American Association for Adult and Continuing Education

2022 Conference Proceeding

October 11th – 14th
Hyatt Regency Milwaukee
Milwaukee, Wisconsin

Editors
Dr. Lisa R. Brown, Chair
Dr. Laura Holyoke
Dr. Yvonne Hunter-Johnson (Past Chair)
Ms. Billie McNamara

American Association for Adult and Continuing Education
827 Powers Ferry Road, Building 14, Suite 100, Atlanta, GA 30339, U.S.
Phone: (678) 271-4319, Fax: (678) 229-2777, E-mail: office@aaace.org
AAACE website: https://www.aaace.org/?

American Association for Adult and Continuing Education

Vision Statement

The American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE) is dedicated to the belief that lifelong learning contributes to human fulfillment and positive social change. We envision a more humane world made possible by the diverse practice of our members in helping adults acquire the knowledge, skills, and values needed to lead productive and satisfying lives.

Mission Statement

The mission of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education (AAACE) is to provide leadership for the field of adult and continuing education by expanding opportunities for adult growth and development, unifying adult educators; fostering the development and dissemination of theory, research, information, and best practices; promoting identity and standards for the profession; and advocating relevant public policy and social change initiatives.

2021-2022 Board of Directors

President	Dr. Vanessa Sheared
President-Elect	Dr. Paulette Issac-Savage
Immediate Past President	Dr. Thomas Cox
Secretary	Dr. Michelle Glowacki-Dudka
Treasurer	Dr. Lilian Hill

2021-2022 Conference Leadership

2022 Conference Chair	Dr. Kendra Grover
2022 Conference Vice Chair	Dr. Michelle Johnson

2021-2022 Commissions Directors

Adult Basic Education and Literacy (CABEL)	Dr. Sam May-Varas
Community, Minority and Non-Formal Education (CCMNFE)	Dr. Doris Flowers
Distance Learning and Technology (CDLT)	Dr. Tricia Berry
Graduate Students (CGS)	Lauren Vilen
International Adult Education (CIAE)	Dr. Wendy Griswold
Professors of Adult Education (CPAE)	Dr. Davin Carr-Chellman
Workforce and Professional Development (CWPD)	Dr. Yvonne Hunter-Johnson

Message From Vanessa Sheared
President 2021-2022

Publication of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education Conference Proceedings

The 71st American Association for Adult Continuing Education Conference Theme Adaptability, Flexibility, and Sustainability- Adult Education in Dynamic Times is a reflection of the association's global commitment to Transforming Lives and Communities across the spectrum. For the past three years, the American Association has worked to codify and disseminate the contributions of our members through the continuing development, growth, and advancement of the research and practices that are being conducted in the field of adult education. The conference proceedings provide our members with information and resources that they can refer to and use to transform lives and communities. Over 290 adult educators attended the conference held in Milwaukee WI, from October 11 - October 14, 2022.

After three years of uncertainty, government, corporate, business, and educational shutdowns, the members were able to come together to share and discuss ways in which they and their communities of practice were able to identify, resolve, and create alternative ways to operate with one another and within their various spheres of life. Through both hybrid and in-person pre-conferences, workshops, roundtables, and poster sessions, presenters and participants came together to hear and discuss how we might use the knowledge and information presented to transform the ways in which we operate within and across the various educational, business, health, government, military, and community-based sectors represented through AAACE.

This issue represents the American Association for Adult Education organization's continuing commitment to introduce, generate, challenge, encourage, and provide our members with ongoing research and practices from across the educational and professional spectrum, regions, and around the world. A total of 27 presentations are highlighted in the third issue of the AAACE Proceedings. Using qualitative, historical, and quantitative methods that draw upon phenomenological, constructivist, historical, feminist, cultural, and linguistic analysis, the scholars examine teaching and learning, implicit racial bias, and transformative learning experiences. They explore empowering student learners, disability identity, adult learning/profound moments, civic engagement, research capacity building, professional work team building, student advising for undergraduate and graduate students, environmental and social justice, community-based and inter-organizational learning, and psychological and social resistance to name a few of these scholars' and backgrounds, cultures, and countries.

Through their contributions, we can imagine and create curricula, programs, and opportunities for adults across the globe. The experiences of adult populations that represent different racial, gender, class, language, and sociocultural backgrounds and

whose historical, political, and economic realities impact how they/we are viewed, served, and given resources are the focus of this issue.

As the immediate past president of the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education, I want to thank the editors – Drs. Lisa R. Brown (Chair), Laura Holyoke, Yvonne Hunter-Johnson, and Billie McNamara for serving as editors of the third issue of the AAACE Proceedings publication. On behalf of the Board of Directors, we encourage you to read these openly to engage and reflect on the topics, think about ways you can contribute to the field, and use the information found within these proceedings to create opportunities in your communities and areas of practice.

Respectfully,

Vanessa Sheared, EdD
AAACE President 2021-2022
AAACE Immediate Past President 2022-2023

Editors' Notes

Dear Reader,

It is our distinct pleasure, and with great anticipation, we present the third conference proceedings for the American Association for Adult and Continuing Education 2022 conference. These proceedings for the general conference provide a platform to highlight the valuable presentations made at the conference. The proceedings reflect a combination of presentations featuring empirical research and practical application within the field of adult and continuing education. As editors, we extend our gratitude to all stakeholders, including the board of directors, members, staff, sponsoring partners, and authors. We are grateful to you, for without you, these publications and conference proceedings would not be a reality.

To the board of directors, we say thank you for your vision to institute such an endeavor and for entrusting us with the opportunity to compile and edit the inaugural conference proceedings for AAACE. We are truly grateful for this was an honor for each of us.

To the illustrious contributors to the conference proceedings, we extend our gratitude. The conference proceedings would not be a reality without your hard work, dedication, attention to detail, creativity, and ambition. You have provided a platform that serves as an academic inspiration and a source reflecting a conglomerate of topics. Your contributions to theory and practice will benefit scholars and practitioners and align with the overarching theme of AAACE. We are grateful and say thank you!

To members, we thank you for sharing your knowledge and expertise at this year's conference. We strongly encourage all conference presenters in attendance virtually or in-person to submit a manuscript for the upcoming year's conference proceedings. Your knowledge, experience, and ability are worth sharing to inspire and empower other scholars and practitioners in adult and continuing education.

We hope you enjoy reading the conference proceedings.

Thank you,

Dr. Lisa R. Brown, Chair

Dr. Laura Holyoke

Dr. Yvonne Hunter-Johnson (Past Chair)

Ms. Billie McNamara

Table of Contents

Exploring the Roots of Profound Moments: An Empirical Study

Jonathon Aaron Ball, Laura Holyoke, Heather Heward,
Elise Kokenge, Nanci Jenkins, and Shannon Wilson
University of Idaho

Abstract: This phenomenological study explored the concept of profound moments. We previously defined a profound moment as an experience that intentionally or unintentionally continues to surface in our consciousness, has transformed our fundamental perspectives, and has been integrated into how we live. Selected participants had experienced highly memorable moments and demonstrated an introspective personality. The interviews used a semi-structured, interpretive phenomenological approach. Interviews were coded, analyzed, and interpreted for preliminary results. Results from preliminary analysis indicate profound moments consist of four elements: acceptance, permeation, humanity, and change.

Keywords: adult learning, profundity, meaningfulness, humanity, profound learning

Our lives are a series of experiences that shape the lens of our world perspective. Sometimes, major events create significant disequilibrium that nudges us to grow, ultimately contributing to our vertical development as adults (Henning, 2011). Researchers found exceptionally meaningful events are described as intense, with high emotions, and require deep reflection (Murphy & Bastian, 2020). We postulate that highly emotional, intense moments that result in continual reflection over time shape us profoundly. We grounded our conception of profound moments (PM) with the profundity literature from Kroth and Carr-Chellman (2018, 2020). They found profundity encompasses being deeply insightful, provocative, and substantive, with meaningfulness as a key contributor to profound living (2018, 2020) and profound learning (2018).

The purpose of this study was to deepen our exploration of profound moments by conducting a qualitative empirical study using phenomenological interview practices. Our conceptual framework postulates profound moments consist of a fully accepted experience facilitating a readiness to learn from the experience in a process that deepens an individual's connection to the self and humanity (Maib et al., 2021). A profound moment becomes a catalyst for perpetual change, serendipitously integrated into a person's life.

Methodology

We used a qualitative phenomenological study to explore the construct of profound moments. A flexible emergent design allowed us to adjust as we grappled with the complexity of the phenomena during our inquiry (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2008). The research team's experience with profound moments continued to inform the concept, question development, and research interpretation. We used purposeful convenience "typical case" (Patton, 2015, p. 268) sampling to

select participants who had experienced a highly memorable moment and demonstrated an introspective personality. The university's ethics committee approved the study.

Four participants were interviewed using a semi-structured interpretive phenomenological approach (Wojnar & Swanson, 2007). Interviews were recorded on Zoom and transcribed verbatim. Our analysis began with a 3-stage technique starting with the transcribed interviews. The first two stages were independently completed by individuals from the research team to deductively and then categorically code the data to add rigor to the analysis process (Patton, 2015). Codes and categories were combined onto a shared spreadsheet then analyzed by groups of two or three from the research team. Reoccurring themes and categories were captured on a team whiteboard to visualize valence. During coding and analysis, we excluded one interview due to the participant's lack of iterative reflection on the moment. The third stage involved member-checking and categorizing codes, followed by intense team conversations about patterns detected in the data and pulling out representative quotes (Patton, 2015).

Findings

Our preliminary analysis indicates four primary elements of a profound moment: acceptance, permeation, humanity, and change (Figure 1). Acceptance involves vulnerability, that life can feel out of control at times, but there is often good associated with the bad. Over time, participants learned to trust themselves and "embrace the struggle." Permeation refers to the process of the profound moment sinking in and gaining a deeper understanding of the experience. This process was not easy and often accompanied by overcoming challenges. Permeation was an ongoing process facilitated by self-awareness, openness, and humility. Humanity represents the recognition of participants that they were not alone. Participants *felt* the support of others and took opportunities to pay it forward and connect to meaningfulness of their experience. Through their experience, participants expressed deep personal changes. Some changes were voluntary; some were involuntary. All participants moved in unique and unanticipated directions after their profound moments.

Figure 1.

Elements of profound moments: acceptance, humanity, permeation, and change

Profound Moments of Participants

- Todd: While meditating on a rafting trip as a teenager, Todd awakened to a new way of thinking.
- Brendan: After high school, Brendan chose to break from tradition and move across the country from his family, never to return.

- Jesse: 4-year-old daughter was diagnosed with a rare, complex, and aggressive cancer.

Discussion

Acceptance

Participants communicated acceptance of their profound moment. The acceptance process unfolded over time and involved participants' revisiting and reflecting on different elements that transpired during profound moments. Participants conveyed feelings of vulnerability but also trusted in themselves. For Todd, managing vulnerability meant, "Let[ting] the things that I know transfer through me." As Brendan worked to make a life for himself after he left home, his confidence grew, and he trusted he could do what his family believed he could not. Growth and acceptance are entwined, and both are required for vertical development (Cook-Grueter, 2000; Taylor, 2006).

We found acceptance often was accompanied by vulnerability and accepting the good and the bad. Brendan stated it as "embracing struggles." After Jesse's young daughter was diagnosed with cancer, she regularly repeated, "Life is hard. Life is unfair. Life is good." Participants recognized that ups and downs, good and bad, were part of the experience. As each participant wrestled with the physical and emotional experiences, they felt off balance with the vulnerability that comes when one feels uncertain or unsteady, as if they might topple over (Kegan, 1982) Henning (2011) states, "To be a growing, developing person means, again and again, to return to the experience of feeling nothing is holding you." Our study echoes findings by Palus and Drath (1995) that sense-making often occurs long after an initial event. Thus far, our analysis indicates that participants experienced vulnerability, equilibrium, and acceptance. Our findings do not clarify whether feelings of equilibrium came before or after acceptance.

Permeation

Participants discussed how their profound moments permeated their beings over time, becoming embedded deeply into whom they became. Each participant overcame different obstacles, such as strong emotions, guilt, and lack of supportive networks. Time needed to elapse before they felt prepared to overcome those obstacles in an ongoing and iterative process. Although the timeframes varied widely, participants spoke of a time when they felt prepared to learn from their events.

Participants' acceptance of a profound moment was ongoing and often stopped short of complete closure. Todd continued to draw from his experience through prayer, work, and meditation. "The thing that I experienced in the moment, I am reliving daily…it informs a development of my whole life." The resulting permeation fundamentally changed participants' identities as they formed new perceptions of self and reality (Miller, 2004).

