for evaluating sources. Findings corroborated by others (for example, Kim & Sin, 2011; List & Alexander, 2018).

The results do provide insights that can inform professional practice and future directions of research. Students hold the belief that website domain is a good indicator of credibility; they value .org and .edu as more credible than a .com website. A tendency noted by other researchers (for example, Silva et al., 2018; Taylor & Dalal, 2014). Quiz data also revealed that a number of students decided that a source was acceptable to use if the citation format looked correct. This could mean students misunderstood the question or that students use accurate citations as a short-cut for source evaluation, not understanding that a correct citation has nothing to do with the credibility of a source. Something for the authors to consider is whether their teaching reinforces these beliefs as the percentage of students who refer to domain and citations increased from the pre-quiz to the post- and EOS quizzes.

Students who deem a source coming from a "safe database" like ProQuest or from the library website as credible is likely connected to students' reliance on domain as a short-cut proxy for credibility. This points to the need to explain to students that databases and the library provide a wide range of resources that offer differing levels of authority and that they must dive deeper into other aspects to determine credibility such as the author and the purpose of the writing.

Another concerning finding is that students had a difficult time evaluating less traditional resources (i.e., non-scholarly web resources) as demonstrated in the lowered evaluation post-quiz scores. Students failed to recognize that the web resource in the post-quiz was a reference article, which is acceptable to use for definition purposes but generally not appropriate as a source for college-level research papers, a point made during the instruction sessions. These findings add more evidence to the literature on students' struggle to identify and differentiate types of sources (for example, Evanson & Sponsel, 2019; Fleming-May et al., 2015; Radom & Gammons, 2014).

Conclusion

This study began with a relatively simple research question: which evaluation method (CRAAP versus the 6 journalistic question words) is most effective for student learning in a one-time course integrated library research session? Authentic assessment of students' end of semester research papers found that students taught the 6QW used more appropriate sources to support their arguments than students taught the CRAAP method. However, pre-, post-, and EOS quiz results found no difference between students' evaluation sophistication and thought processes.

As with any research, there were limitations to this study. Although the researchers made every effort to teach all sections the same, slight natural variations in content may have occurred. As mentioned, a slightly higher percentage of students in 6QW than CRAAP sections had previously had a library research session which may impact students' rubric scores. Additionally, lower quiz completion rates for some sections, and thus lower Ns, means some data may not be representative across all students.

While findings were mixed, and do not clearly identify which source evaluation method, CRAAP or 6QW, is more effective for first-year college students to learn, they do illustrate students' superficial level of evaluation. Quiz respondents showed that students largely use a source's overall appearance and website domain as sufficient criteria upon which to judge credibility, as opposed to utilizing the full evaluation methods taught in class. This finding leads to several concerns about source evaluation instruction to first-year college students:

1. What exposure have students had in evaluating sources in K-12? Are university instructors assuming an understanding that is not present?
2. Do students fully understand the importance of source evaluation and the implications of using less credible sources?
3. Are students relying on appearance and other superficial methods because they are less time-consuming, or because they do not have a clear understanding as to how to evaluate the sources more thoroughly?
4. Should source evaluation even be attempted to be taught in a one-time course embedded library research session, considering the students' clear tendencies to use less rigorous methods of evaluation, or is there a better way that librarians can collaborate with instructors in teaching research and writing to first-year college students?

Even though questions about the effectiveness of the one-time course integrated library research sessions are addressed in the literature (Artman et al., & Monge, 2010; Mery et al., 2012) many institutions (for example, Pierce, 2018) including the authors', still deliver a substantial portion of instruction in this manner. The authors believe that instructors working with first-year students should consider these questions and assess students' knowledge prior to introducing the topic of source evaluation in the classroom. When source evaluation is included as part of a one-time library research session, both the instructor and the librarian, where possible, should provide additional support and follow-up to reinforce concepts and develop deeper critical thinking skills.

Appendix

Appendix 1. Evaluating Information Pre-Quiz.

1) Have you had a library research session in your time at the university?
    a) Yes
    b) No
2) You indicated you have had a library research session in your time at the university. How many have you had?
    a) 1
    b) 2
    c) 3
    d) 4
    e) 5 or more
3) Have you ever used a library research guide?
    a) Yes (many times)
    b) Yes (once or twice)
    c) No
    d) I'm not sure
    e) I don't know what you mean
4) If an article is considered to be a peer reviewed article, which of the following would be correct? [check all that apply]
    a) It is a scholarly journal.
    b) It provides up to the minute research on current events.
    c) Experts have reviewed the article prior to publishing to ensure soundness in research design.
    d) It is written for a wide audience.

e) It may also be called an academic article.
5) List and explain three to six things you evaluate to determine if a source is credible.
6) You are writing a paper about current issues in drug addiction. You find the following article: Murray, Glen F. "The Cannabis-Cocaine Connection: A Comparative Study of Use and Users." *Journal of Drug Issues* 14, (Fall, 1984): 665. ProQuest Central.
Would you use this article?
7) Please explain your answer to the previous question. Why or why not would you use the article for a paper you are writing about current issues in drug addiction.
Murray, Glen F. "The Cannabis-Cocaine Connection: A Comparative Study of use and Users." Journal of Drug Issues 14, (Fall, 1984): 665. ProQuest Central.

Appendix 2. Evaluating Information Post-Quiz.

1) List and explain three to six things you evaluate to determine if a source is credible.
2) If your class paper was about the topic of privacy, would the following source be appropriate?
Title: Right to Privacy: Constitutional Rights & Privacy Laws
Author: Tim Sharp, Reference Editor
Date: June 12, 2013
URL: https://www.livescience.com/37398-right-to-privacy.html
   a) Yes
   b) No
3) Please explain your answer to the previous question. Why or why not would the source be appropriate for your class project?

Appendix 3. End-of-Semester Quiz.

1) List and explain three to six things you evaluate to determine if a source is credible.
2) If your class paper was about the topic of privacy, would the following source be appropriate?
Surprenant, Chris W. "Policing and Punishment for Profit." *Journal of Business Ethics* (11, 2017): 1-13. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-017-3744-7. [Link to article in ProQuest.]
   a) Yes
   b) No
3) Please explain your answer to the previous question. Why or why not would the source be appropriate for your class project?

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Does Short-Term International Immersion have a Sustainable Impact on Teachers' Cultural Competence? Follow-up Interviews Eight Years After a Teaching Experience in South Korea

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Abstract: This qualitative study was conducted with teacher candidates studying in a Masters program at a university on the west coast in the United States. The main goal was to capture if immersion in a foreign culture and the short-term teaching of primary and secondary school students in South Korea had any sustainable impact on the participating teachers' perception of their cultural knowledge, competence, and awareness almost a decade after their immersion experience. The researchers interviewed four teachers who had participated in one of two immersion projects conducted in 2010 and 2011. A questionnaire on teachers' self-efficacy regarding culturally responsive teaching (modified from Chu & Garcia, 2014) was administered prior to the interview giving the participants a tool to reflect on what it means to be a culturally responsive teacher and to self-assess their own cultural competence and teaching practices. Four themes emerged from the interviews, namely, perspective taking ability, relationships, teaching strategies, and cultural knowledge. The findings indicate that international immersion not only offers an effective way for pre-service teachers to receive intercultural training. It also has the potential to create transformative learning experiences by immersing students in cultural contexts unfamiliar to them. The findings from this study will be interesting to teacher educators who consider integrating international immersion projects into their teacher education programs.

Keywords: immersion programs; international field experiences; teaching abroad; study abroad; international practicum; transformative learning; diversity; culturally responsive teaching; culturally sensitive teaching; socially sensitive teaching; multicultural education; cultural awareness; cultural knowledge; professional growth; teacher education; teacher training; professional development

Introduction

International cross-cultural field experiences for pre- and in-service teachers have been associated with many positive outcomes, such as teachers' enhanced empathy and respect toward students with a culturally diverse background, greater self-confidence in teaching, better problem-solving skills, greater flexibility, a more inclusive approach to cultural differences, and increased intercultural awareness (Baecher & Chung, 2020; Kambutu & Nganga, 2008; Mahon & Cushner, 2002; Malewski et al., 2012; Rodriguez, 2011; Walters et al., 2009).

Teacher candidates returning from international field experiences tend to be more appreciative of students' cultural heritage and more willing to use it as a valuable source to enrich the curriculum (Shedrow, 2017). According to Baecher and Chung (2020), these pre-service teachers are more skilled at comparing and contrasting the instructional approaches viewed at home and abroad, recognizing "the ways English may or may not be present in students' lives prior to coming to the US" (p. 42), reflecting critically on curriculum design, and making adjustments as needed. International field experiences have also been associated with an increased ability to connect with

diversity, a better understanding of curriculum and pedagogy, and a higher interest in teaching diverse students (Malewski et al., 2012). Such field experiences are critical to becoming culturally responsive educators and are "most effective before a student teaching internship when combined with critical reflection that is connected to issues of equity and effective teaching research" (Vavrus, 2008, p. 54).

The short-term impact of teaching abroad programs appears to be well researched. However, most of the research on cultural immersion abroad was conducted with pre-service teachers (Baecher & Chung, 2020) rather than in-service teachers. Kambutu and Nganga (2008), for example, conducted follow-up interviews with the U.S. American participants of a cultural immersion stay in Kenya. Indeed, the interviews conducted upon return indicated the potential for sustained acculturation. However, the lack of follow-up interviews at a later point in time did not allow for conclusive statements (Kambutu & Nganga, 2008).

Investigating the long-term impact, rather than the short-term effects, of international immersion projects would provide a better understanding of the sustainability of these potentially transformative experiences and would reveal whether there were any shifts regarding curriculum integration and pedagogical practices (Malewski et al., 2012; Maynes et al., 2013). The literature about immersion abroad studies will benefit from investigations into how teacher candidates have transferred what they have learned during immersion into a real teaching context, that is, once they actually teach culturally and linguistically diverse students (Malewski et al., 2012) for an extended period of time.

Thus, the main purpose of this study was to explore whether the short-term immersion abroad had any sustainable impact on the participating pre-service teachers almost a decade earlier and if this experience has helped shape their teaching approaches. In this research study, cultural immersion abroad means being physically present for two to three weeks in another country with a different culture and interact intensely with the local community, including the teaching of English to young students.

Literature Review

The literature review starts by providing a brief introduction into culturally responsive teaching and the key competencies that educators should demonstrate. Next, the authors review the research on the opportunities that international immersion programs offer to provide transformative learning opportunities. Teachers' perspective taking ability and the notions of culturally and socially sensitive teaching, which are ingredients of culturally responsive teaching practices, are reviewed next. The review concludes with a summary of the two studies that the lead author conducted in 2010 and 2011 and which served as the foundation for the present follow-up study.

Culturally Responsive Teaching

Decades of research and scholarship have captured the history of culturally responsive teaching, which Gay (2013) defined as "using cultural knowledge, prior experiences, frames of reference, and performance styles of ethnically diverse students to make learning encounters more relevant to and more effective for them" (p. 49-50). Multiple frameworks for culturally responsive approaches have emerged from the pioneering work of Ladson-Billings (1995), Gay (2000), and Nieto (1994). Culturally relevant practitioners emphasize cultural referents to share knowledge and help students acquire skills. They empower students on multiple levels, namely, intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically (Ladson-Billings, 1995) and they work consciously to develop commonalities among all the students (Ladson-Billings, 2009). Each framework or approach emphasizes a specific set of

components (Muñiz, J. (2019).

Gay (2010) calls on culturally responsive educators to adjust their instructional approaches, to evaluate instructional materials critically, to embrace positive student-teacher relationships, to increase their self-awareness, and to embrace an asset-based view of students to support learning and maximize all students' academic success.

Also building on Ladson-Billings' (1995) seminal work, Villegas and Lucas (2002) posited six characteristics that culturally responsive teachers should embrace. These six strands include a sociocultural consciousness, an affirming attitude toward students from culturally diverse backgrounds, commitment and skills to act as agents of change, constructivist views of learning, willingness to learn about students, and commitment to culturally responsive teaching practices. They encourage teacher educators to critically evaluate their curricula and infuse practices and experiences into the programs that help teacher candidates become culturally competent teachers (Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

However, today's educators feel underprepared to meet the needs of a diverse student population who might have "hundreds of languages and cultures" (Barba et al., 2019, p. 31). There is growing pressure on teacher educators to provide diversity experiences (Keengwe, 2010) so that teacher candidates can develop cultural knowledge, competence, and awareness needed to better support their students in their struggles to meet today's academic requirements and to help maintain and affirm their linguistic and cultural strengths (Barba et al., 2019).

It is the responsibility of teacher education programs to encourage future educators to become advocates for culturally responsive teaching approaches (Baecher & Chung, 2020; Lucas & Villegas, 2002; Malewski et al., 2012; Muñiz, 2019) and to develop the ability to recognize and accommodate the needs of a diversity of cultural groups (Trumbull et al., 2007). Pre-service teachers should graduate from a teacher training program with an acute vision of what it means to be culturally responsive, which goals should be pursued, how to achieve these goals, and how to adapt a curriculum to the needs of a particular group of students in a specific context (Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

One of the essential components of teacher development is that teachers get training, guidance and opportunities to explore and understand the school experience of students with a culturally and linguistically diverse background (Baecher & Chung, 2020; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Acquah and Commins (2017), for example, recommend first-hand cultural interactions, critical self-analysis, structured field experiences with post reflections, writing autobiographies to promote cultural self-awareness, and discussions on diversity and culture to be included in teacher education programs. Given the impact of international immersion experiences, as outlined in the introduction, they offer the potential to help teacher candidates transform into culturally responsive educators (Malewski et al., 2012) by providing experiences that would otherwise not be possible in a traditional classroom-based learning environment (Kambutu & Nganga, 2008).

There is a long list of key competencies that culturally responsive teachers should have:

> Culturally responsive teachers (…) are regularly investigating sources that can increase the multicultural perspective of their teaching disciplines. Teachers also learn about the communities and cultures from which their students originate and try to incorporate those orientations and resources into daily instruction. Culturally responsive teachers are life-long learners of culture and its implications for teaching and learning in their particular settings. (Vavrus, 2008, p. 55)

Culturally responsive teachers take an inquiry stand and ask questions about who their students are, what they need, and how to draw on their own teaching strengths to tailor instructional

strategies in a way that works for these students (Hammond, 2014). Culturally responsive teaching is mirrored in:

> … an educator's ability to recognize students' cultural displays of learning and meaning making and respond positively and constructively with teaching moves that use cultural knowledge as a scaffold to connect what the student knows to new concepts and content in order to promote effective information processing. All the while, the educator understands the importance of being in a relationship and having a social-emotional connection to the student in order to create a safe space for learning. (Hammond, 2014, p. 15)

The ability to make instruction more responsive to the students' needs requires educators to take their students' perspectives. What it means to take someone else's perspective and why it is essential to culturally responsive teaching is explored next.

Perspective Taking Ability

The ability to take someone's perspective is among the key qualities that have been suggested to facilitate a culturally responsive teaching approach (Abacioglu et al., 2019). Perspective taking is the ability to perceive something from someone else's perspective (Moskowitz, 2005). Perspective taking manifests itself in teachers' respect and appreciation for students' individual and unique experiences, their flexibility in adapting curricula and instruction (Darling-Hammond, 2000; McAllister & Irvine, 2002), and their efforts to maximize unbiased education (Rychly & Graves, 2012). Teachers should be able to take their students' perspectives by switching from their own frame of reference to their students' frames of reference. Problematic frames of reference are "sets of fixed assumptions and expectations" (Mezirow, 2003, p. 58).