We found preparation for learning was cultivated intentionally and unintentionally. Throughout the permeation process, participants demonstrated elements of profound learners such as being reflective, open-minded, questioning their viewpoints, perspective taking, seeking knowledge and growth, and curiosity (Carr-Chellman & Kroth, 2018). Profound moments create tension as a person attempts to come to terms with what happened (Henning, 2011), stimulating continued engagement with learning from the experience.

Our findings show acts of integrating learning into the sense of self (Boud et al., 1985), including highly stressful events that resulted in greater life satisfaction and post-traumatic growth (Jayawickreme & Blackie, 2014). A profound moment is often revisited and becomes embedded into an individual's identity. Assimilating "problematic experiences" tends to progress from painful, problematic, puzzling, understood, to mastered (Stiles et al., 1990).

Humanity

Participants described a desire to share knowledge gained from their experiences and recognized they are not alone in this world, that others will stand steadfastly beside them. Creating opportunities for others played a key role for participants. Jesse said, *"I felt like it would help me if I could focus on helping somebody else."* Participants recognized creating opportunities connected them to humanity on a common journey. Brendan described the importance of intentionally spending time with others who supported his values. Recognition of the impact we have on the lives of others replaces feelings of being alone (Henning, 2011). Our participants held this recognition as a point of reference in their daily decisions and reflection of future impacts on others.

Participants all connected their experiences to the meaningful endeavor of giving to future generations. Brendan described the meaningfulness of his moment as a gateway to "have the emotions develop to connect to humanity.... if you have that connection, you know you have love in your heart for your fellow humans." The desire to help and promote future generations dovetails with concepts such as social generativity (Morselli & Passini, 2015) and ego development theory (Cook-Greuter, 2000; Loevinger, 1976), moving us into the fourth-person perspective where we see ourselves aligned with the larger story of perpetual humanity and Vertical Development Theory (Jones et al., 2020).

Our research supports elements of meaningfulness (Heine et al., 2006; King & Hicks, 2021), the duality of positive and negative emotions (Naor & Mayseless, 2017), and profound living (Carr-Chellman & Kroth, 2018). Yet, profound moments appear to be a unique touchstone of meaning-making intentionally perpetuated over time.

Change

Each participant considered profound moments pivotal points; each moment took a different direction than was expected and sometimes desired. Rate and direction of change were variable across participant experiences. Change experienced by participants was a mixture of voluntary and involuntary actions and reactions that resulted in diverse ways of being.

Brendan voluntarily chose to leave his family, which led to other involuntary events, such as financial hardship. Jesse's moment was involuntary, but many of her actions in response to that moment were voluntary, such as setting a goal to run a marathon. Literature supports the voluntary and involuntary nature of moments that shape us. During research on "aha" moments, Irvine (2015) identified these moments often arrive "during the intervals of rest between problem-solving sessions" (p. 11). The arrival of profound or "aha" moments between problem-solving efforts speaks to the idea there is intention in seeking to find the answer to a problem; however, the moment of revelation comes in the space between thinking. In this sense, the moment could be described as both voluntary and involuntary.

Involuntary profound moments may originate from traumatic events, such as in the case of Jesse. These moments can lead to profound changes in people's lives as they seek to find meaning and growth from the moments. Tedeschi and Calhoun (2004) coined the term *post-traumatic growth,* defined as "positive psychological change experienced as a result of the struggle with highly challenging life circumstances" (p. 1). Jayawickreme and Blackie (2014) reported traumatic (involuntary) events provide an opportunity to restructure a person's perceptions of the world.

Whether voluntary or involuntary, profound moments moved participants in unanticipated directions. They perceived the new direction as positive, negative, or both. The new direction could be directly related to the moment or indirectly related. In Jesse's case, her daughter's illness immediately impacted how she spent her time, increased her self-confidence, and indirectly impacted the trajectory of her marriage. "I got out of a marriage with obviously a not supportive partner, that worked out well, for me. In the long term, it might have taken a lot longer."

Next Steps

Our research group will continue to conduct interviews until we reach saturation of themes. We will continue to explore the concept of profound moments to determine if feelings of equilibrium are sequentially related to acceptance of people's experiences.

References

Boud, D., Keogh, R., & Walker, D. (1985). *Promoting reflection in learning: A model.* Routledge.

Carr-Chellman, D. J., & Kroth, M. (2018). *Profound learning and living: An exploratory delphi study* [Paper presentation]. Adult Education Research Conference, Victoria, BC, Canada. https://newprairiepress.org/aerc/2018/papers/25/

Cook-Greuter, S. (2000). Mature ego development: A gateway to ego transcendence? *Journal of Adult Development, 7,* 227–240. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1009511411421

Heine, S. J., Proulx, T., & Vohs, K. D. (2006). The meaning maintenance model: On the coherence of social motivations. *Personality and Social Psychology Review, 10*(2), 88–110. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327957pspr1002_1

Henning, P. B. (2011). Disequilibrium, development and resilience through adult life. *Systems Research and Behavioral Science, 28,* 443–454. https://doi.org/10.1002/sres.1108

Hesse-Biber, S., & Leavy, P. (2008). *Handbook of Emergent Methods.* Guilford Press.

Irvine, W. B. (2015). *Aha! The moments of insight that shape our world.* Oxford University Press.

Jayawickreme, E., & Blackie, L. E. (2014). Post-traumatic growth as positive personality change: Evidence, controversies and future directions. *European Journal of Personality, 28*(4), 312–331. https://doi.org/10.1002/per.1963

Jones, H. E., Chesley, J. A., & Egan, T. (2020). Helping leaders grow up: Vertical leadership development in practice. *The Journal of Values-Based Leadership, 13*(8), 1–19. https://doi.org/10.22543/0733.131.1275

Kegan, R. (1982). *The evolving self: Problem and process in human development.* Harvard University Press.

King, L. A., & Hicks, J. A. (2021). The science of meaning in life. *Annual Review of Psychology, 72,* 561–584. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-072420-122921

Klinger, E. (1977). *Meaning & void: Inner experience and the incentives in people's lives.* University of Minnesota Press.

Kroth, M., & Carr-Chellman, D. J. (2018). Preparing profound learners. *New Horizons in Adult Education, 30*(3), 64–71. https://doi.org/10.1002/nha3.20224

Kroth, M., & Carr-Chellman, D. J. (2020). Profound learning: An exploratory Delphi study. *International Journal of Adult Education and Technology, 11*(2), 14–23. http://doi.org/10.4018/IJAET.2020040102

Loevinger, J. (1976). *Ego development.* Jossey-Bass.

Maib, H., Holyoke, L., Heward, H., Braun, J., Ball, A., & Fealy, C. (2021, October 5-8). *From ordinary to profound: Moments that take root* [Conference Proceedings]. American Association for Adult and Continuing Education, Miramar Beach, FL, United States. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED618709

Martela, F., & Steger, M. F. (2016). The three meanings of meaning in life: Distinguishing coherence, purpose, and significance. *The Journal of Positive Psychology, 11*(5), 531–545. https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2015.1137623

Miller, W. R. (2004). The phenomenon of quantum change. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 60*(5), 453–460. https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.20000

Morselli, D., & Passini, S. (2015). Measuring prosocial attitudes toward future generations: The Social Generativity Scale. *Journal of Adult Development*, 173–182. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10804-015-9210

Murphy, S. C., & Bastian, B. (2020). Emotionally extreme life experiences are more meaningful. *The Journal of Positive Psychology, 15*(4), 531–542. https://doi.org/10.1080/17429760.169795

Naor, L., & Mayseless, O. (2017). How personal transformation occurs following a single peak experience in nature: A phenomenological account. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 60*(6), 865–888. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022167817714692

Palus, C. J., & Drath, W. H. (1995). *Evolving leaders: A model for promoting leadership development in programs.* Center for Creative Leadership.

Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice* (4th ed.). Sage.

Stiles, W. B., Elliott, R., Llewelyn, S. P., Firth-Cozens, J. A., Margison, F. R., Shapiro, D. A., Hardy, G. (1990). Assimilation of problematic experiences by clients in psychology. *Psychotherapy, 27*(3), 411–420. https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-3204.27.3.411

Taylor, K. (2006). Autonomy and self-directed learning: A developmental journey. In C.H. Hoare (Ed.), *Handbook of Adult Development and Learning* (pp. 196–218). Oxford Press, Inc.

Tedeschi, R. G., & Calhoun, L. G. (2004). Posttraumatic growth: Conceptual foundations and empirical evidence. *Psychological Inquiry*, 1–18. https://www.justor.org/stable/20447194

Wojnar, D. M., & Swanson, K. M. (2007). Phenomenology: An exploration. *Journal of Holistic Nursing, 25*(3), 172–180. https://doi.org/10.1177/0898010106295172

Arts-based Reflection in Co-curricular Spaces for Students with Disabilities

Trisha Barefield
University of Georgia

Abstract: This paper introduces a newly implemented arts-based space for reflection and identity development for students with disabilities (SWDs) in a disability services office in the American Southeast. This project aimed to help students make sense of their disability through creating a three-panel art project and an accompanying written description. While the primary aim was to create a space for reflection for SWDs, the secondary benefit is the use of their work for advocacy on campus. The project also brings art-based makerspaces into a co-curricular space for reflection, community building, and advocacy. After introducing the project, the paper will discuss the research findings and lessons for future research.

Keywords: disability identity, critical reflection, arts-based reflection, makerspaces, co-curricular learning

The number of college students who identify as having a disability rose dramatically over the past decade, in large part a result of federal guidance changes on what constitutes a disability. The *Americans with Disabilities Amendments Act of 2008* (2008) identified common conditions — such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, and major depressive disorder — as federally-protected disabilities that can be accommodated if they impact academic ability. However, seeking accommodations requires some acknowledgement of having a disability by individuals and brings stigma. Disability identity is personal and highly individualized. In my experience as a disability service provider, I have worked with many students struggling with shifts in self perception. Students' prior experiences — if they had accommodations in high school; if their disability was present at birth or recently acquired; or if their disability is visible or invisible — impact their disability identity construction (Forber-Pratt et al., 2021). For traditional-aged college students, disability identity is just one piece of identity they are exploring. This project aimed to facilitate identity exploration through art by a group of students with disabilities (SWDs) and study the art they created.

Conceptual Framework

While the project's aim was to offer a glimpse into disability identity of SWDs, I felt it necessary to stress this is just one facet of their identity. Our student group has students with visible disabilities who have no choice whether their disability is observable and students with invisible disabilities who often "pass" as non-disabled (Gill, 1997). That said, these distinctions are often oversimplified into broad categories that are themselves oversimplified within the literature on disability identity. Having a visible disability has been compared to having other visible minority statuses based on race or gender, while invisible disabilities are compared to LGBTQ+ identities that necessitate "coming out" (Buggie-Hunt, 2007). Nonetheless, both analogies are much too clear-cut: passing and coming out is highly context-specific for all minoritized identities.

Similarly, conversations about disability often center on the medical model, which focuses on deficits and difference, and the social model, which views disability as a component of identity to be embraced. These categories can create a false dichotomy between receiving a medical diagnosis and celebrating difference. More than anything, living with a disability is a journey with highs and lows.

To avoid oversimplifications of disability identity and experience, I relied on Clark/Keefe's (2014) theory of student identity development based on Braidotti's (2011a, 2011b) nomadic identity. Rather than center disability-specific theories, Clark/Keefe (2014) focused on identity exploration through art. My aim is for the research exercise was to provide an environment for freer expression by participating students. Even though the space and context called for reflection on their disabilities, their multifaceted and fluid experiences were honored.

Literature Review

I began the literature review with a Google Scholar search for "disability identity development student." From there, I reviewed the top results and their cited works as a type of snowball sampling literature review. I continued this process until I reached a point of saturation where I had a thorough understanding of literature on the topic. This section highlights the literature I deemed most applicable to this study.

Disability identity has been approached from many angles and many disciplines, but no theory is recognized as the standard. Forber-Pratt et al. (2017) conducted a literature review of disability identity development from 1980 to 2017 and found 41 empirical articles, primarily qualitative, addressed the topic. They also provided a helpful review of disability identity development models, although most empirical articles reviewed did not apply a theoretical model to their study. Also of note, Buggie-Hunt (2007) surveyed 127 SWDs, comparing their psychosocial development to a normed sample of college students, and found no significant differences between the groups. Buggie-Hunt did find some differences between SWDs, depending on whether their disability was visible or invisible, likely due to those with invisible disabilities' ability to pass as non-disabled.

Forber-Pratt et al. (2021) conducted a study on disability identity development in middle and high school students and found their identity development was multifaceted and impacted by environmental and social factors. While my study focused on traditional-aged college students, this finding is relevant: both groups are at ages where identity formation is occurring in relation to a school environment and close peer connections.

And finally, Allen (2019) incorporated reflexive writing and multiple types of visual art into their own journey toward disability identity development as part of their dissertation, concluding with the insight that "disability doesn't happen *to* you, it *is* you" (p. 78, italics in original). As of the time of this literature review, no studies located used arts-based methods to study disability identity formation in college students.

Research Design

The population for this study was sampled from students with disabilities at a land grant university in the Southeastern United States, narrowed to a specific student group within the disability services office. Participants self-identified as having a disability, sought accommodations, qualified for accommodations, and voluntarily joined a student group to work with other SWDs to advocate for disability rights around campus. Participants shared their experiences as SWDs with campus audiences. The art panel project, loosely based on photovoice (Macdonald et al., 2019; Wang & Burris, 1997), offered another way to express their perspectives and experiences while providing the time and space to create disability-related art with other SWDs.

The study took place in a newly implemented arts-based makerspace (Figure 1). Makerspaces, much like student identity and disability status, are multifaceted and can come in many different configurations (Halverson & Sheridan, 2014). This one focuses on open-ended art prompts and community building.

Figure 1.
Arts-based Makerspace

While no monetary incentives for participation were offered, the disability services office provided food for the event. I led the session while also taking field notes and asking probing questions of the participants about their artwork. After students completed their artworks, I photographed the pieces and collected participants' written statements to accompany their works. This project was exploratory, and the findings will be used as a basis for future studies. The guiding research questions were:

- How does the disability identity of college students with disabilities change based on audience?
- How do SWDs represent those differences through art?

Data Collection Activity

The intent of this project was to gather information on how SWDs represent their disability identity through art aimed at different audiences: however, the twelve student participants had different ideas. This project showcased a disconnect between plan and reality. Approximately half the student participants stated before the study they *don't do art* or they are bad at art, indicating they were present for the pizza and information session happening at the meeting. In my analysis afterward, I dubbed these students *reluctant artists*. The remaining participants were enthusiastic about making art as advocacy. I categorized them *eager artists*. Quite a contrast existed between the two groups, as I explain below.

At the beginning of the session, I distributed and explained the prompt which asked them to create three pieces of art for different audiences: themselves, other students with disabilities, and the broader university community. I observed reluctant artists were even more averse toward making not one but three art pieces. Therefore, I was intentional about telling participants they did not have to follow the prompt at all. They could make something to take home, or they could make something to for the advocacy display with or without an artist statement. The eager artists happily dove into watercolors or collages, while the reluctant artists, who arrived in pairs and I seated together, chatted with each other.

After approximately twenty minutes waiting on the pizza to arrive, the reluctant artists, perhaps driven by a mix of boredom and curiosity, started to engage with art supplies. The results of their reluctant art included some powerful pieces (see Figures 2 and 3). Another theme emerged among eager artists: three students asked to take their artwork home to work on it more. Figures 4 and 5 illustrate sample results from these students.

Findings

The major theme for both eager and reluctant artists was rejection of one of the core ideas of my research design. All of the students, both verbally and in their artist statements, rejected the idea of making art for other audiences. The participants made pieces for themselves and were happy to have those viewed by others as a form of advocacy; however, no participant made art explicitly for the other two audiences mentioned in the prompt. The totality of those participants' rejection was striking. While the prompt was not adhered to, students still mulled over the idea of creating art as advocacy and the spirit of the prompt came through.

Figures 2 and 3, created by reluctant artists, used darker colors and focused on their experience of their disability. In contrast, the art made by the eager artists (figures 4 and 5) is bright and colorful. The eager artists featured below both took their work home to spend more time on it and wrote artist statements whereas the reluctant artists finished their pieces during the session. Through these examples we can see that perhaps the reluctant artists were reluctant because their outlook of their disability is not as positive as the eager artists.

Figure 2.
Student artwork: dyslexia

Figure 3.
Student artwork: Brainfog

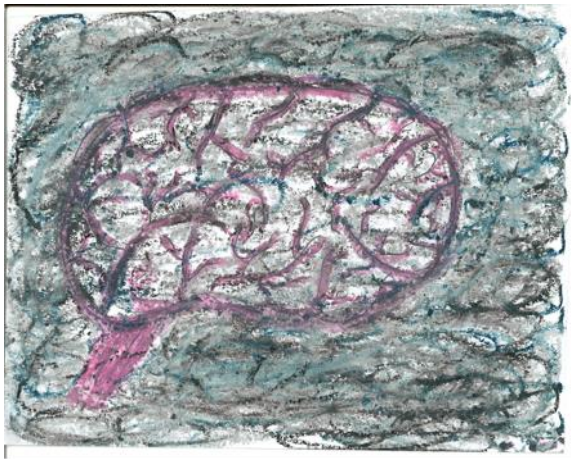


Figure 4
Student a.rtwork: Perhaps our Differences Make us Beautiful

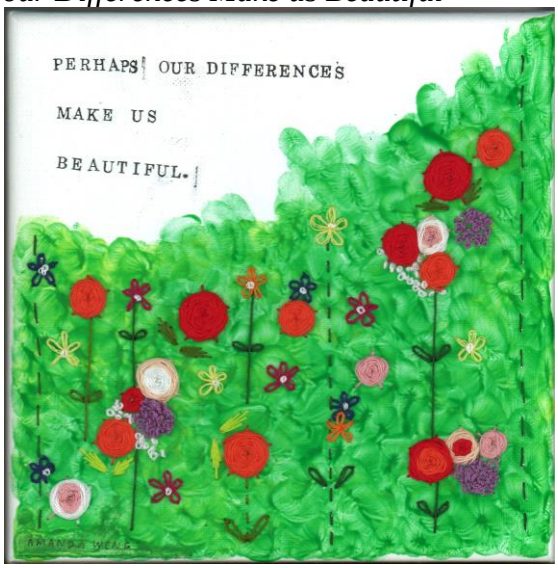
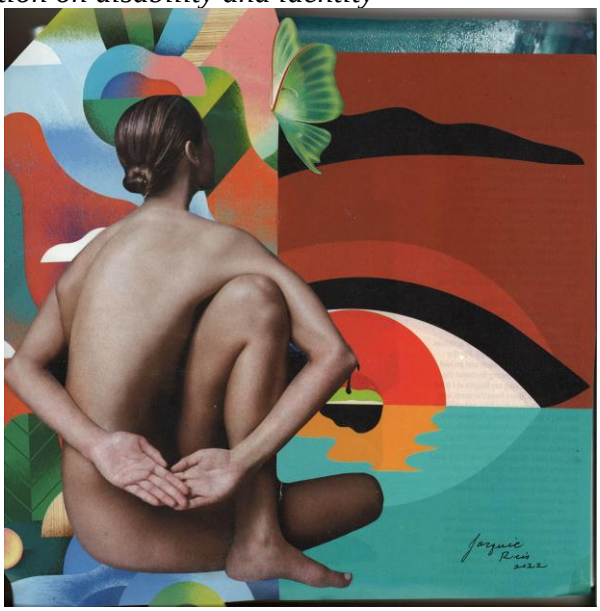


Figure 5.
Student artwork: a reflection on disability and identity



Discussion

This paper discusses the initial results from an arts-based makerspace at a university's disability services office. Initial findings indicate a population of students are eager to engage with art as a medium for exploring their disability identity and advocacy work. While other participants were reluctant to take part, the project provided them an opportunity to engage with other SWDs; in the end, their art was quite powerful. As this is a co-curricular space rather than something related to a graded course, perhaps participants felt comfortable rejecting the prompt and interpreting the charge in their own way. I did not analyze the art as initially planned because students' strongly opposed making art for external audiences. I included some examples in this report so some artists' thoughts about their disability identities can speak through their works. While this project did not yield results I expected, it provided an opportunity to reflect on planning versus reality. In the future, I will not use such a rigid approach to the research and perhaps take a more participatory action research approach.

References

Allen, A. (2019). Intersecting arts based research and disability studies: Suggestions for art education curriculum centered on disability identity development. *Journal of Curriculum Theorizing*, *34*(1). https://journal.jctonline.org/index.php/jct/article/view/767

ADA Amendments Act of 2008, Public Law 325, U.S. Statutes at Large 122 (2008): 3553-3559.

Braidotti, R. (2011a). *Nomadic subjects: Embodiment and sexual difference in contemporary feminist theory*. Columbia University Press.

Braidotti, R. (2011b). *Nomadic theory: The portable Rosi Braidotti*. Columbia University Press.

Buggie-Hunt, T. (2007). *Psychosocial and disability identity development among college students with disabilities*. State University of New York at Buffalo.

Clark/Keefe, K. (2014). Becoming artist, becoming educated, becoming undone: Toward a nomadic perspective of college student identity development. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, *27*(1), 110–134. https://doi.org/10.1080/09518398.2012.737048

Halverson, E. R., & Sheridan, K. (2014). The maker movement in education. *Harvard Educational Review, 84*(4), 495-504. https://doi.org/10.17763/haer.84.4.34j1g68140382063

Forber-Pratt, A. J., Minotti, B. J., Burdick, C. E., Kate Brown, M., & Hanebutt, R. A. (2021). Exploring disability identity with adolescents. *Rehabilitation Psychology, 66*(4), 550–564. https://doi.org/10.1037/rep0000411

Forber-Pratt, A. J., Lyew, D. A., Mueller, C., & Samples, L. B. (2017). Disability identity development: A systematic review of the literature. *Rehabilitation Psychology, 62*(2), 198-207. https://doi.org/10.1037/rep0000134

Forber-Pratt, A. J., & Zape, M. P. (2017). Disability identity development model: Voices from the ADA-generation. *Disability and Health Journal, 10*(2), 350–355. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dhjo.2016.12.013

Gill, C. J. (1997). Four types of integration in disability identity development. *Journal of Vocational Rehabilitation, 9*(1), 39–46.https://content.iospress.com/articles/journal-of-vocational-rehabilitation/jvr9-1-06

Macdonald, D., Dew, A., & Boydell, K. M. (2019). Representation and knowledge exchange: A scoping review of photovoice and disability. *Journal of Applied Arts & Health, 10*(2), 185–201. https://doi.org/10.1386/jaah.10.2.185_1

Wang, C., & Burris, M. A. (1997). Photovoice: Concept, methodology, and use for participatory needs assessment. *Health Education & Behavior, 24*(3), 369–387. https://doi.org/10.1177/109019819702400309

Online Civic Engagement, Political Agency, and Sustaining Communities with Informal Education: Negotiating Misogynoir

Lisa R. Brown and Sandra L. Guzman-Foster
University of the Incarnate Word

Abstract: Misogynoir—expressed gender bias and racial discrimination against Black women—studies have been limited in contemporary adult education empiricism. This mixed methods pilot used social media posts, interviews, and an online survey to examine the phenomenon. The research volunteers centered on American Descendants of Slavery (ADOS), aged 19 to 58. A validated psychometric survey was administered to 110 subjects aged 19 to 82. Results did not support the propositions of a *gender war* between ADOS men and women. Perception of Black women being undesirable partners was significant at the $p <$ .01 alpha level. Black women perceived Black men as the key influencers of misogynoir themes compared to white men. However, the collectivist higher-order thinking to support a national reparations project was notable in Black men.

Keywords: civic engagement, informal adult education, online gender wars, misogynoir, Spiral Dynamic Theory

The attention garnered through the *#MeToo* movement shined a salient spotlight on allowing a voice to women negatively impacted by sexual, mental, and physical abuse. The *MeToo movement* has its genesis in the work of community activist Tarana Burke (Sherwood, 2019), who for years worked with survivors (mainly low-income young Black women) of sexual violence seeking pathways for healing. Notably, white feminist celebrities used the branding of the *MeToo* slogan as a Twitter hashtag, thereby redirecting the empathy work of Ms. Burke toward their seeking redress for perceived oppression and sexual power-plays by white men in Hollywood (Mueller et al., 2020).

In another instance, racist social media attacks by *Twitter Trolls* were directed at actress Leslie Jones (Lawson, 2018) following her role in the *Ghostbusters* film remake. The attacks on Jones's appearance offer another contemporary example of Black woman feature-shaming and anti-Blackness directed at a well-known and popular Black woman celebrity. Racial and emotional violence alongside the cultural erasure of Black femininity in the public sphere (Gaines, 2017) has been interpreted as misogynoir (Bailey & Trudy, 2018) in this study. The phenomenon includes emotionally and psychologically daunting memes in American popular culture. For example, a kerfuffle surrounding the emotional outburst of Serena Williams at the 2018 U.S. Open for women's tennis led to the creation of an arguably racist cartoon (Baron, 2018) of her as an exaggerated angry Black woman (Figure 1) reminiscent of the *Black Mammie* caricature discussed in Collins's (2014) writings.

The 2020 shooting of entertainer *Meg The Stallion* by Rapper Tori Lanez, which led to his trial and subsequent conviction for the crime, only seemed to garner what Lane (2021) described

Figure 1
Misogynoir imagery of Serena Williams at the 2018 U.S. Open

as an elusion[1] of grief and empathy toward his Black female victim. This pilot study encased the uniquely American experiences of Black women (and men) negotiating the double jeopardy of race and sex. We examine where imposed misogynoir was a mediating factor for those who share a historical legacy of chattel slavery and struggles with Black self-love. The study occurs within an emerging national Black American reparations project and political movement intended to bring this specific ethnic group comprehensive repair in the United States.