Abacioglu et al. (2019) hypothesized that higher perspective taking abilities and more positive multicultural attitudes both correlate with more frequent engagement in culturally responsive teaching practices. Their multivariate multiple regression analysis confirmed both hypotheses. They administered questionnaires about culturally responsive teaching practices, perspective taking abilities, and multicultural attitudes to Dutch primary school teachers (n = 143). Their findings indicate that higher perspective taking abilities and more positive multicultural attitudes are significantly associated with teachers' engagement in culturally and socially sensitive teaching.

Strengthening teachers' perspective taking abilities can happen in many ways. For example, providing regular exposure to texts written on and by culturally diverse authors; participating in the social worlds of one's students and of individuals from cultural communities other than one's own; engaging in critical dialogues with colleagues; and providing ample opportunities for introspection on one's emotions, attitudes, and responses to one's students and their families (Warren, 2017). Higher perspective taking abilities and more positive multicultural attitudes benefit all students regardless of their backgrounds (Abacioglu et al., 2019).

Culturally sensitive teaching and socially sensitive teaching, which will be briefly discussed next, are two separate but related components reflected in culturally responsive teaching approaches (Abacioglu et al., 2019).

Culturally Sensitive Teaching

Culturally sensitive teachers have the ability to adapt their teaching and the curriculum to better meet their students' individual differences related to cultural elements (Abacioglu et al., 2019). Some

components of culturally responsive teaching have been associated with culturally sensitive teaching, for example, identifying the ways in which the school culture, including values, norms, and practices diverge from the students' home culture; "using the cultural background of my students to make learning meaningful", "revise educational materials to improve its representation of cultural groups" and "make use of examples that are relatable for students from culturally different backgrounds" (Abacioglu et al., 2019, p. 16, based on Siwatu, 2007).

Socially Sensitive Teaching

A socially sensitive teacher has the ability to accommodate individual student differences that are not necessarily related to cultural elements (Abacioglu et al., 2019). Some components of culturally responsive teaching have been associated with socially sensitive teaching, for example, "adjust instructions to cater to the needs of my students", "assessing whether my students rather work alone or in a group", "use a learning preference survey to obtain information on how my students prefer to learn", and "help students establish positive relationships with their classmates" (Abacioglu et al., 2019, based on Siwatu, 2007). Perspective taking ability was shown to be a strong predictor of culturally sensitive teaching and socially sensitive teaching. Thus, it has been recommended that teacher education programs emphasize perspective taking experiences (Abacioglu et al. 2019).

Transformative Learning

Transformative learning has been defined as "learning that transforms problematic frames of reference (…) to become more inclusive, discriminating, open, reflective, and emotionally able to change", thereby prompting the "re-evaluation of identity, values and opinions" (Mezirow, 2003, p. 58). Dissonant experiences are needed to upset previous assumptions, for example, by teaching or observing teaching in other countries, comparing and contrasting lesson plans, or seeing teaching methods previously thought of as being 'unsuccessful' work out quite effectively in a different cultural context (Malewski et al., 2012). In a study by Baecher and Chung (2020), for example, teacher candidates were "struck by the innovative and adaptive ways local teachers utilized their limited resources and physical space" (p. 44) revealing a dissonance between their assumptions and reality, thereby offering a transformative learning opportunity. Studies on using pedagogies of discomfort as a framework for field experiences indicate that intentionally exposing teacher candidates to discomforting experiences helps them construct new understanding about the needs of underserved and culturally diverse communities (Lazar & Sharma, 2016; Sharma et al., 2012). Trilokekar and Kukar (2011) define disorienting experiences as challenging cultural encounters causing feelings of discomfort.

Transformative learning happens when one is aware of one's frame of reference and critically evaluates it from different perspectives (Baecher & Chung, 2020; Mezirow, 2003). Acquah and Szelei (2020), for example, recommend activities for teacher education programs that offer a potential for transformative learning, namely, activities that aim at exposing what is invisible about culture, challenging the pre-service teachers' status in society, reflecting upon which aspects of their home culture they are struggling with most, deconstructing "culturally hegemonic practices and negative stereotyping" (p. 169), rejecting the reproduction of practices devaluating cultural groups, challenging curriculum and practices that fail to reflect the cultural and linguistic diversity of the student population, and building new principles and values. These activities may offer a platform for transformative learning even without an immersive setting.

International field experiences have been associated with transformative learning experiences (Lazar & Sharma, 2016; Sharma et al., 2012) because the participants experience "disorienting

cultural situations" that are in conflict with "their existing cultural schemes" (Kambutu & Nganga, 2008, p. 941). Transformative learning may happen as a result of the participants' reflection on the unfamiliar cultural experience. Thus, transformative learning has the potential to "promote cultural awareness, understanding and appreciation" (Kambutu & Nganga, 2008, p. 942).

The present study builds on earlier work by the same authors exploring the potential of international learning experiences for pre-service teachers to be immersed in a foreign culture, broaden their cultural awareness, and build cultural competence, with the potential of experiencing transformative learning. The ultimate goal was to provide these teacher candidates an experience that would help them become better teachers for culturally and linguistically diverse U.S. student populations. These two earlier projects, which were conducted in South Korea in 2010 and 2011, are briefly summarized in the next section to provide meaningful background about the context, the research goals, the participating teacher candidates, and the findings.

Immersion Programs in South Korea

Creating challenging and eye-opening experiences for U.S. teacher candidates. In the year 2010, the lead author conducted an exploratory case study to investigate the impact of a short-term international experience on pre-service teachers' global perspectives (Oh & Nussli, 2014). These teachers (n=5), all female graduate students from a university in the U.S., were fully immersed in Korean culture for three weeks while teaching English to primary and secondary students in South Korea. They were also exposed to traditional Korean culture via outings, meals, and social gatherings.

Before traveling to South Korea, they received basic training that would prepare them for the communicative and cultural differences. As a Korean-American, the lead author trained the participating teachers in the U.S. prior to their departure about cultural differences and mannerisms specific to the Korean culture. One such difference is Koreans' preference for a lecture style format of teaching and unfamiliarity with classroom settings where students share thoughts and engage in collaborative learning activities. While the U.S. teachers were instructed to provide more interactive opportunities in classrooms, they were also expected to be sensitive toward Korean students' lack of familiarity with interactive class discussions. During their three-week immersion in South Korea, the participants' experiences and perceptions were consistently captured using a variety of qualitative data collection methods (pre-survey, journal writing with reflective prompts, focus groups, individual interviews, classroom observations, and post-survey).

Eight themes emerged from the analysis, namely (a) experiencing a language barrier, (b) experiencing what it feels like to be the minority in a society, (c) being exposed to cultural differences and experiencing culture shock, (d) perceiving differences in student participation and teaching methods, (e) adjusting classroom management, (f) underestimating English language learners, (g) building up confidence in teaching and instructional flexibility, and (h) learning to value support systems.

Overall, the participating teachers expressed some level of transformative learning regarding their teaching philosophy and cultural perspectives. They agreed that this foreign immersion project had not only advanced their global perspective, but had also equipped them with tools to provide a better learning experience to their culturally diverse students.

International immersion into co-teaching. A year later in 2011, the lead author conducted a second short-term international co-teaching experience for pre-service general education teachers who were paired up with intern special education teachers (n = 8) to provide English language instruction to young learners in South Korea (Oh et al., 2017) for two weeks. Thirty underserved Korean students ranging from grades 2 through 11 with mostly low levels of English speaking and listening skills participated in the 'English camp' and received English language instruction from these U.S.

teachers. The majority of these Korean students would not normally have had such an opportunity due to their socioeconomic status.

Two administrative staff and a special education professor from the Korean university were liaisons. The U.S. teachers received initial classroom support (e.g., translation and interpretation) from Korean teaching assistants who were undergraduates at the Korean university's special education program. The narratives of two participating teachers from the U.S. were chosen for phenomenological analysis. Whereas one of the narratives reflects an overwhelmingly positive co-teaching experience, the other recounts a rather unfavorable co-teaching experience in a foreign setting.

The main research focus was on the factors that make a co-teaching experience successful. These factors include open communication, receptiveness to both positive and negative feedback, the willingness to learn from someone who may have less teaching experience, mutual respect and trust, compatibility of personal characteristics, and frequent check-ins. Threats to a successful co-teaching experience were identified as mismatched personalities, incompatible teaching goals, the lack of co-planning, conflicting approaches to lesson planning, unequal roles, infrequent check-ins, and a lack of trust and respect. In addition to analyzing and sharing their co-teaching experiences, the participating teachers also reflected on the impact of their immersion experience from a cultural perspective. Data collection included program application essays, daily self-reflection journals, one-on-one interviews, a group discussion, a post-survey, and a program evaluation. After gaining teaching experience in the U.S., one participant looked back on her teaching experiences in Korea and expressed some of the discrepancies she had noticed:

> This impacts my daily teaching here in the U.S. because we just don't see that type of charisma and dedication for their learning (for most of our kids). Students here do not respect their teachers like those in Asian countries. Students here also take for granted the fact that they are given a free education. It's upsetting to me often times when I see the same students disrespecting their teachers or misusing their opportunities to learn. (Oh et al., 2017, p. 10)

Both studies documenting the two Korean projects mirrored what is identified in the literature, namely, that international immersion experiences offer a valuable platform to experience dissonance between one's own cultural frame of reference and another culture's frame of reference (Baecher & Chung, 2020; Mezirow, 2003) and to enhance teachers' global perspectives (Malewski et al., 2012; Phillion & Malewski, 2011).

Methodology

Context

This study was guided by two research questions:

1. What long-term impact does an international immersion experience have on teacher trainees in the U.S. with regard to their cultural responsiveness?
2. What long-term impact does an international immersion experience have on teacher trainees in the U.S. with regard to their teaching practice?

Given the nature of these research questions, a case study methodology with an emphasis on inductive data analysis and an in-depth exploration of participants' perspectives (Mills et al., 2010) seemed to be an appropriate approach.

Participants

The lead researcher reached out to six female special education and general education teachers who had participated in one of two immersion projects conducted in South Korea in 2010 and 2011. The main goal was to capture if immersion in a foreign culture and the teaching of primary and secondary school students in South Korea had any sustainable impact on the participating teachers' perception of their culturally responsive teaching efficacy several years after their immersion experience (seven and eight years, respectively). Table 1 provides an overview of the participants who agreed to be interviewed for the present follow-up study.

Table 1. Participants.

Pseudonyms	Ethnicity	Age*	Teaching Experience (in years)*	Age**	Teaching Experience (in years)**	Teaching Credential ***
Sally	White	27	1	35	9	SPED
Evelyn	White	21	0	30	6	Gen Ed
Sandy	Asian	26	1	35	9	SPED
Gina	White	20	0	29	4	Gen Ed

*   at the time of the immersion project
**   at the time of the interview
*** SPED (Special Education), Gen Ed (General Education)

Although there were a total of 13 participating teachers in the two immersion projects described earlier, the interview request was only sent to six because these were the students who were still in contact with the lead author. The remaining seven individuals were not contacted because they have left the teaching field. Four participants, all of whom are still working as teachers in K-12, responded to the request and all four agreed to participate in a one-to-one interview via videoconference. It turned out that two of the six individuals who were contacted had also left the field of education.

Data Collection

Data for this study were collected through a semi-structured interview with the four participating in-service teachers and a questionnaire.

Teacher Interviews. The lead author conducted one-to-one interviews with the four teachers in November 2018. The main goal of the interviews was to determine whether the immersion experience (in 2010 and 2011, respectively) had a sustainable impact on the participants' teaching. The interview questions emerged from multiple sources. They emerged from the program evaluation of the first immersion project conducted in 2010 (Oh & Nussli, 2014), from the review of the literature, from both authors' current teaching context, and from an informal two-year follow-up with the project participants. The semi-structured interviews were guided by nine questions:

1. You've already completed the self-assessment form, which is based on various elements of culturally responsive teaching. How would you define culturally

responsive teaching in your own words? Or, put differently, what does it take to be a culturally responsive teacher?

2. Please think about your short-term international immersion experience in South Korea in 2010 and 2011. How has this experience impacted your cultural responsiveness as a teacher?

3. Do you think you would teach differently if you didn't have this immersion experience? If so, in what way?

4. What was the most valuable cultural experience you had?

5. To which extent did the immersion experience help you build up the confidence to teach culturally diverse classes?

6. Can you think of examples of difficulties that your students with culturally diverse backgrounds have experienced? and follow-up: In what way were you able to help address these difficulties?

7. Have you seen students with culturally diverse backgrounds struggle with acclimating to the new environment in your classroom or at your school? and follow-up: Were you able to identify these students much more quickly than your colleagues and how were you able to help these students?

8. Can you think of examples of instances where your students had fun because your class is culturally diverse?

9. Do you have any advice to teacher trainees and novice teachers? More specifically, (1) What can they do to become culturally responsive teachers? (2) What should they avoid in this process? (3) How can they best accommodate the needs of all students in culturally and linguistically diverse classes?

Questionnaire. A 12-item questionnaire was modified from an existing scale about in-service teachers' self-efficacy beliefs regarding culturally responsive teaching practices (Chu & Garcia, 2014). Responses were based on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from *effectively, quite effectively, neutral, rather ineffectively* to *ineffectively.* An additional response choice (*don't know)* was added. The questions are shown in Table 2 in the Result section. The questionnaire had multiple objectives, namely, to clarify the concept of culturally responsive teaching, to prompt reflection in the participants about what it means to them personally, to self-assess their culturally responsive teaching skills, and, not least, to prepare them for the interview. The questionnaire captures the teachers' perceptions of their skills in the following competencies of culturally responsive teachers: adapting activities and materials, creating a culturally responsive learning environment, using students' prior knowledge, using multiple means of assessment, critically examining the curriculum, identifying potential mismatches between students' behavior and communication at home and in school, and establishing positive relationships with students and their families and among students (Chu & Garcia, 2014).

Procedures. Once the online interview was scheduled, the four teachers received the questionnaire by email. They were asked to complete the self-assessment questionnaire within a week prior to the interview. Next, the lead author conducted individual online interviews with the four teachers in November 2018. The teachers also received the interview questions seven days prior to the interview so they could prepare for the interview. All four interviews were conducted and recorded in *Zoom*, using audio-transcription for cloud recordings.

Researcher Reflexivity. As the qualitative researcher is often the primary instrument of data collection and analysis, reflexivity is crucial (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Because the first author had also assumed the role of the immersion program coordinator in South Korea, continuous reflection on his role and the research relationship was particularly important. To provide a platform for researcher reflexivity and to help support the qualitative researcher's integrity, the second author

conducted a written interview with the first author. This interview prompted him to reflect critically on his expectations prior to the immersion project, his biases, his role and involvement during the immersion, and his 'self' as a researcher (Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The structured interview consisted of the following questions all of which revolved around the two immersion programs, which took place in 2010 and 2011:

1. To which extent were the objectives achieved at the time?
2. What were your values and expectations you brought to the study?
3. Did the immersion projects in South Korea turn out as expected?
4. What was unexpected?
5. Which obstacles were encountered?
6. Were there any positive surprises?
7. In hindsight, what should be modified to improve an international immersion project regarding the preparation phase, during-phase, and post-phase?
8. In conclusion, from the researcher's perspective: To which extent and how can international immersion help develop cultural responsiveness in teachers?
9. How have your values and expectations influenced the conduct and conclusions of the study?