Background

Webber (2017) cites an ongoing double standard and obstruction of sexual agency for Black women who must negotiate misogynoir in the context of what has been described as Black male patriarchy (Charleston, 2014). The literature has also addressed the role of hip-hop and rap music as sources for what is being described as adversarial attitudes toward Black male-female relationships (Bryant, 2008) and, more recently, the use of Afrofuturism terminology as a subversive means to control even the "speculation fiction" futures of Black women (Williams, 2017; Johnson, 2015, p. 265). Notably, the February 2018 release of the Black Panther film (Alfonso & Coogler, 2018) created excitement for its powerful depictions of strong Black women in the imaginary African nation of Wakanda. Yet, a seminal work in Black feminist thought entitled *Mammies, matriarchs, and other controlling images* (Collins, 2014) cautioned readers about the dangers of promoting negative cultural tropes and caricatures of Black women that lead to their socioeconomic devastation and representations as "unfeminine [emasculating] matriarchs" (p. 75). Following the Film's release, Black women in online discussion forums described their exasperation with the narrative that Black women were expected to always be strong and self-sacrificing, even to the detriment of their health and well-being.

In their critiques, women-centered social media forums like Lipstick Alley and Black women content creators on YouTube took issue with the cultural tendencies to view Black women as less feminine (than non-Black women). The representations of the Dora Milaje soldiers—

[1] an eluding; escape or avoidance by quickness or cunning

especially dark-skinned Black women depicted in the Film—serving in masculine fighting roles while they pledged obedience and allegiance to protect the nation and the throne of the Black male monarchy (i.e., Black Panther) was viewed—per the online discourse as objectionable by some of the Black women discussants.

Similar critiques resurfaced with the 2022 release of the Black female-dominated cast of *Woman King* (Prince-Bythewood, 2022), written and directed by a trio of white females. Acts of violence in the opening scenes showed the brutal fight between an African female Dahomey Warrior—an area now known as Benin West Africa—and an African male antagonist who mercilessly struck the woman. Such graphic violence against a non-Black woman character (especially a white female) is typically not tolerated in contemporary pop films intended for commercial consumption. Additionally, in social media spaces, there were criticisms about the messaging of the movie and its attempt to *whitewash* the violence of the African female warriors via attempting to portray the Dahomey Amazons as reluctant slave traders when the historical record shows the opposite of such propaganda (Black Pigeon Speaks, 2022).

In summary, the production and promotion of negative tropes about Black women and how such images develop and persist in undermining the healthy psychology of maturing adults require our attention and study within the context of an evolving digital age. This mixed methods study seeks to bridge the gaps in the literature by examining Misogynoir using Spiral Dynamic Theory as an adult development theoretical framework for conducting empirical research.

Literature Review

Based on the research of Brown (2023; 2018) and Clare Graves (2005), the Spiral Dynamic Theory (SDT) framework was used in this pilot study holding that adult developmental thinking occurs within a biopsychosocial system model (Beck & Cowan, 2006; Brown, 2016, Purdy, 2013) that incorporates factors of human biology, psychology (thoughts, emotions, and behaviors), and sociology in integral ways that contribute to healthy human relationships.

Memes and Human Imitation

This research used memetic science literature (Brown, 2016; Blackmore, 1996, 1998) as an element of the SDT theoretical framework to study adult developmental thinking within contemporary life in the United States for Black American ADOS. The SDT framework (Figure 2) descriptively enters the domain of epigenetic sciences, particularly the field of biology, by associating the natural sciences' genetic inheritance construct of a gene to the social science construct termed memes—behavioral units of culture that are transferred non-genetically through human imitations—in this research (Beck & Cowan, 2006; Brown, 2019; & Dawkins, 1976). This study held that misogynoir (within the confines of a racialized society) occurred memetically due to how human beings imitate each other in transferring specific types of worldviews, values, and thinking.

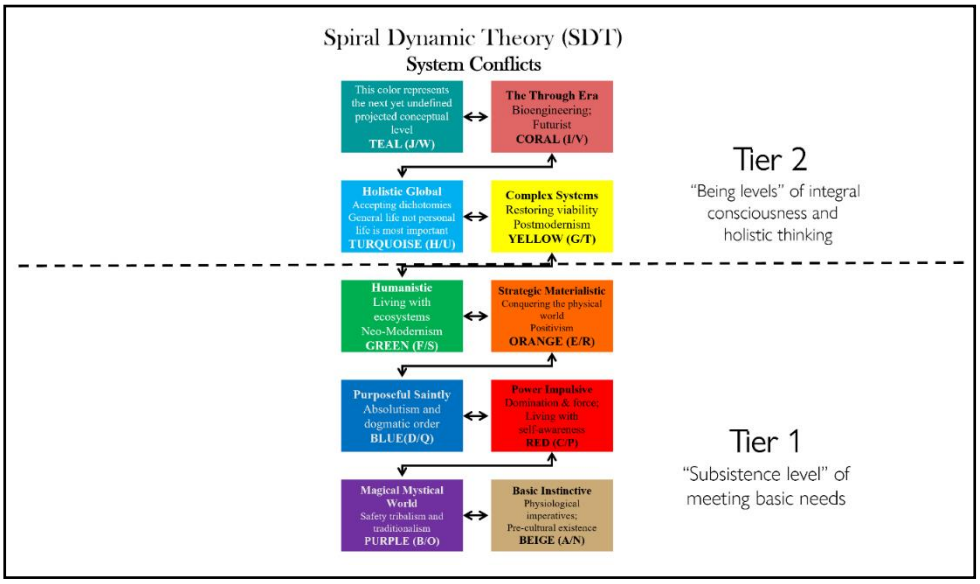
SDT Theoretical Framework

SDT holds that everyone possesses surface-level, hidden, and deep value systems (Cowan & Todorovic, 2000) that operate in conjunction with our unique ways of interpreting, problem-solving, and negotiating life based upon specific typologies of worldviews. Each memetically

color-coded worldview is characterized by its unique axiology, epistemology, ontology, and neuropsychology capacity to problem-solve (Brown, 2023). As healthy adults mature, their ways of thinking about the world have the potential to evolve, moving from simplistic to more complex thinking. Values-based memes (i.e., ^{V}MEME), represented on the SDT framework, offer a unique deep-value meta-ontology. The evolving SDT constructivist adult development theory is expressed on the individual, organizational, and societal levels (Beck & Cowan, 2006, Brown, 2016).

Figure 2

The Spiral Dynamic Theory Hierarchical Framework of Worldview Systems



Historically, academic educational theories that examined human developmental processes have centered on children and adolescents from predominantly white cultural backgrounds (Erikson, 1959; Piaget, 1954; Vygotsky, 1978). A lack of literature connects how Black American ADOS adults' thinking changes over time as one matures. Unlike Erikson's (1959) stage theory of role delineation—which focus on adolescents who are moving toward adulthood as they navigate self-identity—SDT introduces memetically emergent open-ended evolutionary stages (Brown, 2016) of adult development not yet applied to research the phenomenon of social media engagements and gender-based relationship interactions between Black American ADOS.

Deep Value Systems

On the SDT framework (Figure 2), five individualistic *me-oriented* ^{v}MEME Themata are on the right side of the SDT framework, represented by the beige, red, orange, yellow, and coral colors. There are also more self-sacrificial and collectivist *we-oriented* Themata on the framework's left side, represented by the colors purple, blue, green, turquoise, and teal. (Brown, 2019; Cowan & Todorovic, 2000; Graves, 2005). The SDT theoretical framework provided a means to interpret the diverse and emergent thinking that impacted this pilot study's dependent variable of misogynoir. Each color-coded construct on the SDT framework has an associated capital letter code that symbolizes conditions without (i.e., the external problem an adult faces) and a latent

system within (i.e., the internal neuropsychology representing an adult's ability to problem-solve). A forward slash mark separates the first capital letter then a second capital letter exists for each of the ten identified and distinct SDT worldview constructs. For example, with the color-coded C/P RED system, a person would possess a C-type problem that a P-type neuropsychology addresses. The inherent conflicts between problem types and one's capacity to solve the problem facilitate forward hierarchical movement or regression (stagnation) along the spiraling framework.

Methodology and Research Design

This mixed methods pilot study design (Figure 3) was conducted for development, triangulation purposes, and the convergence of stories (Greene et al., 1989). Face-to-face semi-structured question protocols were used to interview five study participants. The study includes mixed methods at the level of the *research questions*, *data collection*, and *final analysis* (Greene, 2007). The research design had two concurrent phases: recorded and thematically coded interviews and the simultaneous completion of an online psychometric—researcher-developed and validated—survey instrument to capture the distinct color-coded SDT worldview constructs statistically. No questions on the survey were created to detect the lowest-order mnemonically colored (Beige) thinking construct.

The recruited sample was highly educated, and the supposition was not for them to have presented with lower-order thinking. The survey was a preexisting verified instrument used in other studies and publications (Brown, 2016, 2018). Participants were selected through purposeful sampling for face-to-face interviews and recruited to take the survey using a modified random sample. Universities with minority affairs or diversity programs were contacted by researchers and asked if they would distribute the flyer to the students accessing their offices or faculty who could share the hyperlink with potential subjects who were Black-identifying men and women. We also used an email listserv from the university and shared invitations to participate via a flyer with an embedded hyperlink for the subjects to access the self-administered survey instrument. The following research questions guided the study: 1). *How is misogynoir realized for Black American women at work and in popular culture displayed in online nonformal learning spaces*? 2). *Which typologies of SDT worldview were statistically significant among the study sample group and their implications for praxis*? The pilot included the following hypotheses, H_1: Black Americans ADOS descendants of U.S. slaves will statistically show greater SDT collectivist thinking by gender. The null hypothesis held, H_o: There will be no statistical difference in the SDT memetic worldviews between study subjects by gender. One hundred and ten (110) online surveys were completed and used in the statistical analysis.

Data Collection

Interview data were collected from adults who had completed at least a high school education (Table 1). The site interviews took place at the homes of two of the volunteers, and three others Interviews occurred in a private location provided by the researcher on campus. The last interview took place in a private meeting room at a local YMCA. Collectivism was hypothesized to be more prevalent among the Black American ADOS volunteers in this pilot study due to concepts of social empathy theory (Sirin et al., 2016) being present among African American participants with a cultural history connected to slavery in the United States.

Figure 3
Mixed Methods Research Design

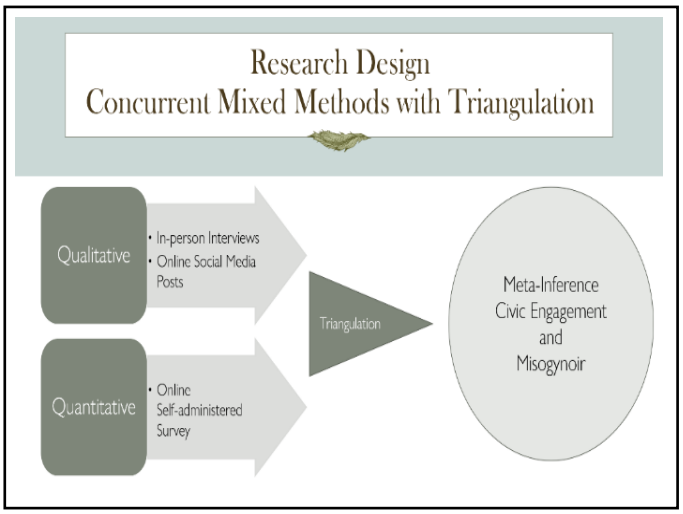


Table 1
In-person volunteer participant interview demographics

Pseudonym	Gender	Self-identified Race	Age	Marital Status	Level of Education
Coach	Male	Black	46	Married	B.A./Masters
Veronica	Female	Black	58	Married	Masters
Wise[δ]	Male	Black	46	Married	Some College
Wanda	Female	Black	52	Married	Some College
Abba[δ]	Female	Mixed Black	27	In a relationship	Master's Degree
Eric	Male	Black	19	Single	College Sophomore

[δ] *Participant quotes used for the qualitative data analysis coding*

Data Analysis

The researchers used open coding and discourse analysis of the interview data. The responses were systematically categorized using color-coded markers to categorize them into their corresponding SDT themes quantitatively (Table 2) and using interpretive qualitative and descriptive hierarchical worldview construct levels based on the coding expertise of the SDT-trained researcher (see Figure 10). The "mixing" occurred at the level of the data collection method and the triangulated findings (see Figure 3 research design), where the study found complementarity between the quantitative and qualitative data analysis and provided a meta-inference about civic engagement and experiences of misogynoir.