The program coordinator's full answers to the interview questions are shown in Appendix 1.

Data Analysis

Qualitative Data. The qualitative data emerged from the live interviews with four teachers. The interview transcripts were analyzed qualitatively using thematic analysis. The themes were identified in a five-stage process, namely, familiarizing with the data, generating initial codes through open coding, identifying themes, merging and collapsing codes, and reviewing and naming themes (Creswell, 2013; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). It was ensured that the categories constructed during data analysis meet certain criteria, namely, that they are responsive to the purpose of the research and as sensitive to the data as possible (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The second author, who had not been involved in the immersion projects, analyzed the data. MaxQDA (2019) was used for coding, coding comparisons, and generating frequencies. Although the focus was on identifying themes across participants, the authors purposefully screened the data for atypical responses. The total duration of the interviews with the teachers was 105 minutes and ranged from 18 to 35 minutes each. The total word count of the transcribed interviews was 9,786 words and ranged from 1,469 to 4,169 words.

Quantitative Data. The 12-item questionnaire was adopted from Chu and Garcia (2014). From the original 20-item scale designed to measure in-service teachers' culturally responsive teaching efficacy beliefs, 12 items were retained for this study. Selection of the items was based on the items' immediate relevance to the interviewees' teaching practice and the ways they have been implementing culturally responsive teaching approaches in their own classrooms ever since their immersion experience. Frequencies were calculated for each response choice. Given that the main purpose of the questionnaire was to prepare the participants for the interviews, there was no need for further analysis.

Results

The themes that emerged from the inductive analysis of the interview data provide answers to the two research questions, namely, the impact of an international immersion experience on teacher

trainees in the U.S. with regard to their perception of their own cultural responsiveness and their current teaching strategies. Four interrelated themes emerged from the analysis of the interviews with the participating teachers, namely, perspective taking, relationship, teaching skills, and cultural knowledge. Representative statements substantiating each of the themes and codes will now be presented.

Theme 1: Perspective Taking

Notice, respect and understand different values. When reflecting on their immersion experiences in Korea, the interviewees' narratives indicated that they had become aware of different values, such as parents' varying perceptions of the value of education. Experiencing different values in Korea (where education is being highly valued) helped them become more aware of values that may differ across cultures:

> So something I struggled with as a teacher from the very beginning was, I don't understand why you guys don't have the same values.
> And kind of adjusting on the fly to those cultural differences that are unexpected that you just, oh, I wouldn't even think that that would be something to talk about or something that I would need to address or a conversation that needs to be had.

Ability to take a different perspective. The immersion experience also indicated that the participants were more willing and more skilled in taking someone else's perspective, for example, what it feels like if the cultural conventions (i.e., in Korea) prevent students from asking the teacher questions in class because this would be considered inappropriate and impolite. Understanding these differences helps teachers modify their approaches so that all students can contribute in a way they feel comfortable with:

> Right, so there they know how to do the math, but they don't understand like the social situation, or they don't know how to make the food that they're talking about, or they don't have any kind of like image in their mind of what the thing is.
> I think about them often because they would pretend like they would understand. They're not supposed to ask questions.
> You just have a little more understanding that not everybody does the same thing everybody else does.
> So I think it just gave me a different perspective, but I don't know that really changed how I teach, I think I've remained pretty consistent in how I teach, but it definitely just gave me a different lens to look through.

Show empathy toward different behavior and perspective. The immersion experience caused the participating teachers to experience what it feels like when one does not speak the language. Being unable to understand and communicate in Korea increased their sympathy toward English language learners in the US:

> But those kinds of things make a huge difference in the way you treat other people when they're in a culture that they're not familiar with, like, you give them a little more grace.
> It was like a disaster. I'm like, no directions or even any like basic phrases. And that's really the one I felt like the most. Um, this is really what language learners' experience. And so they were in our school system for the first time and figuring out the language.

Exposure to differences. Experience a dissonance between their own frame of reference and others' frames of reference ("seeing how that part of the culture was different from what I'm used to") was an eye-opening experience and helped them become more aware of student behavior that may differ due to cultural norms, for example, regarding communicative styles:

> I also think you know the difference in the behavior of a lot of the students when they didn't know what was going on. The students were just much more quiet and whereas the cultures that I had more exposure to in California. When students didn't know what was going on. It was more like disruptive behavior as opposed to kind of that internalized quiet response to not knowing what's going on.
>
> Differences in conversation culture… Like, I know you know some of my students that I had when I was in the classroom. It was very culturally appropriate for them to be talking over one another.

Theme 2: Relationship

Reach out to families and the community. All participants emphasized the importance of reaching out to the families and showing interest in the community, for example, by going to different events "to get to know the people who are important in the community". They felt that it was "definitely worth it to research on reach out to your students and their families, learn about them and try to make as many connections with them as you can."

Establish relationship with parents. All participants emphasized the critical need to establish positive relationships with parents and understand how the parents' perceptions of school translate to the students' behavior and affective levels in school:

> And really being open to having conversations with parents and students about their backgrounds but knowing that sometimes it really takes time depending on the culture for people to feel comfortable opening up.
>
> Yeah, because if the parents have like this fear of the system, or they feel like they're excluded in some way, then even if they tell their kids that school is important, something that they value, I think the kids can, you know, they can see that discomfort and that translates into the classroom.

Know your students. All participants emphasized multiple times that to build trust it is crucial to invest the time to get to know the students, listen to them, and making a real effort to understand them and their history:

> So yeah, I do try to be mindful about those things that I know that they are experiencing in their own homes or in their own communities.
>
> Same thing just understanding who that kid is deep down, and where they're coming from.

Build trust. Building the parents' trust was also emphasized multiple times, along with the positive impact for the students. The participants expressed that the time invested in building a trustworthy relationship with the parents would ultimately benefit the student:

> So I always just, you know, would say to parents as much as you're willing to tell me is really helpful for me. And I can keep that information to myself or I can share it with your child.

You know the rest of your child's teachers and I found that over time families who initially were really hesitant to maybe share difficult information or you know, more personal information more and more of that came out as time went on, and it really did have a positive effect for the student.

Establish better connection with students. The participants agreed that having experienced cultural immersion helped them understand the critical importance of a positive relationship with the student. They made it clear that having a good connection with every single student was their top priority. One of the ways to establish this connection is to show real interest in events that happen in their students' lives:

And then, and when I bring up stuff about their families or little things that they might think that I don't remember they said, or that they told me or shared with me. I think just building relationships with those kids is number one in my mind.

I can't be successful with every kid. But if every kid leaves my room, knowing that I care about them, that's, that's really most important to me.

Change way to talk to students and parents. It was mentioned that having experienced cultural immersion themselves made them more responsive to cultural differences in communication:

It affects how I talked to the kids.

It makes a huge difference in me as a teacher in the way I talked to my students, in the way I teach.

It definitely changes the way I talk to families more than anything else.

Theme 3: Teaching Skills

Make accommodations for students. All participants mentioned that they are making cultural accommodations for students based on their family and background, that they use interventions and teaching practices that are sensitive to different cultures. They referred back to their teaching experience in Korea and to the flexibility needed at the time to accommodate students' needs, to re-evaluate and adjust their teaching strategies, and to consider what could be changed to make their teaching more useful for the Korean students. Once they became aware of the need for cultural adjustments, they were able to incorporate them into their classroom both in the U.S. and in Korea:

To share that that teacher goes a step further and does research about it and brings those aspects of the culture that are relevant to their students into the classroom and really honors them.

And just from like different strategies that were helpful in Korea. Um, I think using those strategies in my classroom that really impacted my teaching. I work really hard to bring in like materials, whether it's text or images or videos that reflect the different cultures and different backgrounds and my kids are coming from.

Setting up even setting strict policies and then realizing, oh, maybe that's not actually going to work for the students that I have in this classroom. So being a little bit flexible as well.

Becoming a better teacher for the students. The participants agreed that the immersion experience really helped them understand how to be a better teacher for their students. In discussing how to

offer more effective teaching to the Korean students, they were able to identify ways to help them in the best possible way:

> Give your best for that day and then you reevaluate at the end of the day and say, okay, what worked, what didn't work. How can we do better kind of thing. And that process, I mean, the Korea trip made a big difference in that.

Building self-confidence. The teaching experience in Korea required maximal flexibility from the participating teachers because they had never worked with Korean students before. Although they had prepared activities and lesson plans beforehand, they did not know what grade level there were going to teach and how much or how little English their students knew until after they arrived in Korea. They needed to change teaching strategies and activities practically over night in order to better accommodate the students. Experiencing that they were able to accomplish this task, in collaboration with their peers and co-teachers, helped them build up their self-confidence as teachers:

> I think being immersed in a culture was really valuable and that I had made some positive difference in their life. That was huge. So just knowing that I could do that.
> I think that, on the fly, kind of experience builds confidence really quickly because the kids enjoyed it. They did learn, you could see the progress, even in such a short amount of time with them.
> Like it made me rely on my skills that I knew how to teach right like I know what I'm doing.
> I mean, it definitely builds confidence because when you come across those things in the lesson. You have to know what you're doing enough to be able to just make the change.
> Yeah, I mean, it's hard enough just to do that in the U.S. as a beginning teacher, but you had to go and do it in a different country with, you know, different language and culture so I think it's kind of like sink or swim, swimming in the deep end.

Theme 4: Cultural Knowledge

Cultural knowledge and wrong assumptions. All participants mentioned the risk of jumping to conclusions due to stereotyping. They all recommended that teachers should avoid assumptions about the way that children are and they should listen to them instead. Similarly, teachers need to be aware of their own culture and their own biases:

> I'm something that happens really often people like to stereotype. Oh, this family like does this because they're from this country. This is how that kids going to be like and you just can't do that. I mean, you've got to listen to that kid specific background, just because they look Asian doesn't mean that they're like Chinese.

Cultural understanding. In terms of affecting their teaching, the immersion experience gave them more exposure to different types of cultures. Being immersed in a culture helped them learn about it and use that information to inform their teaching approaches. They agreed that any sort of immersion experience has the potential to broaden their views of different types of people and different ideas, which would ultimately transfer to their own teaching back in the U.S.. For example, being knowledgeable about the role that culture plays in school can have a considerable impact on classroom management.

And that was something that I kind of had to learn and understand that they weren't trying to be disrespectful. But that was something that, you know, and particularly in African American culture that's very acceptable.

Figure 1 provides a visual summary of the themes and codes that emerged from an inductive analysis of the interviews.
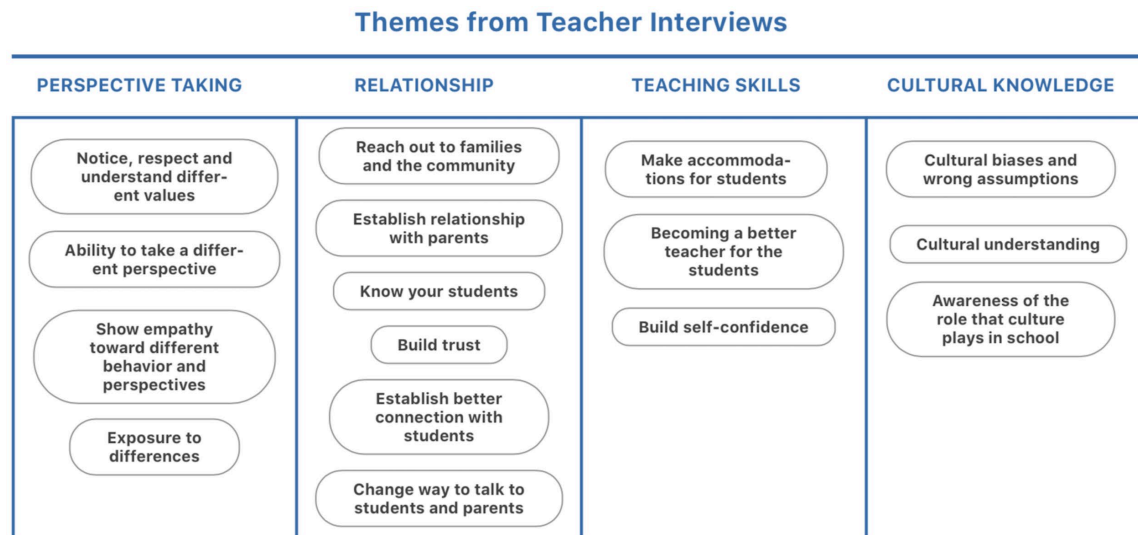

Figure 1. Themes and codes from teacher interviews.

Atypical Responses

The transcripts of the teacher interviews were purposefully screened for atypical answers, although it was challenging with such a small sample. It was found that the statements of the four teachers aligned very well with each other, probably because their experiences during the immersion trip were similarly positive. No atypical answers were identified.

Teachers' Perceptions of their Self-Efficacy in Culturally Responsive Teaching

The results of the questionnaire (Table 2), which was administered to the participating teachers in preparation for the interview, show that the participants rated their self-efficacy regarding culturally responsive teaching as *effective* (46%) or *quite effective* (44%). Only 10% of the answers were found in the *neutral* category, thus indicating a rather high level of self-efficacy overall. None of the respondents rated their self-efficacy as either *rather ineffective* or *ineffective,* and no one chose *don't know* for any of the 12 items.

Table 2. Culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy (adapted from Chu & Garcia, 2014).

	I am able to…	Effecti-vely	Quite effecti-vely	Neutral	Rather ineffec-tively	Inef fec-tively	Don't know
1	modify instructional activities and materials to meet the needs and learning interests of my culturally diverse students.	2	2				
2	create a learning environment that reflects the various backgrounds of my culturally diverse students.		4				
3	use my students' prior knowledge related to their cultural and linguistic backgrounds to help make learning meaningful.	1	3				
4	use various types of assessment that is matched to English language learners' language proficiency.	2	1	1			
5	critically examine the curriculum to determine whether it appropriately represent culturally diverse groups.	2	1	1			
6	identify the differences between student behavior/communication at home and student behavior/communication at school.		3	1			
7	use a variety of teaching methods to assist my students in learning the content.	1	2	1			
8	implement interventions that minimize the effects of cultural mismatch between home and school.	1	2	1			
9	distinguish cultural differences from learning difficulties for culturally diverse students.	2	2				
10	create a caring, supportive, and warm learning environment for my culturally diverse students.	4					
11	build positive relationships with parents of culturally diverse students.	3	1				
12	help my culturally diverse students develop positive interactions with each other.	4					
	Total	22 (46%)	21 (44%)	4 (10%)	-	-	-

Discussion

This follow-up study investigated the long-term impact of an international immersion experience on U.S. American teacher trainees with regard to their cultural competence and their teaching practices. The participants' statements during the interviews indicated that the short-term immersion experience has broadened their views of different cultures and helped them refine and adjust their teaching practices. Specifically, the immersion experienced enhanced their awareness of culturally different perspectives on schooling, the critical need for parent involvement and family engagement, their mindfulness of students' origins, and their awareness of culturally relevant textbooks and resources that the children can connect to. The immersion experience also enhanced their sensitivity toward the struggles that culturally diverse students might experience. The participants consistently reported that the immersion experience has helped them develop better knowledge of what it takes to build up a trusting relationship with all students, regardless of their cultural or linguistic background.