Table 2.
Correlation among variables

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Generation	1.											
2	Gender	.06	1.										
3	Country	-.05	.09	1.									
4	Highest Education	.24*	.04	.22*	1.								
5	Work Status	.17	.13	.03	.08	1.							
6	Race	-.15	-.01	-.03	-.09	-0	1.						
7	Income	.37**	.16	-.08	.29**	.13	.03	1.					
8	Marital Status	.34**	.16	-.03	.18	.18	.08	.36**	1.				
9	Ugly Perception B.W.	.33**	.28**	0	.15	.12	.01	.36**	.26**	1.			
10	Angry Perception B.W.	.19*	-.19*	.03	.27**	.02	.13	.27**	.02	.41**	1.		
11	Argumentative B.W.	-.09	-.22*	-.01	-.18	.06	.13	.06	-.06	.05	.24*	1.	
12	Turquoise_vMEME	0	-.28**	.05	-.03	.02	.01	.17	-.04	-.01	-.02	.09	1.

Note N=110. ∗ p <.05; ∗∗ p <.01

Findings and Major Themes. The Black ADOS women in this sample indicated that white men (μ=3.36; *SD* = 1.86) followed by Black men (μ=3.60; *SD* = 1.49)—and to a lesser degree, white women (μ=1.16; *SD* = 1.57) and Black women (μ=1.03; *SD* = 1.68)—were the primary agents of the six misogynoir variables in the two-way cross-classification table embedded in the online survey instrument. In some instances, Black men were viewed as being equally or more oppressive toward Black women than whites or other Black women relative to the economic exploitation variable. Disaggregated data showed that in this sample, ADOS subjects perceived white men and white women as the highest group (86.4%) to exercise the misogynoir indicator of employment discrimination against Black women.

Figure 4
Misogynoir romantic partner violence

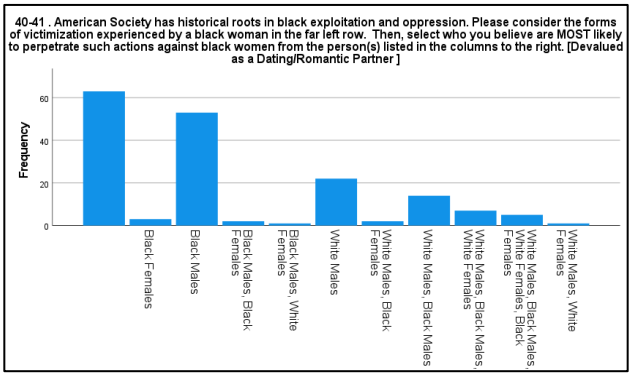


Figure 5
Misogynoir employment discrimination

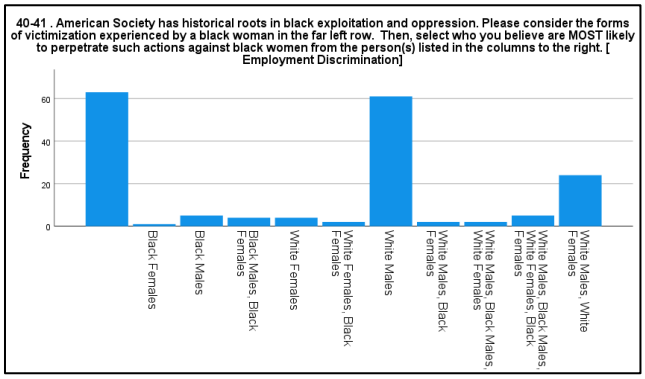


Figure 6
Misogynoir economic/financial exploitation

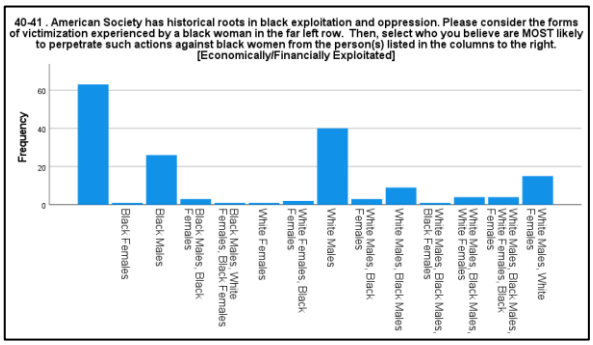


Figure 7
Misogynoir sexual abuse and manipulation

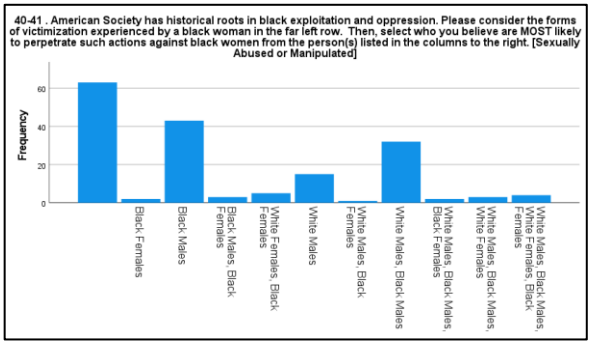
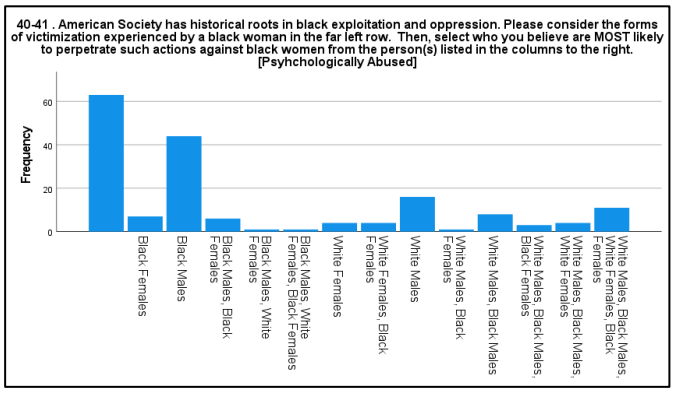
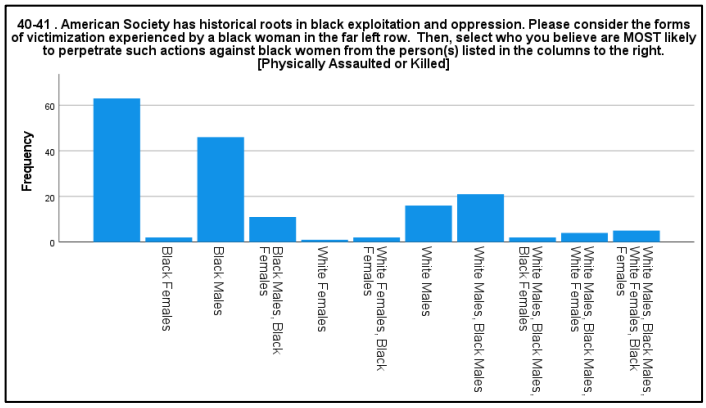


Figure 8
Misogynoir psychological abuse



The null hypothesis H_o is rejected. This sample's survey participants (Black women and men) were primarily more collectivist in their thinking, holding to the F/S Green SDT worldview thinking (μ = 1.77, *S.D.* = .42) as the most dominant typology. Additionally, Black ADOS men presented more strongly for the Turquoise SDT higher-order thinking (μ=1.74; *S.D.* =.44) than Black women (μ=2.10; *S.D.* =.50).

Figure 9
Misogynoir concerns for physical assault or being killed

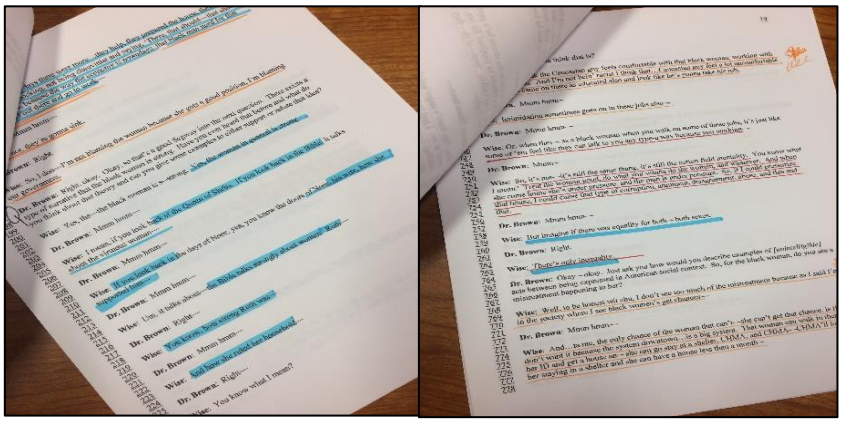


The Black ADOS women in this sample indicated that Black men (μ=3.60; *SD* = 1.49) followed by white men (μ=3.36; *SD* = 1.86)—and to a lesser degree, white women (μ=1.16; *SD* = 1.57) and Black women (μ=1.03; *SD* = 1.68)—were the primary agents of the six misogynoir variables in the two-way cross-classification table embedded in the online survey instrument. In some instances, Black men were viewed as being equally or more oppressive toward Black women than whites or other Black women relative to the economic exploitation variable.

Qualitative Open and Thematic Coding. Below is one of the in-person interview question protocols where the researchers asked the volunteers about their experience with perceptions of acts of misogynoir. The protocol item was designed to collect the respondent's perceptions of racial discrimination and sexism in the workplace. Below are the direct quotes from the participants. The data was in vivo coded (Figure 10) using the SDT framework color mnemonic constructs as a guide for categorical placement (Jugessur, 2022).

Figure 10

Discourse analysis using Spiral Dynamic Theory categorical color-coding markers.



One of the researchers had interpretive content expertise in using and classifying the SDT [v]MEMEs and could provide rich and deep interpretive descriptions and connections between the interview volunteers' responses to the associated thematic thinking and problem-solving typologies. For example, interview protocol question five is selected below to display the interpretive analysis process.

#5. Recently, Black males' encounters with Black females have been compared in articles to white racism, where Black men embrace white patriarchal oppression that devalues Black women. Do you find valid an argument that Black males in American society mirror U.S. racist and sexist ideologies in their engagement with Black women?

"Cause I think the Caucasian guy feels comfortable with that Black woman, working with that Black woman. And I'm not bein' racist I think that…Caucasian guy feel a lot uncomfortable if a Black man came on there as educated also and look like he's gonna take his job."

Wise *(44-year-old Black man)*

The response to question five offered by Wise was coded as SDT Orange (i.e., the *Strategic Materialism* worldview) in large part because he avoided answering the question and pivoted to centering himself as a Black man and how he perceived that a Black woman has an easier time in the workplace. Hence, in a manipulative and strategic way, Wise avoided addressing white male patriarchy, work-based oppression, or the discrimination experienced by Black women in the workforce.

The response by Abba to question five was SDT coded as partly red (*Power Impulsive*) and entering a more dominant Blue (*Purposeful/Saintly*) self-sacrificial worldview construct. Abba was very angry and upset about what she perceived as misogynoir directed at her by the Black male boss supporting the new and younger white female co-worker. Abba expressed in the interview that she knew the new hire had far less work experience than she did. She was visibly upset that her Black male supervisor did not welcome her questioning the employment decision and had such a negative and humiliating verbal response.

"When I approached the Black manager [about a white female co-worker] I was more surprised at how he responded to me than the white guy. He was like, 'No! Like you trippin'. I think you are overstepping your boundaries right now. She's younger, she has more fresher brighter ideas. They brought her here on that salary and really, it's none of your business and I don't have to explain it to you.' I was like WOW ok".

Abba (a 27-year-old Black woman)

Abba did not pursue the matter any further. She seemed to accept the authority and power exerted by her supervisor. She did not do anything more about the unfairness she had perceived under the circumstances of that worksite.

Discussion

Considering praxis and the necessary political activism needed to advance reparations coalition building, the quantitative data suggests that Black American ADOS, as a group, is well positioned to support such a project on a national scale collectively. However, such support may be limited when qualitatively assessed and taken on the level of an individual ADOS person and their attitude towards group-specific acts of solidarity, with race and gender being moderating variables. In general, the strong collectivist nature of the thinking reflected in this sample group is consistent with the literature (Brown, 2023; Brown, McCray, & Neal, 2023) claiming that *affective* adult education can lead to successful civic and community engagement when coupled with active adult learning required to support something such as a national reparations project.

Limitation

Replicating the pilot study on a larger scale could increase statistical reliability and validity results. Another limitation is that there was no equal chance of selection for the survey from the population universe (i.e., traditional random sampling). Convenience sampling was used to recruit volunteers for the interviews. Therefore, results from this pilot study should be viewed with caution as not generalizable to the larger population of Black ADOS in the U.S.