The themes that emerged from the interview data revolved around perspective taking abilities; establishing relationship with students, parents, and their communities; the development of teaching skills; and cultural knowledge. As discussed in Abacioglu et al. (2019), perspective taking ability is among the key qualities of a culturally responsive teaching approach. The participants in the present study frequently referred to their own negative stereotyping and sets of assumptions that were deconstructed during their immersion experience in order to build new principles and values, which indicates transformative learning (Acquah & Szelei, 2020; Mezirow, 2003).

Due to their first-hand experience in Korea, they reported having more empathy toward English language learners because they had experienced themselves what it feels like not knowing the language. Being unable to communicate in the local language might be compared to what Trilokekar and Kukar (2011) identified as "experience outsider status" (p. 1145), which is one of four categories for examining teacher candidates' disorienting experiences during international immersion.

Honoring cultural differences and appreciation of students' individual backgrounds emerged as important markers of the participating teachers' beliefs. Similar to the descriptions in Acquah and Szelei (2020), the four teachers expressed a caring attitude and demonstrated an affirming attitude to build on their students' linguistic and cultural strengths, which echoes previous research (Barba et al., 2019; Gay, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). They emphasized the importance of making cultural accommodations, for example, by challenging existing instructional materials and by adapting instruction and learning resources to better serve the students' needs (Abacioglu et al., 2019; Acquah & Szelei, 2020; Chu & Garcia, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2000; Gay 2010; McAllister & Irvine, 2002), which are core principles of culturally responsive teaching.

The participants' statements indicated that they embrace multiple competencies associated with culturally responsive teaching. They made frequent references to strategies that were used in Abacioglu et al.'s (2019) scale of culturally sensitive teaching (modified from Siwatu, 2007), such as using the students' cultural background to make learning meaningful, obtaining information regarding the students' cultural background, revising educational materials to better represent cultural diversity, obtaining information about students' interest, and identifying differences between the child's home culture and the school culture that children are struggling with.

Although the findings indicate that the short-term teaching experiences in Korea had a sustainable impact on the four participating interviewees regarding their cultural knowledge, competence, and awareness, there are a number of limitations regarding this study, which will be discussed next.

Limitations

Regarding the interviews, it is possible that the participating interviewees may have felt obligated to share more of their positive experiences during the interview because the interviewer was also leading the project at the time. Another potential limitation could be that the interviewer was a male faculty member and all of the participants were females; thus, they may have not felt comfortable talking about some of the struggles they experienced. The four interviewees were not only more vocal during the trip to Korea than other teachers participating in the immersion project, but they also had more positive things to say at the end of their immersion experience, which could explain why they volunteered for the interview in 2018.

Some of the interviewees might have re-read their reflective journals just before the interview, which could have influenced the way they responded to the interview questions and thus might limit internal validity to some extent. The small sample size is clearly a limitation. A multi-year case-study approach similar to Malewski et al. (2012) with multiple cohorts of teachers would have

generated more data. For future studies, follow-up interviews should be conducted with a more systematic and focused approach and should include all participating teachers rather than a small sample. Follow-up interviews should be held more than once and at regular intervals (e.g., every two years). Although the lead author contacted all eight teachers from the 2011 Korea project two years later in 2013, this was only an informal follow-up request to learn how the Korean co-teaching experience had shaped their teaching practices in the U.S. Four teachers responded at the time. Because the interviews in 2018 were conducted after a rather long period of time, it was too late to interview those participants who had left the teaching profession.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to explore whether the immersion abroad had any sustainable effects on teachers participating in a short-term immersion experience nearly a decade earlier and how this experience has helped them become culturally competent teachers. While the findings provide insight into four teachers' cultural knowledge, competence, and awareness and the ways they connect their current teaching approaches back to their short-term immersion experiences in South Korea, it is impossible to measure the exact impact of the immersion experience. Their beliefs could have further evolved due to other reasons, such as professional development courses, traveling, teaching experience in culturally heterogeneous classes, dialogues with teacher colleagues, or any other encounters with cultural diversity. It is also debatable whether these four teachers experienced true transformative learning as a result of a short-term immersion program in Korea. Their answers indicate that they had multiple eye-opening experiences and that these illuminating experiences had a sustainable impact on how they now interact with their students, how they reach out to their families and communities, and which aspects to be mindful of when making cultural adjustments to their instruction.

Implications for Teacher Educators

Teacher educators must examine how their course content and presentation formats influence pre- and in-service teachers' skills and their schemata about teaching and learning. Due to the increased heterogeneity of future student populations, it is essential for teachers to receive intercultural training and be given ample opportunities to reflect on ways to become culturally responsive teachers. Through service and immersion projects, teachers can better meet the needs of all of their future students, regardless of their cultural or linguistic background.

Future Research

Future research should explore how teachers' implicit rules of their own culture shape their classroom teaching (Malewski et al., 2012) and if an immersion experience abroad might bring about change. More follow-up studies should be conducted to capture whether immersion trips have any long-term impact on teachers' approaches to culturally responsive teaching practices. Once the participating teachers have several years of teaching experience, they can be asked to assist with the design of future immersion programs for teacher candidates. They could provide valuable help in identifying the most effective components of immersion programs that had a sustainable impact on their own teaching.

       Another avenue for investigation could be how co-teaching experiences abroad could maximize teachers' cultural learning. For example, pre-service teachers offering co-teaching instruction abroad can observe their co-teachers' displays of cultural sensitivity toward students.

They can engage in co-reflection, provide intentional peer support, and share strategies with each other.

International field experiences may also offer new pathways for helping teachers "deconstruct their assumptions about meritocracy, educational equity, and school achievement" (Lazar & Sharma, 2016, p. 122). By utilizing teachers' feelings of discomfort and experiences of cultural dissonance when being immersed in a foreign culture, new understandings of cultural values and different pedagogical practices might be created (Sharma et al., 2012).

Appendix

Appendix 1. Full Interview with Program Coordinator (lead author).

Q1: To which extent were the objectives achieved at the time (i.e., in 2010 and 2011)?
The main objective of the projects was to provide an inclusive and culturally relevant experience to both groups. Initially, both groups (students and teachers) needed time to build rapport, but once they built relationships and trust, it was difficult for them to not engage in academic and life experiences.

Q2: What were your values and expectations you brought to the study?
As an immigrant to the U.S. from Korea myself, I was able to provide services to the groups (teachers, students, administrative team in Korea) that others may not be able to do. For example, I was the team translator, tour guide, counselor, and cultural expert to name a few. Understanding both cultures provided an easy path to complete these roles.

Q3: Did the immersion projects turn out as expected?
I did have high expectations for both programs. I was hoping that the teachers were better prepared to teach the students in Korea, but I believe the struggles we faced (language, culture, preparation – teaching materials, etc.) were good for the individual teachers and the team. The growth I saw as the coordinator was very rewarding. When the teachers shared how much they have learned about the importance of cultural understanding between teachers and students in South Korea, I realized that the gap of knowledge between these two groups actually helped in this situation.

Q4: What was unexpected?
I did not have a strong understanding of how the students in Korea were going to be toward our program and especially teachers. One of the students was so shy that I had to do a one on one lesson with her. I think the shyness came out due to the fact that this student had the lowest English ability.

Q5: Which obstacles were encountered?
The schedule during the trip changed multiple times due to unforeseeable matters, but I did prepare everyone in the team from the U.S. that we need to be very flexible once we are in Korea. For example, some of the outings were delayed due to the bus coming later than scheduled.

Q6: Were there any positive surprises?
Some of the teachers bonded really well with the teacher aides and they went out on outings on their own. The friendships they built while teaching together and those outings were surprising to me.

Q7: In hindsight, what should be modified to improve an international immersion project regarding the preparation phase, during-phase, and post-phase?
Preparation phase: providing more cultural background of the students in Korea, printing and bringing more teaching materials. During: recording the teaching and providing time for them to reflect. Post: We should have had 6-month-, 1-year, and 2-year reunion dinners.

Q8: How have your values and expectations influenced the conduct and conclusions of the study?
I always wanted to give back to my home country after I immigrated to U.S. This was one way that I, as a teacher trainer, could provide to the children in South Korea who are not as fortunate to attend a summer English camp due to financial constraints of their parents. I shared my appreciation for the teachers' work at the end of the trip get-together and I hope that they felt good about being part of this project.

Q9: In conclusion, from the researcher's perspective: To which extent and how can international immersion help develop cultural responsiveness in teachers?
I strongly believe that teachers need to experience what immigrant students have to endure in their first month of relocating. This type of trips provides a first-hand experience in language struggle and culture shock that cannot be understood without these teachers facing it directly. I would like to do similar projects in other countries. My lifetime goal is to bring teachers to Korea when it reunifies and do something similar in the North Korea side of the country. I would have liked to connect pre-service teachers in Korea with my students in the U.S. before the departure so that the relationships were built before we arrived.

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Impact of Working Conditions on Faculty Teaching: Analysis of Full-Time Tenure Track and Part Time Non-Tenure Track Faculty

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Abstract: The following exploration examined the impact of working conditions on faculty teaching for full-time faculty and non-tenure track faculty within an academic department at a large Midwestern university to determine whether employment status and working conditions potentially impacted student learning outcomes. Questions asked of participating faculty focused on factors related to, or influencing, teaching that may improve or hinder student learning. Factors such as available resources, interaction with department administrators and other faculty, job satisfaction, work-life integration, and mentorship were explored through written surveys and one-on-one interviews. Twelve faculty, out of a target population of 33, provided insight as to concerns or issues they felt impeded or supported teaching efforts. Although the exploration contained a small sample size, department administrators implemented changes to address faculty concerns to reduce "disconnects" and issues mentioned by faculty members. Primary changes occurred around part time faculty input on curriculum development and interactions with department administrators and full-time faculty. While still ongoing, initial feedback is positive and indicates faculty are adapting to the changes. Further work is necessary to examine individual feelings of worth and value, as well as exploring actual student learning outcomes across courses.

Keywords: Working conditions, part-time faculty, job satisfaction, and faculty status.

The purpose of this exploration was to examine the impact of working conditions on faculty teaching for full time faculty and non-tenure track faculty (NTTF). Specifically, questions were posed to ascertain whether resources, or lack thereof, potentially hindered student learning outcomes, especially in the context of employment status. The hypothesis was that a "disconnect" existed between part time faculty and full-time faculty (FTF) within the department that resulted in varying curriculum focus, an array of student learning outcomes, and lack of course scaffolding.

The focus on NTTF resulted from research indicating that part time NTTF are subjected to working conditions or environments that potentially hinder the ability to teach effectively (Champlin & Knoedler, 2017), thereby impacting the educational outcomes for students (Ehrenberg & Zhang, 2005; Johnson & Mejia, 2014). Compared to full time faculty (FTF), NTTF are paid less, do not receive health benefits, often lack access to professional development, and face employment insecurities based on department needs and student enrollment. For the purposes of this exploration, a small academic department at a large Midwestern university was reviewed. At the time of this review, the department employed five FTF and 23 NTTF, with an undergraduate enrollment of 540 students. The NTTF taught approximately 73% of the required 15 core courses within the undergraduate major. Many of

the courses taught by NTTF were introductory courses where faculty support and mentorship were crucial.

For the NTTF, 82% are part time (i.e., one to two courses per semester) while 17% are employed full time (one clinical faculty member who teaches four courses per semester and three staff members). The trend for using part time NTTF to teach is not specific to this department. In 2012, Kezar and Maxey reported on new faculty hires, indicating three quarters of new hires are part time or non-tenured track faculty. Of those in non-tenure track positions, 74% are employed part time (Yakoboski, 2016) with 26% employed full time. Similar to others (Kezar, 2013; Yakoboski & Foster, 2014), this department uses part time faculty in response to budget restraints, cost savings, course release time, new course offerings, online education courses, or minors and certificates that demand a skillset often met by part time faculty expertise.

Kezar and Maxey (2012) point to this increasing use of NTTF as creating an environment that may not be conducive to optimal student learning. Although NTTF may be motivated to teach, NTTF often have less access to resources, difficulty with logistical issues such as the time a course is taught, parking on campus, navigating learning management systems (i.e., Canvas), and a designated location to keep teaching material and equipment.

In addition, part time faculty are hired to teach and often receive little to no interaction with department faculty or staff (hence the "disconnect"). Preliminary discussions indicated NTTF work in a silo, developing course material based on previous syllabi and modifying the course to fit individual expertise, without taking into consideration student learning objectives developed for the program. This has resulted in "curriculum creep" in which the original intent of the course is no longer recognized in the learning objectives, as well as full time faculty teaching entirely different material for the same course.

To comprehend the impact of these type issues, this exploration examined the current environment within the department, along with scrutinizing variables such as job satisfaction, resource availability, and department interaction that may affect student learning outcomes. For this study, NTTF refers only to those faculty teaching one to two courses per semester on a part time basis. Any reference to tenure track faculty (TTF) includes both tenure track faculty and the clinical faculty member since clinical faculty can achieve rank and promotion based on years of service and accomplishments.

Assessment methods

The initial survey was administered in spring 2019 with follow up one-on-one interviews taking place in May 2019. The written survey asked all faculty (TTF and NTTF) to provide pertinent demographic information, expertise area, years of experience, reason for teaching, and other questions. The results were used to assess factors such as (but not limited to): time for teaching (e.g., is the individual working full time and teaching part time?), teaching experience, subject matter expertise, and geographic proximity to students. Further, individual interviews were held with seven faculty, at which time faculty were asked questions regarding job satisfaction, suggestions for improvement, assessment methods, and current teaching practices. This project took place over the 2019 calendar year and received Institutional Review Board approval.

Data analysis

Interviews were analyzed using NVivo, a qualitative software management program developed by QSR International. NVivo allows for importation, management, coding, and analysis of unstructured data. Coding can occur following a grounded theory method in which various researchers separately

code and extract key themes from transcribed data. Coding discrepancies are resolved through discussion and validated through NVivo's inter-rater reliability function.

Results

Of the potential 28 faculty in the target population, 21 faculty accessed or opened the survey; 12 completed the survey, nine faculty exited without completing the survey. The 12 respondents included nine part time faculty (i.e., teaching 1-2 courses per semester) and three full time faculty. The part time faculty group was represented by one staff member, two doctoral students, and six adjunct faculty members. Demographically, the group included 10 females and two males with a predominantly white population (9) with two Black or African American respondents and one Asian/Pacific Islander, with a mean age of 44 (28-67 years range). Overall, faculty members possessed five doctoral degrees and seven masters' degrees in disciplines such as health sciences, kinesiology, nursing, and gerontology. Respondents had taught in higher education anywhere from 2 to 30 years, with five of the respondents teaching 15 or more years and three of the respondents teaching less than three years.

When examining the reasons faculty wanted to teach, the answers were varied, although the overall consensus was that faculty wanted students to "grow and have a passion for knowledge" or "conveying meaningful information to students with regards to their lives." Interestingly, the majority of the respondents used the word "love" in describing their feelings toward teaching. This was iterated in comments such as, "I love working with students, to share and to learn," "I love helping the next generation reach their potential," "I LOVE IT! I enjoy sharing information and experiences that can directly impact quality of life," and "I love the interaction with students and sharing my experience with others." On a different note, one faculty member stated, "My ultimate goals for teaching is to help society, to build up a better society and since I have the skills, education, and opportunity I think teaching will help me to reach that goal."

A portion of the administered survey addressed the impact various factors have on faculty members' performance (Table 1). Respondents were asked to use the scale of 1-100 with 1 being "highly negative" and 100 being "highly positive" to rate how each of these factors impacted their ability to perform their job.

Table 1: Factors affecting faculty performance.

Factor	N	Mean	SD	Min	Max
Departmental faculty collegiality	12	80.8	14.5	50	100
Departmental administrative support	12	83.4	17.2	50	100
Work/life integration	11	71.8	24.2	30	97
Mentorship	11	70.3	22.8	40	100
Interactions with students	11	80.0	22.1	40	100
Available resources	12	79.6	18.7	30	100

Faculty were further asked to rate how valued they felt as a faculty member in the department using a scale of "1" (not valued) to "100" (highly valued). Twelve faculty responded, with a mean of 78.8 (SD 16.4, 50-100 range). Faculty were also asked to consider how they perceived their current workload impacting student learning outcomes. Respondents were provided a Likert scale with the choices of "No influence," "Little influence," "Neutral," "Somewhat influential," and "Highly influential." Of the 12 respondents, one chose "Little influence;" two stating "Neutral;" six felt workload was "Somewhat influential," and two felt workload was "Highly influential" in impacting student learning outcomes.

Using the same Likert scale of "No influence" to "Highly influential," respondents were asked how departmental policies and practices impacted their performance and ability to create a positive learning environment for students. Again, all 12 respondents answered, with one choosing "No influence;" two stating "Neutral;" four responding "Somewhat influential," while five faculty chose "Highly influential" for policies and practices impacting student learning outcomes.

A review of two General Education courses offered in the department showed little variance between NTTF and TTF outcomes, with the average final grades between 79.5% and 89.7% (see table xx). Both of these courses are prerequisites for the department degree, as well as serving as a General Education elective option within the university.

Table 2: Comparison of student outcomes by faculty status.

Course	Term	Year	Faculty status	Final Score Mean	Max score	Min score	Std. Dev	N
#1	Fall	2018	NTTF	89.5	100	67.58	7.56	46
#1	Fall	2018	NTTF	80.9	92.9	34.37	13.01	25
#1	Fall	2018	TTF	84.5	94.6	14.5	11.91	44
#1	Fall	2017	TTF	82.5	97.6	35.16	13.38	48
#1	Fall	2017	NTTF	89.7	100.6	52.57	9.62	29
#2	Fall	2018	NTTF	80.2	95.0	0	17.81	46
#2	Fall	2018	TTF	79.5	101.3	0	18.47	48

At the end of the online survey, faculty were asked if they would like to participate in a one-on-one interview to further explore factors leading to student learning outcomes. Of the 12 participants, seven agreed to an interview. Sessions were set up in a private room with both investigators present. Sessions were audio taped to ensure accuracy in responses; no personal or demographic information was obtained from respondents. Instead, participants were asked a series of questions on satisfaction, resources, teaching ability, and interaction. The goal was to explore factors contributing to, or hindering, the faculty member's impact on student learning.

When asked about their current satisfaction with teaching in the department, the majority of those interviewed reported positive satisfaction with the department and university citing such attributes as autonomy, staff support, and faculty meetings as contributing to overall satisfaction. However, when asked about factors hindering or reducing teaching satisfaction, faculty mentioned several items focused on curriculum and interaction with other faculty as reasons for dissatisfaction.

For example, faculty mentioned that they often did not understand how their particular course fit into the overall degree program or what the goal of the course was in relation to the degree. This lack of discussion as to the course purpose, development, or structure was felt to impede progress. "I am guessing about how to teach," mentioned one participant.

In addition, faculty felt they could not reach out to other faculty to discuss course content. Many of the participants lamented that they "did not know what other instructors are doing," or asked the question, "What are other faculty teaching in similar courses?" This was a similar theme by other faculty, who asked the question, "What is being taught in a previous course?" Faculty were concerned that students often came to a class unprepared or unskilled in fundamental skills, which the faculty member expected them to have learned in an earlier course. Faculty then spent time teaching or reviewing prerequisite skills needed for the current course.

This time spent on reviewing resulted in frustration for faculty, who wanted to know "what other faculty are teaching so I can build on this." This was evident in previous answers, when faculty were asked questions about onboarding. One faculty member stated, "There was no guidance or input when starting. I was given a syllabus, which I revised to fit my teaching style."

This connection to other faculty was mentioned again when asked about resources. Faculty mentioned they would like to have an opportunity to talk with other faculty, although one participant commented that the "separate faculty meetings for NTTF and TTF creates a disconnect between faculty members; NTTF perceive themselves to be of "lesser" value."

When asked about other resources, the majority of faculty stated they felt they had adequate resources to perform their job, although many mentioned the physical proximity as being a deterrent, especially for those faculty living in another state. In addition, faculty mentioned interest in webinars or other teaching sessions, in which they could watch tutorials or attend technology sessions to learn new teaching methods. Specifically, several faculty asked for a list of campus resources for students that provided them with information without having to search the university website. Since many of the NTTF are not on campus, they are unfamiliar with the location and availability of many campus resources. For TTF, two mentioned the requirements for research output and the strain this imposed on learning new technology methods.

When discussing "teaching ability" with participants, questions focused on how departmental practices affected faculty ability to create a positive learning environment along with suggested changes from the department to support their efforts. A couple of participants mentioned students in response to this question, stating aspects such as how to respond when several students were not submitting assignments, quit showing up to class, or not responding to emails. "There has to be a culture somewhere that they're either afraid to talk to professors about things going on or people just don't care if they submit things or not" remarked one faculty. Other faculty focused on department requirements as impeding teaching ability, mentioning ongoing assessment requirements and policies as "time-consuming" and "focusing on tasks other than teaching." One participant stated that policies, practices, and expectations should be clearly outlined in a faculty contract prior to beginning work as a NTTF member.

When asked about other department policies related to interactions that may affect teaching ability, the majority of participants responded they were highly satisfied and felt an "open, supportive, and positive environment" existed. Others disagreed, stating they did not feel "connected in any way" to others in the department. Still others mentioned the physical separation of the small department in relation to other departments within the school as creating isolation and further disconnect.

Faculty suggested incorporating an "in-service" in the curriculum or within faculty meetings to allow faculty to work together, learn new skills, and develop course materials. NTTF also asked for stronger advocacy in school faculty meetings for NTTF inclusion.

Finally, participants were asked how valued they felt as a faculty member in the department. Although one faculty member did not feel valued, the majority of those participating in the one-on-one interview (as well as their response to the same question on the survey) indicated a high level of satisfaction with the department. Although faculty expressed the need for change and more interaction, they felt the past year had produced changes that were on track to include faculty and address many of the concerns expressed.

Discussion

Developing a project examining faculty perceptions is challenging, especially when couched in the premise of eventual student outcomes. While it was stressed to potential participants that the focus was on external factors related to teaching that may influence or hinder student learning, casual

conversations with colleagues indicated individuals were leery of questions measuring individual impact. This may have contributed to the low response rate, although time to complete a survey and participate in discussion may have also contributed.

Regardless, the exploration served to provide insight as to current department policies and concerns. Given that the curriculum is key to student learning outcomes, the dissatisfaction expressed about the curriculum and faculty interaction is pivotal. A review of course objectives conducted fall 2018 indicated varying learning objectives in sections of identical courses resulting in the same course being taught differently between NTTF and TTF. This "curriculum creep" resulted in different sections of identical courses being taught with opposing or contrasting learning outcomes, therefore dimensioning overall degree expectations.

Results from the analysis asking faculty to rate whether specific factors were negative or positive (Table 1) showed that faculty rated administrative support as the most positive (mean 83.4) while the lowest rating occurred with "mentorship" (mean 70.3). Since it is administrative support that engages regularly with NTTF on matters such as pay, schedules, and contracts, it is not surprising this was rated toward the higher end of "positive." Mentorship, on the other hand, which often occurs between faculty, scored the lowest, which can be indicative of the separation of TTF and NTTF who do not physically work within the department. It may also speak to the lack of interaction between faculty on developing and teaching similar courses. At the same time, "work/life integration" also scored lower, which could reflect the overall work load both TTF and NTTF experience in an academic setting.

While the overall scores on the various factors were positively rated (i.e., >70 on a 1-100 scale), there was also a lack of average high scores in terms of positive factors. When viewing the data separately for TTF and NTTF, four NTTF rated various factors between a 30 and 50 versus TTF, with only one respondent rating a factor between 30 and 50. On the other hand, five of the nine NTTF rated at least one factor as highly positive at 100, while none of the TTF rated any factors that high.

Interestingly, the snapshot of outcomes for general education courses were similar, although to analyze reasons would be speculation based on work/life responsibilities. Rather, the question became, are there differences in the content and expectations for the courses that are significantly different? As can be seen in Table 2, the outcomes for two general education courses were very similar. For the first general education course, the sections were taught by one TTF and two NTTF, with little discourse between the instructors on course content. For the second general education course, both were taught by NTTF and TTF who worked closely to ensure similar content and obtained similar outcomes. Overall, student final grades were within the same range, indicating little variability between teaching outcomes of NTTF and TTF.

Unfortunately, the small number of faculty participating in this exploration made it difficult to compare the two faculty groups. Yet, the feedback was indicative of the "disconnect" hypothesized in this exploration. Faculty themselves spoke to the need for more interaction and discussion to ensure student success. It was also speculated that TTF would rate factors more positively than NTTF, although it was NTTF who rated many factors "highly positive." This needs continued exploration as NTTF are often the subject of attempts to improve practices.

Solutions to problem

The results of this analysis served as an impetus to strengthen and improve faculty resources and interactions within the department. The intent was not only to indirectly improve student success, but to ensure all faculty members understood and felt valued for their contributions to the department

mission. Steps taken to make these changes included the following, which were led by the department Undergraduate Program Director and Program Coordinator in conjunction with faculty input.

Focus on curriculum and course development

- Identifying a "primary faculty member" for each course, with a list of instructors teaching additional sections. Primary faculty members (whether TTF or NTTF) are responsible for major course concepts and directions, making sure to adhere to program objectives and degree outcomes. Other faculty members teaching the course collaborate with the primary member via email and teleconferencing calls to ensure consistency and course adherence to the curriculum. Instructors are encouraged, and welcome, to suggest changes and modifications but understand the core requirements of the course are subject to degree specifications.
- Revising Program Learning Objectives (PLOs) with input from NTTF and TTF
  - Once updated, requiring faculty to include and link PLOs on syllabi to specific assignments.
- Creating a five-year assessment grid with targeted courses for data collection to allow faculty insight as to when specific courses are assessed.

Focus on improving interaction

- Monthly meetings with NTTF, both in-person and via Zoom teleconferencing. Since several adjuncts work in different states, offering a digital meeting form was imperative. Meetings were recorded for those unable to attend.
- Monthly NTTF meetings included:
  - Overview of available resources for faculty
  - Teaching strategies and instruction on available technology in online courses
  - Information from student advisors on deadlines, student issues, and resources
  - Opportunity to ask questions and discuss student or course issues
- Offering one-on-one Zoom or in-person meetings for those who wanted to learn a new strategy, review assessment requirements, or discuss issues
- Offering all faculty the opportunity for a peer evaluation, either within a face-to-face course or online
- Inviting NTTF to student events, faculty panels, and faculty/student luncheons

Focus on policies and procedures

- Developing a concise contract for NTTF that includes specific responsibilities and expectations for part time work
- Creating forms for specific student issues (e.g., incompletes) with specific steps and actions to follow

Efforts are still underway, but the steps mentioned above have proved helpful and are beginning to open dialogue and conversations. Initial feedback from faculty is positive, with a noticeable increase in faculty attendance at monthly meetings and student events. Curriculum efforts have eliminated prior discrepancies in different sections of identical courses and faculty are working in teams to revise and develop content each semester. A shared Box folder provides critical resources

to help faculty work with students and respond to student issues. Yearly academic contracts are provided to NTTF based on willingness to teach and expected enrollments for the academic year; contracts specifically outline roles and responsibilities in terms of curriculum development, assessment reports, and monthly meetings.

The next step is to conduct a similar exploration in another academic year to determine if perceptions of individual value and worth changed. Further work on student learning outcomes across different sections of identical courses would serve as a mechanism to examine faculty impact on learning outcomes. Similar work, such as that conducted by Figlio, Schapiro, and Soter (2015) could explore the impact of NTTF faculty on student desire to take another course in the same subject or continue in the degree program. Figlio et al. (2015) found students were more apt to take additional courses, with better outcomes, when the instructor was a NTTF.

Conclusion

To increase student retention and graduation rates, and effectively prepare students for graduate professional program acceptance, faculty must be unified in department efforts. This requires all faculty to work collaboratively, provide pertinent input, understand the goals of the department, and acknowledge the needs of students to ensure optimal student outcomes.

While this exploration was small in stature, it provided tremendous insight into how to structure and revise department policies to embrace the contributions of all faculty, taking into consideration the unique needs of differing roles. Although there is considerable work to be accomplished, this project has resulted in positive changes that continue to be tweaked and revised. The overall goal is to continue working on strategies to reduce any continued "disconnect" between faculty members and improve faculty perception on the worth of their contributions.

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Pygmalion in the 'hood: Reflecting on Enhancing Job Interview Performance at an Urban Community College

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Abstract: Self-presenting effectively at job interviews presents significant challenges for students at urban community colleges, especially those identified as low-income Black and Latinx. Current practices provide minimal support, if any, for enhancing the self-presentation of these students at job interviews. Too often, instead, students simply do not perform well, fail to achieve their job objectives, and remain marginalized by society. This article describes the experiences of urban community college students involved in an innovative effort to enhance their performance in job interviews. This innovative approach features identity work and highlights the value of role play and improvisation in a range of dramatic activities. It utilizes insights gained from research into Freirian conscientization, critical pedagogy, and critical race theories as well as participatory action research (PAR) methodology. This study highlights the eloquent voices and dramatic concerns of the students involved in two vignettes, "Acting White" and "Acting Phony," expressing the plight of these students. Providing insights for teachers, the article reviews identity work to facilitate successful self-presentation conducted by a wide range of educators dealing with similar challenges involving racial and ethnic minorities. Concluding observations are presented and future debate and research is encouraged.

Keywords: critical pedagogy, critical race theory, self-presentation, job interviews, urban, identity, race, reflection

"I feel threatened sometimes because job interviewers expect me to be one way and I know I'm not that way, but I don't even really know what way they want me to be."

-Tristan, urban community college student

Tristan's dread and uncertainty about the expectations of potential employers are, unfortunately, not unique for many urban community college students, particularly Black and Latinx students, participating in interviews for semi-professional jobs. Failing to decipher just what job interviewers want in a candidate is an obstacle students of color often face as they run a gauntlet of prejudice and discrimination in the job market and are systematically denied access to social mobility and, as such, denied social justice.

As a Latinx teacher at an urban community college, I have become particularly sensitive to this problem. When I have had students participate in mock job interviews in my classes, a troubling number of them showed weak aural, oral, and verbal skills, displayed high levels of anxiety, and lacked self-confidence and self-esteem. Many students could not provide adequate answers to basic interview questions and displayed inappropriate gestures and other nonverbal signals that significantly detracted from the efficacy of their presentations. Little sense of their present selves— and even less of their possible selves—emerged and they demonstrated scarce evidence of self-reflection or reflexivity. As Joel, another urban community college student, explained after his first mock job-interview: "I know it seemed like I didn't know myself. I just didn't know how to answer those questions the right way . . . . I don't know myself that way, I never have. I just wanted to be done!" Hearing this response, I recalled the comments of my mentor, Dorothy Heathcote: "Before

we can relate to people successfully, we must first come to terms with ourselves. To keep my teaching in trim, I must first be able to look straight at myself and take my own measure" (1984, p. 22). In their characterizations, the anxieties expressed by my students seem to have come not only from their own inner struggle to calibrate a selfhood to the expectations of the professional world, but also from a sense that the "otherness" they displayed linguistically and visibly possibly stirred up prejudices on the part of mainstream job interviewers.