Conclusion

The internet through social media (though virtual) can exist like a *real physical world* of embodied knowing (Tisdell, 2003) that strongly reinforces the study participants' beliefs, values, and online perceptions of reality. The findings from this sample do indicate empirical and interpretive perceptions of misogynoir (broadly conceptualized) being experienced by Black American women in this study. Black men viewed white men as the primary promoters of the negative, angry Black women trope, while Black women thought Black men advanced such stereotypes. In this sample, statistically, Black women were less likely than Black men to challenge incidents of misogynoir in online nonformal adult learning spaces. However, statistically, Black ADOS men more frequently indicated that they would challenge the civic engagement of other Black men who posted negative memes and images (e.g., misogynoir) projecting violence or intending to insult Black women in online informal adult learning spaces.

References

Alfonso, V. (Producer), & Coogler, R. D. (Director). (2018). Black Panther [Motion picture]. USA: Marvel Studios.

Brown, L. R. (2023). Reparations and adult education: Civic and community engagement for lifelong learners. In W.A. Darity, L. Hubbard, & K.A. Mullen (Eds.), *The Black reparations project: A handbook for racial justice* (pp. 147-173). UC Berkeley Press.

Brown, L. R. (2019). Comparing graduate student civic engagement outcomes among for-profit and public university adult learners in Chile. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 22*(4), 81–112.

Brown, L. R. (2016). Civic engagement activities and outcomes in Chilean private for-profit and public graduate education. [Electronic Dissertation]. Athens, GA: The University of Georgia.

Brown, L.R., McCray, P. & Neal, J. (2023). Creating affective collaborative adult teams and groups guided by Spiral Dynamic Theory. In D. Guralnick et al. (Eds.), *Innovative approaches to technology-enhanced learning for the workplace and higher education*, (pp. 81–96). *Springer Publishing*. https://doi.org /10.1007/978-3-031-21569-8_8

Bailey, M., & Trudy. (2018). On misogynoir: Citation, erasure, and plagiarism. *Feminist Media Studies, 18*(4), 762–768. https://doi.org/10.1080/14680777.2018.1447395

Baron, S. (2018, September 11). *'The world has just gone crazy': Cartoonist, newspaper defend Serena Williams caricature*. CBC. https://www.cbc.ca/sports/tennis/herald-sun-defend-mark-knight-cartoon-serena-williams-1.4818636

Beck, D. E., & Cowan, C. C. (2006). *Spiral dynamics: Mastering values, leadership, and change*. Blackwell.

Black Pigeon Speaks. (2022, September 24). *The woman king: #BlackTwitter erupts in fury* [Video]. YouTube. https://youtu.be/FZyERhrneL0

Blackmore, S. (1996). Memes, minds and selves. *Science Tribune*. http://www.tribunes.com /tribune/art98/blac.htm

Bryant, Y. (2008). Relationships between exposure to rap music videos and attitudes toward relationships among African American youth. *Journal of Black Psychology, 34*(3), 356-380. https://doi.org/10.1177 /0095798408314141

Charleston, K. (2014). Act like a lady, think like a patriarch: Black masculine identity formation within the context of romantic relationships. *Journal of Black Studies, 45*(7), 660-678. https://doi.org/10.1177 /0021934714549461

Collins, P. H (2014). Mammies, matriarchs, and other controlling images. *Black Feminist Thought* (2nd ed.) (pp. 69–96). Routledge.

Cowan, C. C., & Todorovic, N. (2000). Spiral dynamics. *Strategy & Leadership, 28*(1), 4-11. DOI:10.1108 /10878570010335912

Dawkins, R. (1976). *The selfish gene*. Oxford University Press.

Dawlabani, S.E. & Beck, D.E. (2013). *Memenomics the next generation economic system*. [Kindle version]. Retrieved from Amazon.com. Select Books Inc.

Erikson, E. H. (1959). Identity and the life cycle: Selected papers. *Psychological issues, (1)*1, 1-171.

Gaines, Z. (2017). A Black girl's song: Misogynoir, love, and Beyoncé's Lemonade. *Taboo: The Journal of Culture & Education*, *16*(2), 97–114. https://doi.org/10.31390/taboo.16.2.09

Graves, C.W. (2005). *The never ending quest*. In C. Cowan & N. Todorovic (Eds.). ECLET Publishing.

Greene, J.C. (2007). *Mixed methods in social inquiry*. Jossey-Bass.

Greene, J., Caracelli, V., & Graham, W. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 11*(3), 255-274. https://doi.org/10.3102/01623737011003255

Johnson, D. (2015). Misogynoir and antiBlack racism: What the walking dead teaches us about the limits of Speculative Fiction fandom. *Journal of Fandom Studies ,3*(3), 259-275. https://doi.org/10.1386/jfs.3.3.259_1

Jugessur, Y.S.M.F. (2022). In vivo coding qualitative data analysis methodology adapted, contextualized into 7 stages and applied to data from interview, focus group and case study in school enterprises. *International Journal Humanities and Social Science Invention (IJHSSI), 11*(5), 30–36.

Knight, M. (2018). *Serena Williams' temper tantrum at the U.S. Open* [Photograph]. Sun Herald. https://www.heraldsun.com.au/news/opinion/editorial-mark-knights-cartoon-rightly-mocks-serena-williams-us-open-finals-dummyspit/news-story/bff3c329c6c706b966636620bcb21be7

Lane, Nikki. (2021). Ratchet Black lives matter: Megan Thee Stallion, intra-racial violence, and the elusion of grief. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology, 31*(2), 293-297. https://doi.org/10.1111/jola.12323

Lawson, C. (2018). Platform vulnerabilities: Harassment and misogynoir in the digital attack on Leslie Jones. *Information Communication and Society, 21*(6), 818-833. DOI:10.1080/1369118X.2018.1437203

Mueller, A., Wood-Doughty, Z., Amir, S., Dredze, M., & Nobles, A. L. (2021, April 22). Demographic representation and collective storytelling in the me too Twitter hashtag activism movement. *Proceedings of the ACM on Human-Computer InteractionVolume 5 (*107), 1–28. Cornell University Library. https://doi.org/10.1145/3449181

Piaget, J. (1954). *Construction of reality in the child*. Basic Books.

Prince-Bythewood, G. (2022). *A warrior becomes legend: The woman king*. [Film]. TriStar Pictures.

Purdy, E. P. (2013). Biopsychosocial model [Online Encyclopedia]. Hackensack, NJ: *Salem Press Encyclopedia*.

Sherwood, I.-H. (2019, February 18). Q&AA: GIVING VOICE; Me Too founder Tarana Burke discusses the next phase of marketing a movement that's changing the world. *AdAge, 90*(4), 0018. https://link-gale-com.uiwtx.idm.oclc.org/apps/doc/A575071049/GBIB?u=txshracd2623&sid=bookmark-GBIB&xid=930b81f2

Sirin, C., Valentino, N., & Villalobos, J.D. (2016). Group empathy theory: The effect of group empathy on U.S. intergroup attitudes and behavior in the context of immigration threats. *Journal of Politics, 78*(3), 893–908. https://doi-org.uiwtx.idm.oclc.org/10.1086/685735

Tisdell, E. J. (2003). *Exploring spirituality and culture in adult and higher education*. Jossey-Bass.

Webber, M.E. (2017). "We don't love these hoes": Exploring misogynoir and Black male patriarchy through sexual double standards, (Master of Arts in Sociology 10280811), The University of North Carolina at Charlotte. https://uiwtx.idm.oclc.org/login?url=https://www.proquest.com/dissertations-theses/we-dont-love-these-hoes-exploring-misogynoir/docview/1900208337/se-2

Williams, F.G. (2017). Afrocentrism, hip-hop, and the "Black Queen": Utilizing hip-hop feminist methods to challenge controlling images of Black women. *McNair Scholars Research Journal, 10*(1), 211-233. https://commons.emich.edu/mcnair/vol10/iss1/16

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.

ResearchYOU: A Faculty-Led Undergraduate Co-Curricular Research Experience

Tomika W. Greer, Melika Shirmohammadi, Olivia D. Johnson, and Barbara L. Stewart
University of Houston

Abstract: ResearchYOU! is a co-curricular research experience designed to improve undergraduate student research skills at a Hispanic-serving institution and provide research mentoring for undergraduate students who may not typically have access to social science research experiences. This multi-faculty capacity-building research experience is composed of three components: (1) learning and development of research skills through virtual synchronous workshops, (2) performing research tasks under the mentorship of faculty members, and (3) submission of a research poster presentation for the University Undergraduate Research Day. In this paper, we describe the inaugural year of the program and present preliminary data that point to initial impacts of the program.

Keywords: undergraduate research, research capacity-building, program implementation, program evaluation, Hispanic-serving institution (HSI)

ResearchYOU! is a co-curricular research experience designed to improve undergraduate student research skills and provide research mentoring for undergraduate students who may not typically have access to social science research opportunities at a Hispanic-serving institution. In this paper, we describe the inaugural year of the program and present preliminary data that point to initial impacts. We begin with background literature, then describe the program design, implementation, and preliminary data from the evaluation. Finally, we discuss our lessons learned and next steps for ResearchYOU!.

Background

The design, development, and implementation of ResearchYOU! was motivated by two gaps within the extant literature on undergraduate research experiences. First, an overwhelming number of studies have focused on STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) related fields, according to a recent systematic review, including 67 studies published between 2011 and 2021 (Ahmad & Al-Thani, 2022). Scholars have called for further research on undergraduate research experiences across social sciences (Haege et al., 2020), including applied fields such as the two represented in ResearchYOU! – human resource development and retailing and consumer sciences. The nature and process of research employed in social sciences differs from research in STEM fields, calling for special designs and activities as demonstrated in ResearchYOU!. Second, most existing research has focused on course-based research experiences to engage undergraduate students. Course-based experiences, however, may be limited in reaching students in fields without required research components, or students from under-served groups with limitations in accessing extra-curricular opportunities (Pierszalowski et al., 2021). As a co-curricular program, ResearchYOU! included workshops and faculty-mentored projects to leverage faculty strengths and tailor the undergraduate research experience to the target student population.

Undergraduate research experiences provide benefits to students, faculty, and institutions. For underrepresented and/or underserved students, undergraduate research experiences serve as important paths for building analytical and social cognitive skills while improving access to professional development opportunities through interactions with faculty mentors. Faculty who mentor undergraduate research students can also reap benefits from student assistance and contributions to research projects. For institutions, undergraduate research participation provides opportunities to increase the representation and success of students in career pathways, maintain a reputation for excellence in research, and meet national needs related to a workforce equipped with research and problem-solving skills.

The ResearchYOU! program is based on the research process, inherently a problem-solving process. Scott's (2017) framework for problem-based learning identified six individual-level outcomes of problem-based learning. Among others, these outcomes include problem-solving skills, collaboration skills, and a flexible knowledge base. According to Scott (2017), achieving these outcomes depends on the authenticity, challenge, clarity, and familiarity of the initial problem. Additionally, the team environment with problem-based learning should be demographically diverse and include effective learning facilitators and scaffolding mechanisms. Finally, the learners, themselves, should be motivated, possessing self-directed learning skills and perceived autonomy in working on the problem. In accordance with Scott's (2017) problem-based learning framework, ResearchYOU! students are expected to learn problem-solving skills, effective oral and written communication skills, and teamwork skills.

Program Design and Implementation

In the ResearchYOU! program, a group of ten students was mentored in small groups by the four participating faculty mentors and experienced the co-curricular program as a cohort, allowing them to benefit from a community of their peers while in the research environment. This collaborative research experience was composed of three components: (1) learning and development of research skills through virtual synchronous workshops, (2) performing research tasks under the mentorship of faculty members, and (3) submission of a research poster presentation for the University Undergraduate Research Day. The program was supplemented with social activities including a kick-off meeting and end-of-the-semester celebration.
The inaugural year of the program commenced in January 2022. The virtual workshops were advertised to the University community to increase participation from across the campus and increase the impact of ResearchYOU!. In total, 140 students attended the workshops in the first year, averaging about 18 students per workshop. Additionally, the ten research assistants who were selected to participate in the mentored research experiences completed the Institutional Research Board (IRB) research ethics training course (18 modules) offered by the Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI). The learning objectives and activities for each workshop are presented below.