But these anecdotal reflections on the formidable challenges of the job market exemplify a much larger problem. These reflections on the woes of navigating racial identity and feeling the need to perform a racial role are part of a social complex of race, and social, cultural, economic, and linguistic capital. My students' deficits, particularly their low levels of linguistic capital and language acquisition, mean they are operating at a disadvantage. These deficiencies may also have a negative impact on the quality of their self-presentation (Roberts & Campbell, 2005–2006). Many students hold part or fulltime jobs, some are single parents, and several are non-English dominant. For many, poor quality K–12 educational experiences have ill-equipped them for later academic challenges, much less for the fierce competitions of the 21st-century job market. In addition, outside of school, few have role models to emulate in corporate America (Deil-Amen, 2006; Zeidenberg, Jenkins, & Calcagno, 2007).

Current practices in many community colleges, particularly those in disadvantaged urban environments, indicate little awareness of the need to prepare students with professionally relevant social skills, such as self-presentation. Many community college administrators and teachers view teaching social skills as outside the college's pedagogical mission and consider social skills "an innate personality attribute, rather than learned" (Deil-Amen, 2006, pp. 406–407).

Too frequently, practices of community college administrators, faculty, and staff focus on "blaming the victim", the students in this case, for their weak self-presentation in situations such as job interviews (Deil-Amen, 2006; Deil-Amen & Rosenbaum, 2003). As such, "inequality becomes legitimated," and the disadvantaged fall further behind (Karp, O'Gara, & Hughes, 2008), reinforcing existing biases. This cycle raises the question of whether open access to under-resourced and lower-status institutions, like community colleges, truly represents genuine opportunity for all students (Sólorzano, Villalpando, & Oseguera, 2005).

The neoliberalism that now pervades the political and social order is increasingly making its mark on policies and positions in education. As Giroux (2014) has explained, the gospel of neoliberalism preaches acceptance of the primacy of the corporate state, including deregulation, privatization, disinterest in social needs, and a lack of concern about the growth of inequalities in power and wealth. In the educational realm, neoliberalism promotes the stifling of critical thinking so as to produce passive learners who blindly yield to antidemocratic ideology.

Because current practices were failing to solve, or even address, the challenges my students faced, I decided to develop a pedagogy that could enhance the job interview competencies of students in my speech and diction courses. I sought advice from Pedro Noguera (2003), a leading authority on learning strategies for racial and ethnic minority students. Noguera drew my attention to George Bernard Shaw's play *Pygmalion* (1912/1999), later transformed into the musical *My Fair Lady* (1956, 1964). On a wager, Professor Higgins, an innovative phonetics scholar, convinces a Cockney flower girl, Eliza Doolittle, to participate in an experiment whereby Higgins would transform Eliza into a lady accepted by the upper classes. Higgins believes that changing Eliza's speech and demeanor will prove the power of phonetics and bearing in shaping people's impressions. After assiduously coaching Eliza in behavior, dress, and speech, Higgins successfully presents Eliza as a mysterious noblewoman at an aristocratic ball, proving the efficacy of the transformation and the power of education in fostering social equality (Holroyd, 1989). For Noguera, the struggles Eliza had to undergo to become "accepted" highlight the difficulties

disadvantaged students have to face to succeed. Noguera also reminded me of the problematizing reality of race, he added, "Remember how hard it was for Eliza Doolittle in *My Fair Lady* to get out of her neighborhood and succeed. All the work she had to do, the abuse she received. And she was White!"

Noguera's words called to mind Rosenthal and Jacobson's book *Pygmalion in the Classroom* and what has been dubbed the "Pygmalion Effect" (Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1992). The "Pygmalion Effect" describes the phenomenon produced where expectations, such as those held by Professor Higgins, affect performances, such as those carried out by Eliza. Despite the difficulties and obstacles my students might face achieving their goals, I took a leap of faith as an educator. My decision was supported by the experiment described in "Pygmalion in the Classroom", where the teacher's belief in students' abilities helped them achieve success. I embraced Higgins' unflagging faith in the potential of his student, Eliza, to transform herself, while keeping in mind Noguera's warning that issues of race and ethnicity could complicate my efforts.

I first examined the literature on job interviews, focusing on the semi-professional job interviewers expected of candidates. I then turned to Freire's (1970) work on conscientization and its influence on the development of critical pedagogy, with its emphasis on social justice for disenfranchised and marginalized people. Then I turned to those whom Freire had influenced: scholars of critical pedagogy, including Boal (1979), Giroux (1983), Grady (2003), McLaren (1994), and Kincheloe (2004). Adding further to my own course of learning, I studied the critiques and adaptations of critical pedagogy, including the work of critical race theorists, feminist critical pedagogues, and Foucauldian poststructuralists.

Moving from theory to practice, I scrutinized identity work involving dramatic activities to enhance students' performance at job interviews. Defined as "people's engagement in forming, repairing, maintaining, and strengthening or revising their identities" (Ibarra & Petriglieri, 2010, p. 10), identity work portrays how acting and looking the part enables effective display of the desired identity. According to Watson (2008), "Theoretically, we might say, everyone engages in identity work" (p. 130).

Too infrequently are the voices of students heard on their experiences in such interventions. My study gives prominence to the voices of the students in describing their identity work involving Boalian-inspired dramatic activities, including role play and improvisation, supported by video, specifically aimed at enhancing self-presentation skills at job interviews. Their identity work was followed by reflections capturing the eloquence of student voices in two vignettes: "Acting Phony" and "Acting White."

Theoretical Framework

Critical Pedagogy

Considered the forefather of critical pedagogy, Freire offered a pedagogy to help liberate oppressed populations in *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* (1970). In this work, Freire called for *conscientization*, interpreted as social consciousness, challenging students as well as teachers and other educators to view learning as a dialogical process fostering reflection and critical awareness of the social reality, and encouraging learning as a tool to foster reflection and liberation.

Boal (1979) paid homage to Freire by entitling his work *Theatre of the Oppressed*, a work that probes the embodiment of conscientization, the social consciousness, that Freire had expounded. Boal used theatre as a tool for cultivating empathy and reflection and as a weapon for liberation and transforming society. Boal highlighted the need "to theatricalize and problematize everyday realities through embodied action", seeking to move audiences from passive onlookers to "spect-actors,"

thereby becoming active agents of social change. Boalian techniques include role play and improvisation, supported by games, interactive exercises, and reflection on the meaning and tensions inherent in participation in local and global citizenship (Boal, 1992; Medina, Weltsek-Medina, & Twomey, 2007). Joining Boal in the development of critical pedagogy, Giroux (2003), McLaren (1994), and Kincheloe (2004) offer a range of perspectives also including embodiment and performance.

For Giroux (1983), the mission of critical pedagogy includes making society more democratic by encouraging empowerment, facilitating thinking, and generating critical action. Giroux forged critical pedagogy into a theory of critical resistance (Giroux, 1983; Giroux & McLaren, 1989; Gottesman, 2016; Grady, 2003). Through resistance by teachers and students Giroux argues, the oppressed contribute to deconstructing social inequality, giving educators a leading role in challenging inequities in schools and in society, and promoting liberation of the oppressed.

Giroux was joined in this mission by McLaren (1994), Grady (2003), and Kincheloe (2004), who played leading roles in bringing embodiment and performance into the nascent critical pedagogy movement. For Pennycook (2004), "The body has re-emerged not as a static signifier of identity but as a surface onto which identities are inscribed where our subjectivities are generated and embodied" (p. 163). Pennycook's re-emerged body inverts the dissonance of my student's experience, in which job interviewers, in his words, "expect me to be one way and I know I'm not that way." In the spirit of Pennycook (2004), I sought to have teaching, meaning-making, and sense-making come to the forefront, combining "acute physical awareness of one's kinetic and kinesthetic senses with candid and thoughtful consideration of the implications of those bodily sensations" (p.163). In this way, student awareness of the way they are comes from authentic, embodied experience.

Critiques of critical pedagogy. In the article, "Why Doesn't This Feel Empowering? Working Through the Repressive Myths of Critical Pedagogy," Ellsworth (1989) attacked the tenets of critical pedagogy, as represented by Freire and Giroux. Ellsworth's poststructuralist feminist orientation questions the narratives set forth by many of the critical pedagogues who call for empowerment and dialogue, asking, "Empowerment for what"? The critique Ellsworth launched in developing feminist critical pedagogy alleges some versions of critical pedagogy are unrealistic and might, in fact, be increasing prevailing racial and class tensions.

In an effort to redress critical pedagogy's alleged neglect of the deleterious effects of racism and racial oppression on the disenfranchised and marginalized, some critical pedagogues developed critical race theory and critical race pedagogy (Ladson-Billings, & Tate, 1995; Lynn, & Parker, 2006; Solorzano & Yosso, 2001, 2002). To highlight the relevance of critical race theory, Picower (2009) argued for the need to consider critical race theory as a methodology, a pedagogy calling for the integration of forms of critical education across the curriculum. Lac (2017) and Wong, Eng, and Von Esch (2018) expanded this argument by calling for a "critical race pedagogy," merging critical pedagogy with critical race theory.

Countering the conception of racism as a by-product of capitalist oppression, critical race theorists analyze the primacy of race, gender, and sexuality through a lens of domination. Accordingly, promoting "Whiteness" can be a weapon of domination aiming at maintaining power and "White supremacy" (Picower, 2009). Such deficit theories perpetuate "White supremacy" by characterizing the "other" as unable to excel. From an initial focus on African Americans, "otherness" has expanded to include a range of disadvantaged and marginalized groups, including Latinx and LGBT and, more recently, immigrants of color and Muslims.

Fanon (1963, 1967) warned of the pernicious effects of racism on the mental health of those labeled as "other." In *Black Skins, White Masks* (1967), Fanon engages a psychoanalytical lens to explicate the drama between the "Self" and the unidentifiable and inassimilable "Other Self" envisaged by supporters of colonialism. McGee and Stovall (2015) map the relevance of Fanon's insights onto experiences of cultural alienation and trauma by students of color: "Because these students are victims of stereotyping, racism, traumatic practices, and discriminatory policies and ideologies, their mental health needs should be of the utmost importance" (p. 508).

Judith Butler (1988; 1990) adds a poststructuralist interpretation to critical race theory, positing performativity as a leading element in her praxis. Butler builds on the theatrical concept of performance, envisaging performativity as the body in constant motion rejecting the concept of a permanent, core identity. Through this constant citation of norms, a body is qualified "for life within the domain of cultural intelligibility" (Butler 1993, p. 2). Butler envisions race as, "always a reiteration of a norm or set of norms" (1993, p. xxi), as an ongoing performance and process, produced, performed and embodied, rather than fixed. Created and performed through constant iterations, the body in constant motion, this performativity of race realizes social change and allows new identities to materialize and perform their selves. For Butler, such performativity can effect social change, and allow new identities to materialize, perform, and articulate themselves (Threadgold, 2003, p. 20).

Identity Work

Lessons from Fellow Educators

I culled further insights from a collection of educators adapting identity theory to their work with minorities. For example, Carbado and Gulati (2007, 2013) have argued that African Americans adopt a "working identity," constituted by "a range of racially associated ways of being, including how one dresses, speaks, styles one's hair; one's professional and social affiliations; who one marries or dates; one's politics and views about race; where one lives; and so on and so forth" (2013, p. 1). This reassured me the desire to assist my students to attain success in their job interviews was well grounded.

For Carter (2003, 2006), an educator specializing in African American youth, "cultural straddling" between academic and peer groups, and developing "know-how," the ability to "walk the walk" and "talk the talk" of the dominant cultural capital world, facilitate success while maintaining one's self-identity. Carter highlighted a point that often goes ignored in discussions of the pressure to adapt to White bourgeois mainstream society: low-income African American students have cultural and social capital of their own to preserve their self-identity.

For Boyd (2008), pressure to play to dual identities derives from what W. E. B. DuBois (1989) notably referred to as the "Double-consciousness" of African Americans experience: "The sense of always looking at one's self through the eyes of others, of measuring one's soul by the tape of a world that looks on in amused contempt and pity" (1989 p. 2). Double consciousness pressures people of color to engage in "code-switching," moving back and forth between separate identities to adapt to cultural expectations, pressures, and demands. In the DuBoisian tradition of "twoness," research on disadvantaged Aboriginal youth in Australia led Exley (2005) to formulate the notion of "Double Power": "the power to operate in and negotiate between multiple cultures" (p. 2). Double Power works on maintaining respect for the non-dominant norms of the Aboriginal people while enabling them "to effectively operate in Western technological, financial, bureaucratic, legal and political systems" (ibid.). Thinking about DuBois' "Double-consciousness" along with Exley's

"Double Power", confirmed for me the importance of working with my students on the identities they had the power to choose or not choose to adopt.

For Urrieta (2005), a researcher in Latinx studies, "playing the game" refers to the performance of power and agency, an exercise that serves as a form of "infiltrating" and changing the system while avoiding inculcation into its belief systems (pp. 176-178). Urrieta also warned of the need to be cautious in navigating the "tipping point" between "playing the game" and "selling out." "Playing the game" means learning to switch roles, languages, and scripts as appropriate, a strategy that has been described as "productive and proactive rather than defensive and reactive"; in essence, a performance that enhances the agency of those involved (Alexander, Anderson, & Gallegos, 2005, p. 8).

To make this study work in the classroom context, and taking into consideration the limitations of time and space, I chose to feature identity work that featured role play and improvisation based on Boalian praxis and critical pedagogy, and supplemented by insights from critical race theorists. The setting for this identity work was a speech and diction course at an urban community college, designated as a "Hispanic serving institution," with a predominantly Latinx and African American student population. Participants included 20 self-identified African, African American, Black, Latinx, and White students. Special focus was placed on the experiences of six students, ages 18 to 25. All names used are pseudonyms. Participatory action research (PAR), a subset of action research, was especially appropriate for this study for its emphasis on the collaboration of people affected by an issue gathering information leading to social change (Kindon, Pain, & Kesby, 2007; MacDonald, 2012).

Listening to the Voices of the Students

Testing the waters. The identity work began by having all of the students in the class participate in one-on-one, 5-minute videoed mock job interviews in which I acted as interviewer and each student as the interviewee, thus establishing benchmarks. Findings from this initial activity proved invaluable in helping students and teacher alike to understand the quality of their self-presentation and gain feedback about which areas needed work. Based on the results of these presentations, I sought to address concerns that had surfaced by devising dramatic activities largely inspired by Boal (1979; 1992). These activities sought to enhance self-esteem and self-efficacy, impart positive images of present and possible selves, encourage visualization, reduce anxiety and fear of embarrassment, develop critical thinking capability through reflection and reflexivity, and strengthen empathic skills.

Initial activities included practice presenting an appropriate and professional appearance at job interviews and developing pride in a neat appearance. Lively discussions followed, with students using chalkboards to depict desirable presentations. Many had little understanding of what was appropriate to wear or where to buy it. Subsequent activities engendered growing awareness of the students' present selves and of the steps needed to develop possible selves to meet the demands of job interviewers. These efforts included building awareness of, and fluency in, appropriate verbal and nonverbal signs and gaining an understanding of the impact of aural, visual, and kinetic/movement modes in order to "read" the interviewer. Activities included "Reading Signs" to enhance student self-awareness of messages they were sending aurally, orally and visually, and to develop their ability to interpret messages being sent by the interviewer. As Whitney, one of my community college students described the exercise, "This helped me to see that non-verbal communication is very important because it sends both intentional and non-intentional messages."

Fostering reflexivity and self-monitoring. I encouraged students to reflect upon their previous ways of thinking, to develop compensatory strategies to overcome some of the deficiencies they found, and to expand self-monitoring practices to ensure present and future success. Both Heathcote and

her fellow dramatic practitioner, Gavin Bolton, pointed to the importance of "the watcher in the head — the self-spectator" as a critical element of reflection in drama (Bolton, 1998, p. 266). Like W. E. B. Du Bois' "double consciousness", "this sense of always looking at one's self through the eyes of others" (1989, p. 7), further enhances the need for and the power of reflection.

Fostering quick thinking under pressure. Especially useful was "Interviewee-in-the-Middle," where students were forced to answer questions rapidly thrown at them in a pressured setting. One student, the "Interviewee-in-the-Middle," stood in the center of a circle while the other students, the "interviewers," took turns firing interview questions at them. This activity proved uncomfortable to some students, and they expressed their anxiety and embarrassment non-verbally and verbally during the activity; however, upon reflection, the students expressed unanimous appreciation for the practice and saw the importance of being sharply challenged. As Tristan reflected: "You basically have to be prepared no matter how many curve balls the interviewer throws at you. With positive answers and preparation you can always be ahead of the game."

Reducing anxiety. During their mock job interviews and other role-playing activities, many students displayed anxiety and embarrassment. Some students who had already attended job interviews admitted that apprehension had adversely affected the quality of their self-presentations. Among the many factors compounding their discomfort were self-handicapping and defensive pessimism, poor social skills, fear of failure, deficiencies in self-esteem, the pressure of striving to impress others, and nervousness about the power and status of the interviewers. "When people feel socially anxious, they manifest a variety of nervous responses. They often fidget, self-manipulate (e.g., play with their hair and touch their clothing), perspire, squirm, stutter as they speak, and generally appear nervous and jittery" (Schlenker & Leary, 1982, p. 654). Linked to anxiety is the fear of embarrassment (Goffman, 1956, 1959). For Goffman, the pressure to juggle multiple selves, a feat one might attempt during a job interview in order to project a professional self different from the self a person presented in everyday life, may provoke embarrassment. Improvisational activities encouraged students to think quickly on their feet, acclimatizing them to the tempo of an interview, mitigating their fear of interviews, lessening their anxieties, and increasing the self-confidence necessary for effective self-presentation.

By extension, when students took on the role of interviewers, they were able to see the process from a different perspective. They found themselves able to empathize with interviewers and realize that they are simply people trying to carry out their jobs and not antagonists or villains. As Maria, one of my students summarized, " I have greater knowledge of the problems interviewers are faced with. Understanding an interviewee is the greatest challenge an interviewer is faced with."

Debriefing. At the final debriefing, the students agreed that the activities had enhanced their self-presentation, enabling them to be more confident and better prepared for future job interviews. Data collected from one-on-one interviews, my teacher logbook and student journal entries, the digital audio recordings of in-class post-activity reflection sessions, and comparison of videotapes of students' first and last mock interviews, indicated growth of self-presentational performances on the part of students involved in this intervention. Moreover, every student participant mentioned in their final journal entries that they had improved their self-presentation compared to their initial mock interviews—and they believed that the improvement would positively impact future job interview performances. According to Autumn, an urban community college student:

> Number one, I know I will feel less shy and nervous about it (a job interview) because I know I've been trained . . . Two being that since I know what to expect in the interview, I can see that it's going like how I expected it to be and so I'm strategizing to stay a step ahead of the interviewer.

Likewise, Joel, also an urban community college student, recorded:

> The interview is like a game of chess, because in their mind the game is finding the right candidate, and in your mind the game is making them believe that you are the best candidate. Things like attire and self-presentation are pawn moves, while answers to tell me about yourself and why should I hire you are those big moves that help get you checkmate.

Reflections on the Identity Work

Although the students reported that they believed the dramatic activities had significantly improved their self-presentation at job interviews, two students indicated their changed behavior made them feel like they were "acting phony." Also, an incident with a colleague made me feel that promoting these identities for the students to meet the expectations of interviewers could be considered encouraging them to "act White." The following two vignettes comment on these concerns.

Voicing concerns over "acting phony." Two students indicated that learning to present themselves in a professional manner, putting forward their "best self," made them feel a bit phony; however, they also expressed a belief that being phony was necessary. One of the two students noted, "Feeling 'phony' doesn't matter to me as long as I land the job. Every one puts on an act to land the job they want. I am fine with being phony as long as I get the job." The second student, Whitney, added:

> It just shows that you will do whatever it takes to land that job. It would be stupid if you don't act 'phony' or put on that version of yourself to get the job because it shows you like money and the other person behind you is probably being phony also to land the job. So why not do it yourself?

Autumn angrily responded:

> Just 'cause I don't wear everyday clothing to an interview does not mean that it is not "me." I wore a wedding dress to my wedding and that was "me," right? That wasn't someone else's wedding. But you are different at your wedding just like you're different at your interview.

Tristan noted that some of his neighborhood peers tried to make him feel phony for being "a Black man trying to get a good job." He saw these attacks as impeding him from reaching his potential. Tristan explained:

> I'm not trying to hear that, 'cause anything like that is just to slow me down. . . . I realize that I have heard this kind of thing in movies and such: that some character from the 'hood gets busted-on by his boys for acting 'phony' when he is just trying to better himself. But it's a big problem (He makes a big gesture with his hands out and up, arms spread wide) and it can come from jealousy.

Voicing concerns over "acting White." When I mentioned to a colleague at a conference that I was teaching students at my urban community college "to speak and act properly at their job interviews," my colleague angrily attacked me: "You can't do that! You're teaching your students to act White!" This encounter led me to wonder: is teaching Black and Latinx students how to effectively present themselves at job interviews an inherently racist act? Responsible educators must be cognizant of the kind of unintended racism DiAngelo (2018) described in her book, *White Fragility*. To be wary of this possibility, I decided to check in with my students upon my return from the conference.

At the next class meeting, I wrote the charge this colleague had leveled at me on the chalkboard. In a neutral tone, I described the context and asked the students for their thoughts. Instantly, several hands shot up.

> Joel: Okay, that's just insulting! Why is speaking properly acting White? Why's it gotta be a White thing? (Several students laugh) When Obama speaks properly, no one says he's "acting White," right?
> Tristan: (Looking at the chalk board) That line does sound a bit racist, Professor.
> Joel: (He taps Tristan and puts on a voice) S 'cuz we from da' hood, son!" They wanna be able to recognize us so they can keep us in the 'hood.
> Tristan: No, seriously, what they're implying with that (He points at the statement on the board) bothers me.
> Me: How so?
> Tristan: Why can't they just say, "acting professional"? What your colleague means with that is full out racist.
> Whitney: I don't think your colleague meant it that way. When I answer the phone at work my friends sometimes say things like that, like I "sound White." It's hard sometimes but it's my work voice. I'm not trying to be White.
> Me: (pointing to the board) I think she meant to say that I was being racist.
> Tristan: Oh "she." This was a White girl?
> Me: A White woman. Yes.
> Joel: Ohhhhhh!
> Tristan: You tell this little White woman, professor, okay, next time you see her, tell her that actually she is the one being racist 'cause she's implying that a Black man can't act professionally without acting White.
> Joel: You tell her from us!
> Me: (Laughing) Okay, okay, I'll tell her if I ever see her again. (Maria's hand has been up for a while) Maria?
> Maria: I don't care what you call it, "acting White" — that doesn't bother me. I just want to speak in the way that gets me a good job. Everything you tell us is about being professional. She may not be really-really a racist because, maybe because, no offense, so many people with good jobs are White. Maybe your colleague, this woman, thinks it's easier to understand if you call it "White."
> Tristan: Proper is proper, it doesn't have a race.

Encouraged by this discussion, Whitney stated that some people in "the 'hood" did label acting in a professional manner as acting White:

> I have a cousin who I met just a few years ago who seemed to get offended when I spoke to her using the business and professional dialect. She is a true south Bronx girl, what some people would call "ghetto," she speaks using a lot of slang and has a heavy Bronx accent. When we were first getting to know each other she didn't seem to like me much and called me "White girl." But, as we got to know each other, now, as she's maturing, she actually turns to me to help her learn new words and pronunciations and how to compose herself in front of people.

When some students nodded and stated they had had similar experiences with their own friends and family, Whitney stated:

Some people who grow up in urban neighborhoods and are not exposed to too much of the world outside of their borough may have certain perceptions of people who come from those same neighborhoods but don't speak with that accent or slang. My cousin told me when she first met me she thought I was stuck up. I guess to some people who don't ever speak that way that dialect may come off as arrogant or condescending. I'm not sure. I still don't know.

Concluding observations

As the words of my colleague echoed in my head "You are teaching your students to act White," I realized that some educators believe my students should never need to learn to act "properly", and others question what it even means to act "properly". Some believe corporate America will never treat my students with proper respect no matter how "properly" they act. In Pygmalion, Professor Higgins treats all people with equal disrespect regardless of class, because he believes class to be a sham. His friend Pickering treats all people with equal respect regardless of class, but believes in the innate nature of class. Higgins believes anyone can become a lady. Pickering believes one must be born into the "right" family to be a lady. Educators must treat all students with respect, like Pickering. However, like Higgins, they must believe that students of any race, ethnicity or socio-economic status, have the ability to succeed. Providing students with training and the tools to compliment that training is critical, but so is the expectation that dreams can be realized.

Like Eliza Doolittle in Shaw's *Pygmalion,* the urban community college students in this study realized that, to meet the expectations of mainstream job interviewers and gain the prized social mobility they desired, they would have to learn self-presentation. But, there are consequences. Urban community college students negotiating their identities in a neoliberal climate that fosters educational inequities, intentionally or through neglect, confront myriad challenges. Learning to meet expectations of interviewers exposes the participating urban community college students to "a process both exhilarating and painful" (Menard-Warwick, 2005, p. 269), with positive and negative social and psychological consequences, as the dramatic activities and the two vignettes make clear.

This study has described problems one encounters teaching and learning in an environment fraught with complexities. The struggle of disadvantaged and marginalized students to attain social mobility, particularly those of color, presents formidable challenges to these students and their teachers. The task is made especially difficult by the need to balance acquisition of the self-presentation skills demanded by the cultural mainstream with respect for one's racial and ethnic self-identities. The required identity work can prompt alienation from peers and family or feelings or allegations of "acting phony" or "acting White." The issues raised in this discussion challenge us to continue to conduct research and investigate active learning formats appropriate for diverse groups across gender, racial, and sociocultural lines.

By listening carefully to the voices of community college students and using empathy and skill, educators can meet the challenge of ensuring that such students maintain their sense of identity in their own cultures even as they develop and perform new identities, often under social pressure (Lee, 2004). Such empathy calls for transcending barriers and listening with one's heart (Lanzoni, 2018). Roland G. Fryer Jr., the first Black winner of the John Bates Clark medal, articulated the deeply personal nature of the struggle thusly, "How you create structures so that people don't just beat the odds, but so that you change the damn odds. It's not, like, a 'them' thing, for me. This is my family, dude" (Ehrenfreund, 2015). Lamentably, empathy for the plight of community college students is in short supply today.

As educators, we have a responsibility to offer urban community college students the tools to improve their self-presentation skills. Ultimately, each urban community college student must be

allowed to decide for themselves if they are acting authentically. But to neglect to offer them the tools is a racist act. If they have the tools to improve, then these students have the freedom to decide how to present themselves.

Thinking of Tristan's comment "Proper is proper, it doesn't have a race," we can support his decision, and any student's desire, to manage their own identity. Despite the frustrating judgments of others and the petty jealousies of peers, Tristan proclaimed, "No one can tell me when I'm acting phony but me, it is up to me." Every student has the right to choose the skills they want to develop. We must not deny them that choice.

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The Invitation Circle: Creating Space for Decolonizing and Humanizing Inquiry

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Abstract: This article discusses an invitation circle, a process of inviting workshop and classroom participants into collaborative and humanizing inquiry and provides guidelines for initiating an invitation circle. Drawing from indigenous and posthuman traditions, invitation circles model decolonizing inquiry, encourage participants to develop humanizing connections with one another, and foster imagination of futures unconstrained by the colonial imaginary.

Keywords: humanizing inquiry, decolonization, futurity, participatory inquiry, workshop

The invitation circle stems from a desire to enact Linda Tuhiwai Smith's (2012) "decolonizing projects" such as storying to foreground collaborative discussions within the traditions of decoloniality (Mingolo, 2007) and humanizing inquiry (Paris & Winn, 2014). Invitation circles draw upon land and experience-based knowledge, inviting participants to consider divergent perspectives while sharing stories that situate understandings beyond the Western settler-colonial gaze (Tuck & Yang, 2012). While heralding from indigenous traditions, the invitation circle does not claim indigeneity nor does it require prior knowledge of indigenous, decolonization, or humanizing practices. Invitation circles are a low-barrier approach for collaboration in ways that require little prior knowledge. Circles invite people into humanizing inquiry yet ask little other than to sit in a circle and follow directions.

Context

There are multiple goals for invitation circles. Some goals are pragmatic: introducing people to one another, breaking the ice, and marking the beginning of collaboration. Some goals are theoretical, such as modeling particular types of humanizing and indigenous projects. Other goals may be aspirational in that the materials used (namely, the scripts, which are discussed later) point participants in thinking toward particular directions. The goals overlap. Along with designating a beginning, invitation circles also normalize an ethos of collaborative inquiry and prepare participants to confront present conditions while modeling efforts to engage in "futurity," what Goodyear-Ka'opua (2012) calls the "ways that groups imagine and produce knowledge about futures" (p. 86).

This article will first describe the concept of an invitation circle. Then, the article will discuss the scripts used before examining the process of conducting an invitation circle. Finally, the article will conclude with brief reflections, testimonials, and implications for invitation circles as a decolonizing and humanizing method.

Situating an Invitation Circle

Invitation circles are useful when beginning workshops, classroom learning sessions, or professional development opportunities. I have used invitation circles to mark the start of workshops for professional adults, high school and undergraduate class sessions, and community conversations. Depending on the size of the group, a successful invitation circle will require 30-45 minutes to implement and likely require two-three hours of prep work.

Materials: Preparing the Scripts

Invitation circles rely upon short scripts (See: Table 1) that participants are asked to read in a round (one person reads a statement, then the next person and so on until all of the scripts have been read). These scripts lower barriers of participation by providing short, fact-based prompts for participants to read. Scripts are researched and closely connected to the land, culture, and material conditions of the place in which the invitation circle is taking place. The order the scripts are read matters as well, particularly the scripts that will be read first and last.

When I host invitation circles, I mark the opening and ending scripts with clear language indicating they should be read aloud first and last. Table 1 includes a sampling of the language I have used in previous scripts. As shown in Table 1, some of the scripts play off of one another in ways that demonstrate and highlight relationships.