1. **Preparing to be a Researcher (2 hours)**
   Learning Objectives: Students will be able to (1) describe barriers to effective communication and group work; (2) identify their communication styles and time management strategies; (3) reflect on ways to improve communication and time

management skills; (4) describe the importance of research ethics and plan to complete the IRB training.
Interactive activities: Online polling, think-pair-share, peer and faculty feedback

2. **Introduction to Research (2 hours)**
   Learning Objectives: Students will be able to (1) describe the research process in social and behavioral sciences and the main steps involved in it; (2) describe the inductive and deductive research approaches; (3) distinguish between qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods research; and (4) formulate a research question and apply the characteristics of good research questions.
   Interactive activities: Online polling, panel discussion, peer and faculty feedback

3. **Content Analysis with Qualitative Data (2 hours)**
   Learning Objectives: Students will be able to (1) describe content analysis and its different types; (2) describe the components of a research article; (3) code a research article in a literature review matrix; and (4) apply content analysis strategies to artifacts, interview data, and social media data.
   Interactive activities: Coding data demonstration, hands-on activity coding data, online polling, think-pair-share, peer and faculty feedback

4. **Survey Development for Quantitative Research (2 hours)**
   Learning Objectives: Students will be able to (1) describe appropriate applications of quantitative methodologies; (2) distinguish between qualitative and quantitative methods; and (3) use Qualtrics to create a survey.
   Interactive activities: Qualtrics demonstration, hands-on activity creating a survey, peer and faculty feedback

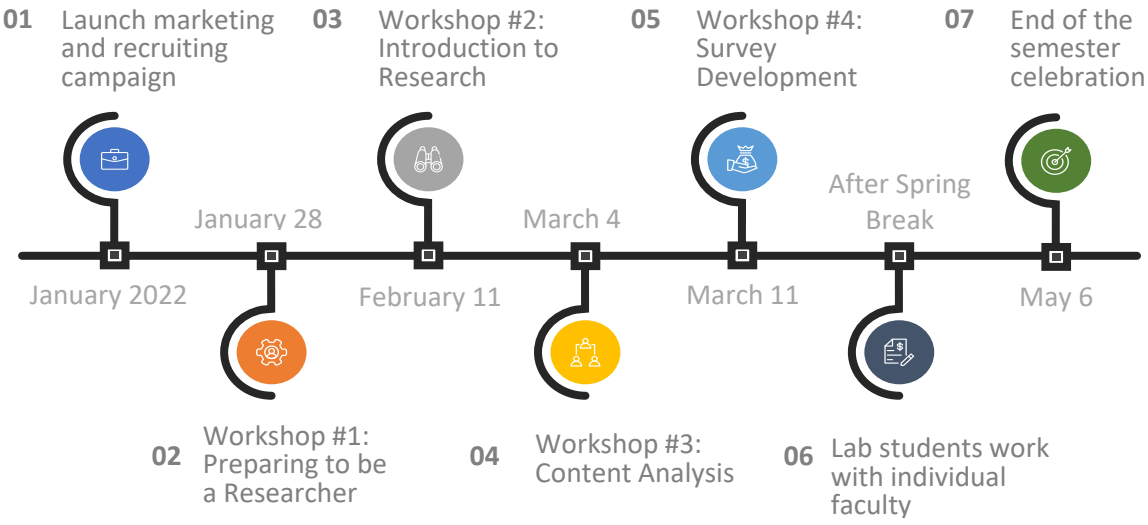
Following completion of the virtual workshops, a selected group of ten students were assigned to one of the four faculty research mentors to participate in mentored research experiences involving hands-on research tasks. These students were chosen based on their workshop attendance, schedule availability, and responses in their application regarding why they wanted to participate in the lab experience and which faculty research areas interested them. The small group research teams benefitted from a low faculty-to-student ratio to offer tailored mentoring for each student. Additionally, the students working in a cohort allowed for the creation of peer mentoring relationships.

The program faculty mentored the undergraduate students in research design, analysis, implementation, and presentation skills. Faculty mentors met with their small group of students once per week to learn and discuss the research process, tasks, and accomplishments. As an outcome of the mentored research experience, students were required to prepare, submit, and present a research poster for a university-sponsored undergraduate research day. Students received coaching from faculty mentors and detailed feedback on their posters and presentations.

Figure 1 shows the detailed schedule for the initial semester of the ResearchYOU! program. The program was on break during the summer of 2022. Resuming in fall 2022, all ten research assistants willingly returned to the program for additional hands-on research experience and final

preparations for Undergraduate Research Day. The program faculty also facilitated the four workshops again, inviting students from the wider university to participate.

Figure 1
Spring 2022 ResearchYOU! Program Schedule



Program Evaluation

Evaluation data were collected via an online survey following each workshop. In this online survey, students were prompted to share demographic information, their level of satisfaction, and what they liked most and least about the workshop. Based on this self-reported data, ResearchYOU! effectively engaged underrepresented racial and ethnic groups and women in co-curricular research experiences. The workshop participants were comprised of 31% Hispanic/Latinx, 29% Asian/Pacific-Islander, 15% African-American/Black, 15% White students and 66% of the participants self-identified as a female. Analysis of the open-ended questions revealed the students described the interactivity (41%) and the content (47%) of the workshops as what they liked most. The length of time (too long) of the workshops is what they liked least (16%) and 33% said there was nothing they "liked least". As shown in Figure 2, most participants were satisfied with the workshop experience.

The ten students who were selected to participate in the mentored research experiences with faculty were invited to complete an IRB-approved survey at the beginning (August) of the fall 2022 semester and at the end (December) of the fall 2022 semester to assess their reactions to the mentored research experiences and their confidence with research competencies that were introduced in the workshop series. Table 1 contains descriptive statistics calculated from their survey responses.

Figure 2
Satisfaction of ResearchYOU! Workshop Participants

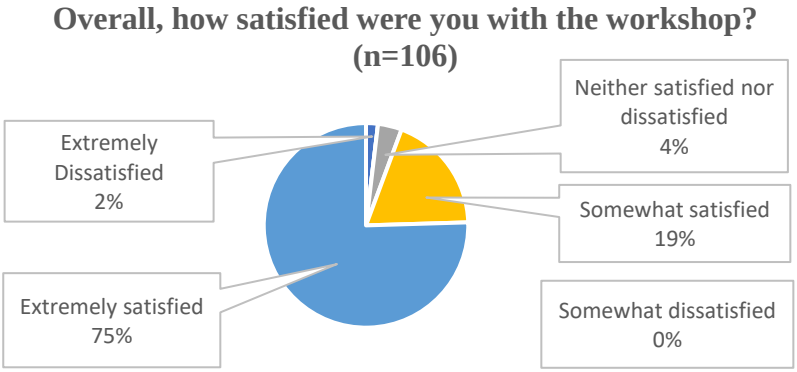


Table 1
Preliminary data from ResearchYOU! Undergraduate Researchers

Survey Measures (1=strongly disagree; 5=strongly agree)	Average for August 2022	Average for December 2022
ResearchYOU! Experience		
Satisfied with research experiences	4.5	4.67
Increased interest in research	4.25	4.67
Faculty interactions positively influenced personal growth	4.5	4.67
Faculty interactions positively influenced intellectual growth	4.5	4.67
Faculty interactions positively influenced interest in research	4.5	4.67
Confidence in Research Competencies		
Find an adequate research question	3.5	4.0
Plan a research project	2.5	4.0
Identify the limitations of my research	3.5	3.7
Plan qualitative data collection	3.25	4.0
Interpret qualitative data	3.75	4.0
Develop instruments for a quantitative study	3.25	3.67
Infer relevant conclusions from quantitative data	2.5	4.0

Discussion

The primary goal of ResearchYOU! is to engage undergraduate students in a co-curricular social science research experience at an HSI. The program was targeted towards underserved students with potentially less access to social science research opportunities (Haege et al., 2020). This focus addressed gaps within the extant undergraduate research literature. Next, we discuss the lessons learned from designing, implementing, and evaluating ResearchYOU!.

Program Design and Implementation

The series of virtual workshops proved to be an effective primer for the mentored undergraduate research experiences. Notably, the workshops were centered on selected learning objectives aligned with faculty expertise and research needs. The workshops were designed to be hands-on,

interactive, and engaging while preparing students with skills they needed to immediately put into practice when working with faculty mentors on research projects (Scott, 2017).

Maintaining a small faculty-to-student ratio during the mentored research experiences enabled faculty to build relationships with individual students and provide authentic mentoring experiences to students. The multi-faculty model also allowed the students to benefit from a synergy emerging from collaboration among faculty. This arrangement also provided students access to multiple mentors and exposed them to different types of research studies, which enhanced their appreciation for social science research. Finally, activities such as the kickoff meeting, end-of-the-semester celebration, and regular meetings with faculty and other students helped to build a community where students felt they belonged to a community of researchers and that research is within reach and something possible for them to pursue.

Program Evaluation

The workshop data gave a broad perspective about participants' initial reactions, their likes, and their dislikes. These data largely indicated that students perceived the workshops to be worthwhile, though most of them had very little previous experience with research. In general, students' responses indicated that they liked the content and interactivity and most students replied that they disliked "nothing". As a result, very few changes were made to the workshop structure or content between semesters.

The quantitative data collected from the mentored students suggested that the students may have increased their confidence in various research skills between August and December 2022 as they worked on research projects with their faculty mentors. The data cannot be analyzed using inferential statistics due to the small sample size; however, continued evaluation efforts with future ResearchYOU! students can contribute to a larger dataset on which to base the purported student outcomes. Additionally, we recognize that some of the survey items may be more or less applicable to individual students, depending on which research skills are required for their mentored research projects. Some of the students focused on qualitative and social media data analysis, while others focused on literature reviews and quantitative data analysis. Consequently, going forward, it will be relevant to know which projects each student worked on to fully understand the context for their survey responses. Qualitative data could also build this context.

Next Steps

At the conclusion of the first year of ResearchYOU!, the program team is committed to securing additional funding to offer workshop incentives and stipends for ResearchYOU! research students. The first year of implementation showed promise for this collaborative learning community program design (e.g., Rae et al., 2006). In the second year of implementation, two additional faculty mentors will be added to the multi-faculty model, allowing the program team to increase the number of mentored research students and maintain a low student-to-faculty ratio. Finally, the team plans to explore opportunities to collaborate with other higher education institutions to expand social science research opportunities for underserved students.

References

Ahmad, Z., & Al-Thani, N. J. (2022). Undergraduate Research Experience Models: A systematic review of the literature from 2011 to 2021. *International Journal of Educational Research, 114*, 101996.

Pierszalowski, S., Bouwma-Gearhart, J., & Marlow, L. (2021). A systematic review of barriers to accessing undergraduate research for STEM students: Problematizing under-researched factors for students of color. *Social Sciences*, *10*(9), 328.

Haeger, H., Banks, J. E., Smith, C., & Armstrong-Land, M. (2020). What we know and what we need to know about undergraduate research. *Scholarship and Practice of Undergraduate Research*, *3*(4), 62-69.

Rae, J. M., Roberts, C. A., & Taylor, G. D. (2006). Collaborative learning: A connected community approach. *Issues in Informing Science and Information Technology*, *3*(3), 519-528.

Scott, K. S. (2017). An integrative framework for problem-based learning and promoting evidence-based design and evaluation in leadership development. *Human Resource Development Review, 16*(1), 3-34.

Exploring the Advising and Communication Experience among International Doctoral Students in Online Learning Environment

Yankun He, Kenan Xiao, and Shuqi Du
Auburn University

Abstract: This study examined the international doctoral students' perceptions of graduate advising and communication with their advisors in online learning environments during the COVID-19 pandemic. This study used semi-structured interviews to investigate how international doctoral students at Auburn University perceive their advising relationships with academic advisors. The finding of this study indicates that lack of guidance and support are the main concerns in the advising relationship for international doctoral students. Moreover, the communication delivery way is not the key point for them to connect with their advisors and influence communication satisfaction with their advisors.

Keywords: doctoral students; advising experience; online education; students' perceptions

The United States has consistently been the most popular study destination among international students. The statistical data from Open Doors (2022) demonstrates that around 950,000 international students were registered at United States higher education institutions, despite a minor decline throughout the COVID-19 pandemic.

The graduate advisor refers to a faulty member that graduate students can consider as their academic advisor, research supervisor, or dissertation chair (Rice et al., 2009). Graduate advisors support their advisees in learning about the academic discipline, the university environment, research, ethics, and a variety of other crucial facets of being an academic professional (Wrench & Punyanunt, 2004). During the COVID-19 pandemic, most universities changed their instructional modes to online learning. Doctoral students had fewer opportunities to communicate physically with their advisors during this period. They had to schedule a meeting via Zoom to keep in touch with their advisor. Maintaining good relationships and communication with their advisor for the doctoral student may be challenging. Given the considerable number of international students in the United States, the advising relationships among international students are worthy of examination.

This study employed semi-structured interviews to explore international doctoral students' perceptions of their graduate advising relationship and communication with their advisors. We interviewed five doctoral students from Computer Science, Education, and Hospitality Department at Auburn University. These international doctoral students were asked to describe their relationships with their advisors, their expectations and concerns for their advisors, and how they communicated with their advisors in the online learning environment. We gather their perceptions of graduate advising relationships from interviews.