Table 1. Samples of invitation circle scripts that are read aloud.

ID	Sample Script	Order
1	Welcome. You are invited to be here, to listen, to contemplate, and to speak. Please take what knowledge you need and consider leaving the wisdom you are willing to share.	First
2	Welcome. Thank you for joining us. Here are some shared understandings to guide our time together: We are here to learn. We learn by listening. We listen by being present. We are present when we make ourselves fully available to the moment at hand.	Second
3	Thank you for being here this morning. Please communicate in a way that feels comfortable. Be silent when silence feels appropriate. Ask questions when you feel you should. Be respectful, always.	Third
4	We should acknowledge that we meet here on the historical lands of the Dakhóta (Dakota) and Anishinaabeg (Ojibwe) people. Their displacement was not accidental, but a matter of policy (Wolfe, 2006). Let us also acknowledge the genocide of indigenous people was traumatic but also unsuccessful. "The Minneapolis–Saint Paul metropolitan area is home to one of the largest and most tribally diverse urban American Indian populations, numbering well over 35,000" (Neerdaels & Lippert, 2018, n.p.).	Any
5	As we meet here, let us remember that over 2 million people are currently incarcerated in the United States. Another 5 million Americans are under state mandated supervision through parole or probation (Maruschak & Minton, 2020).	Any
6	As we gather here this morning, young children in Syria, Iraq, Brazil, Ethiopia, United States, Honduras,	Any

	France and other countries are playing, singing songs, and imagining what life might be like when they grow older.	
7	During our time together, you will be asked to communicate your truth. You will be asked to accept that others will also communicate their truths.	Any
8	As we sit here this morning, a third grade student attending Indianapolis Public School is cheerfully embracing his best friend.	Any
9	As we sit here, let us remember that 745,200 inmates are currently sitting in county and local jails across the United States. Two-thirds (482,000) are unconvicted and are in jail because they are awaiting court action or they are unable to make bail (Zeng, 2019).	Any
10	Thank you for being here. Throughout the world, nearly 500,000 people are currently writing a love poem for someone special. Most of these poems will never be finished. Some will be shared with their intended recipients. Approximately 1,000 will gain a wider audience when published.	Any
11	Somewhere, someone will be pulled over by the police. In the U.S., this will happen nearly 50,000 times a day ("Stanford Open Policing Project," 2020). Thousands will wonder if they will survive the interaction. While Black Americans make up 12.4% of the U.S. population and drive less than whites, they are 63% more likely than whites to be stopped by police (Horn, 2020).	Any
12	Somewhere, a teenage boy will refuse to give up.	Any
13	As we sit here this morning, a fifth grade student attending Minneapolis Public School is eager to submit her math homework to her teacher.	Any
14	Thank you for being here this morning. We are honored you have decided to join us and share your gifts.	Last

Strive for a balance between scripts that include research-based claims (and corresponding citations) and those that lean more on the anecdotal and rhetorical. Some scripts should pertain to general global and national realities. Others should pertain to the specific conditions, histories, and events of the place in which the invitation circle is taking place. For example, what are the material realities of police brutality in Indianapolis versus Minneapolis or Belmopan, Belize? What are the historical and current conditions of the Indigenous in the places that the Western cities of New York, Mexico City, or Detroit now occupy? Drawing upon local historical knowledge is a strength of the invitation circle and important in modeling practices of humanizing inquiry, storying, and futurity.

Incorporating Desire-Based Frameworks

While the scripts draw attention to historical and ongoing injustices, the invitation circle should also move beyond "damage centered research" (Tuck, 2009, p. 409) by refusing to essentialize people by the trauma that has been inflicted upon them. Scripts should also draw attention to desires and assets. Table 1 provides an example of what this desire-based focus (Tuck, 2009) might look like. For example, script #6 challenges notions of non-Western children as in need of intervention, focusing instead on aspirational imaginations. Likewise, scripts #8 and #13 position children in American urban school systems as joyfully eager to learn.

In this sense, the scripts encourage participants to consider the often invisible experience that contribute to the totality of lives. The circle primes participants to step into moments of beauty and loss and models storying as a way to discover commonality while centering inquiry on relational knowledge.

Conducting an Invitation Circle

Ideally, participants will sit in a circle. Preferably, scripts (printed on paper strips) are placed on seats so participants retrieve them as they sit. Alternatively, scripts may be passed around after participants take their seats. If participants will be asked to read multiple scripts (because there are more scripts than participants), mention that each script should be read in the order it is distributed. At the beginning of the invitation circle, facilitators should establish some ground rules:

1. Each person will read one script, starting with the script marked as the first one, and proceed one script at a time, working clockwise (or counter-clockwise) until the last script is read.
2. If a script is too difficult to read (because of pronunciation or the nature of the content), participants may ask someone else to read. Participants may also refrain from reading any script.
3. Scripts may be read while seated or standing.
4. Personal introductions will occur after all scripts are read.

Other ground rules are incorporated within the scripts (see: Table 1). A successful invitation circle will invite participants into the process intuitively, without too much instruction.

Fully Extending the Invitation: Closing the Circle Through Introductions

After reading the scripts, the facilitator should ask participants to introduce themselves. Typically, I ask each person to respond to three questions:

1. What is your name?
2. What brought you here today?
3. What is one place that has taught you something?

After the final participant responds, the invitation circle has concluded.

Impact: How Are Invitation Circles Perceived and Felt?

Previous participants who later facilitated invitation circles were asked about their impact. Dr. Cristina

Santamaría Graff invoked a circle during a faculty meeting. She reported:

> I implemented an invitation circle with the urban teacher education faculty at IUPUI. [They] seemed intrigued when I handed them pieces of paper with different sentences on them. These sentences were derived and adapted from a 'welcoming' script and 'invitations' to reflect upon ways we, as a society, think about and operate within spaces often racialized or stratified. 'Invitational' statements captured facts, observations, or general musings to bring attention to the ways that different people experience the world. Faculty members circled together looking down at their statements and at one another. Without being prompted, they stilled their voices and movements. It was as if coming together in a circle brought reverence to the moment. This feeling of honoring deepened as they read their welcoming statements. The words bypassed our intellect and entered our hearts as we sensed a human connection between all of us in the circle. After the last person spoke, there was a sacred silence that ensconced us.

Dr. Kiesha Warren-Gordon also implemented an invitation circle at an international conference and offered this:

> I used an invitation circle in Ghana during the summer 2019. The group consisted of people from the U.S. and Ghana. There was sense of emotionality immediately after we completed the circle. We had to take a moment to reflect on what we had just read and learned. The circle sets a tone of reflection that was maintained throughput the session.

Conclusion: Group Collaboration Through Humanizing Inquiry and Desire-Based Frameworks

Invitation circles provide pathways to collaborative, critical, and humanizing inquiry by inviting people into a relational epistemology. The activity also connects participants to the gathering place, allowing those who have an ontological relationship with the space to examine these connections more deeply while providing those unfamiliar with the place an opportunity to become more intimately connected. The scripts allow the sharing of empirical and humanizing research, and the personal introductions provide openings of authenticity that continue to humanize participants through relational expertise and lived experience.

Participants are able to make contributions and take something of value away from the storying process. Invitation circles push participants to see beyond trauma and damage, noting the various ways that people make knowledge and engage in living a fuller human experience than what is typically accounted for within critical research. This fuller— more honest— account of experience and knowledge claims is the basis for what constitutes humanizing inquiry. By centering invitation on a humanizing process of inquiry, invitation circles prime participants to imagine what futures may lay beyond the current social imaginary of the colonial world order.

Acknowledgement

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A Method for Directing Collaborative Study Guide Construction by Undergraduate Student Groups

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Abstract: Students often request study guides; however, the impact of study guides on student learning is mixed. Here, some evidence on student study guide usage and collaborative learning is briefly reviewed. This information helped to shape the development of a collaborative activity where student groups create their own study guide questions based on the chapter learning outcomes. Requiring students to collaborate and create their own study guides may encourage a higher engagement with and deeper processing of the course content.

Keywords: study guides; team-based learning; collaboration; undergraduate

The Effect of Study Guides on Student Learning is Nuanced

Although students often request study guides from instructors, the utility of these pedagogical support tools remains under question. Study guides are ultimately designed to help students focus on the key concepts of the material being learned and encourage students to develop specific skills (Wood, 1989); however, students can focus on the material covered by a study guide exclusively and neglect material not covered by the study guide (Lloyd & Eastman, 1977). Hence, study guides have been shown to be useful in some, but not all, contexts. It is critical that the nuances of study guide design be considered so that the study guide has a desirable impact on student learning.

There are many study guide frameworks that instructors can utilize, such as providing example multiple-choice questions (Dickson et al., 2006), reading guides (Polson, 1995; Wood et al., 1992), computer-based packages (Mooney et al., 1995), or lists of important concepts (Cushen et al., 2019). The effectiveness of study guide type may depend on how much the activities contained on the study guide align with the targeted content knowledge or skill and how the concepts and skills are being assessed. If the study guide exercises engage students in equivalent or more effortful processing of the material, students should perform well on the assessment (Dickson et al., 2006). However, if the study guide exercises rely on memorization of the course material (e.g., matching key terms to definitions), but the assessment requires applicational understanding of the course content (e.g., essay questions), the study guide may not encourage effective student learning. Thus, instructors desiring to utilize or distribute study guides should carefully map study guide activities to learning outcome assessments when designing effective study guides for their classes.

Students generally perceive study guides as helpful; this perception of usefulness correlates to student's use of these tools as pedagogical aids (Gurung, 2003). Instructors should not rely on student perceptions of helpfulness for study guide usefulness, however, as perceived helpfulness and use of study guides do not necessarily relate to exam performance (Gurung, 2003, 2004). For example, the perceived helpfulness of certain types of items on a study guide, such as using key terms provided by the textbook, was inversely correlated with exam performance (Gurung, 2003). In addition, although students vastly prefer instructor-provided study guides, an instructor-provided concept-list study guide negatively impacted student learning compared to when students were not given a study guide and were instead encouraged (but not required) to create study guides on their own (Cushen et al.,

2019). Students required to complete a study guide had higher exam scores compared to students that had access to study guides, but were not required to use the study guides to prepare for the exam (Dickson et al., 2005).

Thus, if instructors desire to use study guides, the guide should be crafted to engage students with the material at a higher or equivalent level of processing as the assessment. In addition, requiring the construction of a study guide (rather than just using an instructor-provided study guide) may encourage students to actively engage with the material, which is generally associated with positive student learning outcomes (Chi & Wylie, 2014; Prince, 2004).

Collaborative Learning

Student collaborations are associated with gains in a variety of student learning outcomes. For example, a meta-analysis found that small group learning in undergraduate courses was positively associated with academic achievement and students' perceptions of learning (Springer et al., 1999). Student collaborations on exam reviews (Drouin, 2010), group worksheets and assignments (Delucchi, 2007; Gokhale, 2012), "jigsaw" activities (Perkins & Saris, 2001; Smith et al., 1991), and quizzes (Petrunich-Rutherford & Daniel, 2019) were all associated with a variety of positive learning outcomes, such as higher exam or quiz scores, by students engaging in collaborative learning exercises. In fact, collaborative learning strategies had one of the highest effect sizes on student achievement among several clusters of strategies analyzed in another comprehensive meta-analysis (Schroeder et al., 2007). Thus, a collaboratively-designed study guide may have a greater impact on student learning compared to collaborative learning alone.

Student Groups Collaborate to Construct Study Guide Questions

One approach for collaborative study guide construction is to create one document where all students have the opportunity to add and edit information (Long, 2019). However, an instructor may desire to encourage the development of skills needed to collaborate in small groups rather than the class at large. The method described here required students to work in small groups to construct essay-style recall-based exam questions that were designed to assess one or more of the given chapter or unit objectives. The products of the collaborative activities were collected by the instructor; a selection of the student-designed questions was then compiled into a study guide that all students could use to prepare for the exams.

At the beginning of the semester, students were assigned by the instructor to collaborative working groups of three to four students in each group. Student-selected groups could possibly work here as well; however, instructor-assigned groups could balance groups in terms of GPA, previous knowledge on the topic, major, internship/work experiences, etc.

For each assigned collaborative activity, students were given approximately 12-15 minutes of class time. These collaborative activities were conducted nearly once per week (thirteen activities, one for each chapter of material) in a class that met biweekly. Each collaborative activity was worth less than 2% of the overall course grade. Students were not graded on the quality of the work produced in the collaborative activities; rather, students were graded on their preparation for (approximately 50%) and participation (approximately 50%) in the collaborative activities. Students prepared for the collaborative activity in a type of "flipped classroom" exercise. Individual students read the assigned chapter and completed a fill-in-the-blank quiz on Canvas, the university's learning management system. The students were able to view their scores and incorrect responses and were able to take the quiz as many times as possible in order to earn full credit. The quiz locked at the beginning of class on the day of the assigned activity.

In class, collaborative groups were tasked with working together to create one study guide question and answer. These questions were intended to generate brief essay-style answers (e.g., approximately three to four sentences) that assessed the outcomes for one or more chapter objectives. During the collaboration, the instructor was available to answer questions and assessed the individual participation of each member of the group. The student-created questions and answers were collected by the instructor immediately after each collaborative activity. From all submitted questions (one per group, approximately 8-10 groups per class), the instructor chose three to four questions from each chapter activity (editing the selections for grammatical or other wording errors, if necessary) and compiled the chosen questions into an exam study guide distributed to the class. Answers were not provided with the study guide questions. As an incentive, each group could earn up to one bonus point per activity if their group's question was chosen for inclusion on the study guide. The study guide was updated approximately 24 hours after the activity, so students had access to and could use the study guide as much as possible before the exam. Although the study guides were designed to prepare students for exams, students were encouraged to use the study guides for preparation for all content-based assessments (e.g., quizzes and exams). One study guide question per chapter was selected by the instructor and used word-for-word on the exam.

Implementation and Further Investigation

Anecdotally, the vast majority of students in sections utilizing this technique developed good working relationships with their collaborative groups and appeared to be adequately prepared for exams. As participation was easily monitored by the instructor and was worth a portion of the grade, rarely did students fail to or inadequately participate. Students had the opportunity to confidentially report to the instructor if they felt group members were participating in the collaborative exercises unequally. Students that were unable to be physically present in class (e.g., due to illness) had the option to participate virtually using video or teleconferencing options if the group approved.

Although this technique was developed for a face-to-face course, the activities could be adapted to an online environment using synchronous meetings of student groups, asynchronous discussion boards, or through the use of other collaborative tools. If an instructor desires to incorporate any collaborative exercises into any mode of instruction, it is critical that the instructor clearly communicates the goals of the exercises and support students during the process (Bailey et al., 2015).

If the effectiveness of this collaborative technique is evaluated, students should be surveyed to determine the actual usage of the study guides as pedagogical aids. This would more clearly delineate whether it is the construction of the in-class activities or the usage of the study guides (or both) that could contribute to positive student outcomes. Additionally, it is possible that the depth of involvement in the collaborative exercises (Tsay & Brady, 2012) and/or the type of dialogues (Chi & Menekse, 2015) conducted in each group could contribute to differences in learning outcomes between students. Investigations into this method should investigate how the quality of the collaboration impacts student outcomes. Any future work in this area will contribute to an enhanced understanding of the efficacy of study guides and collaborations in student learning.

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