Literature Review

International students prefer to study in the United States due to its high-quality research and education, multicultural environment, and professional advancement (Nicholls, 2018). Also, the United States higher education institutions embrace many international students from almost all continents. International students have made significant and positive contributions to America in economic, innovative activity, intellectual, and cultural areas (Adnett, 2010; Sawir, 2013). During the academic year 2021-2022, international students at U.S. colleges and universities contributed $33.8 billion and supported 335,000 jobs to the U.S. economy, according to the Association of International Educators (Ruffner, 2022). Also, they can provide opportunities for domestic instructors, students, and U.S. society to encounter diverse cultures, traditions, and languages. For these reasons, understanding international students' learning experience, retention, and success is important.

International students may have different advisors simultaneously, such as a professional advisor, international student advisor, and faculty advisor. In the U.S. academic environment, the relationship with an advisor is among the most influential factors for graduate students' success (Cross, 2018). According to many studies, academic advising considerably affects college students' persistence and achievement. For instance, they helped students to work on their dissertations and timely completion of the degree (Hilliard, 2013; Lovitts, 2002). International doctoral students may have concerns about their advisor as it relates to communication, supervision, and support caused by several reasons, such as language barriers, cultural differences, imitated availability, different research interests, and limited understanding of United States educational systems (Hughey, 2011; Nguyen, 2013).

Scholars found that the graduate advising relationship profoundly affects the doctoral education (Schlosser et al., 2003). An oppressive advisor-advisee relationship can lead to vicious incidents or issues (Welde & Laursen, 2008). One such issue is the doctoral students experiencing mental problems, project-related delay issues, supervisor-related issues, stress about productivity, uncertain career prospects, and advisor relationship (Barry et al., 2018; Mackie & Bates, 2019). Such evidence shows the critical examination of the graduate advising relationship for international doctoral students is vital to explore empirically.

Methodology

This proceeding is based on five interviews with international doctoral students from Computer Science, Education, and Hospitality Department at Auburn University. The demographic information for participants is in Table 1. The semi-structured, in-depth interview lasted 30 minutes to one hour in duration. Respondents were assured confidentiality, and their identities were anonymized in this proceeding paper. Face-to-face interviews were conducted and audio recorded through Zoom (a video conferencing application). Once all interviews were transcribed verbatim, then emerging themes were identified by the primary researcher. The research group then gathered to discuss the themes that each researcher had generated. The group then determined which central themes were recurring in each interview.

Table 1
Participants' information

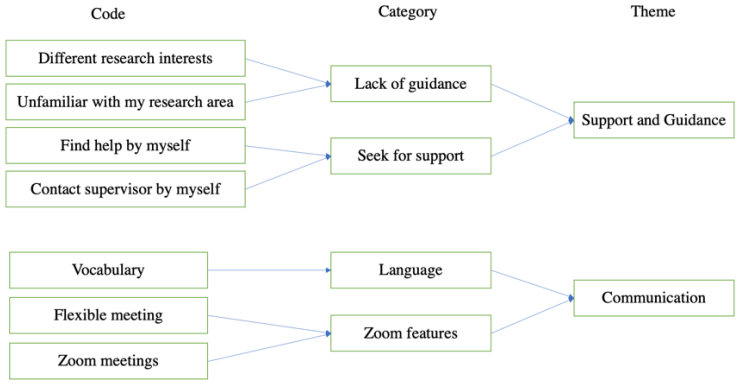
Participants	Gender	Nationality	Age	Ph.D. Program	Years Spent in the Program
A	Male	China	28	Computer Science	5
B	Male	India	32	Computer Science	4
C	Male	China	29	Hospitality	3
D	Female	Iran	36	Education	4
E	Female	China	27	Education	3

Findings

Guidance and Support

We could categorize two themes from participants' perceptions of their graduate advising relationships with their academic advisors: guidance support, and communication in Figure 1. The findings were that doctoral students should identify with their disciplines and research area in Ph.D. programs. Advisors who provide appropriate guidance are helpful to doctoral students.

Figure 1
Coding Process for Themes



Two participants indicated that a poor advisor-advisee relationship comes from a lack of guidance or feedback (e.g., *"When I am stuck in a problem, I solve it myself and explore resolutions from Professor YouTube"* or *"I hope my advisor to give me a clear clue for my research"*). One participant responded that he had different research interest from his advisor's, which led to a lack of guidance and support (e.g., *"My research interest differs from my advisor, who agrees that I continue working on my research. However, he cannot provide enough help in my research because he is not familiar with my topic"*).

Suppose that a student's research interests diverge significantly from their advisor's. In this case, the advisor may not have the same expertise or enthusiasm for the student's project, which can make it difficult for the student to receive the guidance and support they need to complete their research. Moreover, doctoral students' perspectives on advisor guidance may differ from programs. Students in Computer Science Department receive more guidance from their advisor for their projects were collaborated and supported by their advisor and their lab mates. However, doctoral students from none-STEM programs have different research fields and do not have as

many opportunities to work with lab mates as STEM students. A female doctoral student in the hospitality program described that her advisor does not give her guidance on her research, stating,

> *I conduct my research with a professor in business school, for my academic advisor does not have time to be my research supervisor. She focuses on teaching but not on research. So, I contacted my research supervisor by myself. I looked through the business web page and found a professor with my research interests.*

Communication

Regular, functional, and timely communication with an advisor benefits doctoral students. However, international students may face challenges communicating with their advisors, such as language barriers. If the students and advisor do not share a common language, it can be difficult for them to communicate effectively. A male participant told us about his experience in communicating with his advisor (see below).

> *During the first semester, I struggled to understand technical or academic vocabulary in English, which can make it difficult for me to understand instructions or feedback from advisor. And I also felt hesitant or nervous to speak up or ask questions because I am not sure my advisor have already discussed them.*

During the Covid-19 pandemic, the instruction mode shifted from physical face-to-face to online learning. Three doctoral students said they still go to their doctoral student campus offices but changed to online meetings with their advisors. Two participants in the non-STEM program stated that the delivery method did not influence their communication with their advisors because they do not have regular meetings. All participants thought using Zoom to communicate with their advisor did not affect their communication efficiency. One student believed functions like share screen in Zoom were valuable and convenient for them to share data or paper with their advisors:

> *I like to have a meeting with my advisor via Zoom. Zoom has many fantastic features, like content sharing and interactive whiteboarding. These functions make our communication goes smoothly and naturally. I think using Zoom to have a meeting is just like a face-to-face meeting.*

Also, a female doctoral student studying in the education program, she was a teaching assistant. In this case, she has regular meetings with her supervisor, who is the same person as her advisor. She loves using Zoom because it allows meeting sessions with advisors remotely and saves her time and travel expenses.

> *I live in Atlanta, and I need to drive for nearly two hours go to campus. I prefer to use Zoom to contact with my advisor, because I think it is a convenient and efficient way to communicate. I appreciate being able to schedule regular meetings without to travel, which can save me time and money. The price of gas is crazy recently. Also, I think communicating with my advisor through Zoom is less*

intimidating than in-person meetings, for I can talk to my advisor from the comfort of my home.

Discussion

In this study, the international students expected guidance and support from their advisors, and they did not think that the delivery way of the meeting would influence their communication. Using the video conference application to get an appointment during the COVID-19 pandemic makes communication between advisors and advisees relatively easy. Existing study pointed out that apprenticeship, communication satisfaction, identification-individuation, and rapport positively affect students' perceptions of the advising experience (Schlosser & Gelso, 2001). They gave explanations for each term. *Apprenticeship* refers to the part of the advising relationship where advisors promote the advisee's understanding of graduate school tasks, goals, and processes. *Communication satisfaction* means the extent to which individuals accomplish their communication goals and expectations through conversations and other interactions. *Identification-Individuation* refers to that part of the advising relationship that reflects the degree to which the advisee wants to be like the advisor. *Rapport* reflects the advisor's support and encouragement for the advisee.

Although doctoral students have fewer opportunities to contact their advisors, they still indicated they had a good advising experience if they were helpful and kind. Also, they thought communicating with their advisors through Zoom could make them feel less intimidated than in-person meetings, for they could talk to their advisors from the comfort of their homes, where they feel more at ease.

Limitations

There are some limitations in this study. First, the interview sample needed to be larger (Hennink & Kaiser, 2022), which leads this study cannot involve more voices from doctoral students in other doctoral programs and origin countries. Then, the respondents in this study are doctoral students who enrolled in their programs for at least three years. They have time to adapt their programs, advisors, and new culture. Based on the current findings and limitations, future research could consider conducting interviews of focus groups with new international doctoral students who enrolled in their programs in one year. Moreover, a future study could more deeply examine the advisor-advises relationship for international doctoral students with more participants.

References

Adnett, N. (2010). The growth of international students and economic development: Friends or foes? *Journal of Education Policy*, *25*(5), 625-637.

Barry, K. M., Woods, M., Warnecke, E., Stirling, C., & Martin, A. (2018). Psychological health of doctoral candidates, study-related challenges and perceived performance. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *37*(3), 468-483.

Cross, L. K. (2018). Graduate student perceptions of online advising. *NACADA Journal*, *38*(2), 72-80.

Hennink, M., & Kaiser, B. N. (2022). Sample sizes for saturation in qualitative research: A systematic review of empirical tests. *Social science & medicine*, *292*, 114523.

Hilliard, A. T. (2013). Advising Doctorate Candidates And Candidates Views During The Dissertation Process. *Journal of College Teaching & Learning (TLC)*, *10*(1), 7-12.

Hughey, J. K. (2011). Strategies to enhance interpersonal relations in academic advising. *NACADA Journal*, *31*(2), 22-32.

Lovitts, B. E. (2002). *Leaving the ivory tower: The causes and consequences of departure from doctoral study*. Rowman & Littlefield Publishers.

Mackie, S. A., & Bates, G. W. (2019). Contribution of the doctoral education environment to PhD candidates' mental health problems: A scoping review. *Higher Education Research & Development*, *38*(3), 565-578.

Nguyen, H. M. (2013). Faculty advisors' experiences with international graduate students. *Journal of international Students*, *3*(2), 102-116.

Nicholls, S. (2018). Influences on international student choice of study destination: Evidence from the United States. *Journal of international Students*, *8*(2), 597-622.

Rice, K. G., Choi, C.-C., Zhang, Y., Villegas, J., Ye, H. J., Anderson, D., Nesic, A., & Bigler, M. (2009). International student perspectives on graduate advising relationships. *Journal of counseling psychology*, *56*(3), 376.

Ruffner, M. (2022). *New NAFSA Data Reveal International Student Economic Contributions to the U.S. Still Below Pre-Pandemic Levels*. https://www.nafsa.org/about/about-nafsa/new-nafsa-data-reveal-international-student-economic-contributions-us-still-below

Sawir, E. (2013). Internationalisation of higher education curriculum: the contribution of international students. *Globalisation, Societies and Education*, *11*(3), 359-378.

Schlosser, L. Z., & Gelso, C. J. (2001). Measuring the working alliance in advisor–advisee relationships in graduate school. *Journal of counseling psychology*, *48*(2), 157.

Schlosser, L. Z., Knox, S., Moskovitz, A. R., & Hill, C. E. (2003). A qualitative examination of graduate advising relationships: The advisee perspective. *Journal of counseling psychology*, *50*(2), 178.

Welde, K. D., & Laursen, S. L. (2008). The "ideal type" advisor: How advisors help STEM graduate students find their 'scientific feet'. *The Open Education Journal*, *1*(1).

Wrench, J. S., & Punyanunt, N. M. (2004). Advisee-advisor communication: An exploratory study examining interpersonal communication variables in the graduate advisee-advisor relationship. *Communication Quarterly*, *52*(3), 224-236.

Infusing Training with Meaningfulness: An Essential Pairing for Learning?

Laura Holyoke, Heather Ebba Maib, and Tricia Gehrlein
University of Idaho

Abstract: Professional development in higher education is increasingly shifting to online formats. However, online professional development often does not lend itself well to fostering meaningful human interconnection. Taking a constructivist approach, we share findings from a qualitative research study that explored what participants found meaningful in a professional development training based on creating biocratic organizations designed for a student services department. We explain how research findings can be applied to designing and delivering professional development to workgroups.

Keywords: meaning, engagement, professional work-team development

Professional development in higher education is increasingly shifting to online formats. While these approaches often fulfill regulatory training requirements by providing necessary information to employees, they do not necessarily translate into meaningful and engaging learning opportunities. Relearning ways of establishing important human interconnection drives a need to explore how to create meaningful professional development experiences. In this paper, we share preliminary findings from a research study focusing on what participants found meaningful in a professional development training we designed for a higher education student services department. We also share our process of developing and delivering the training and how we incorporated a continuous feedback loop tailoring to the participants' ongoing learning needs (Bloom, 2020). Results from this study underscore the significance of creating innovative professional development opportunities for adult learners that engage them meaningfully. We employ adult learning theories through a trauma-informed perspective and explain how the findings are applied to professional and team development training design.

Related Literature

Before the COVID-19 pandemic, high attrition rates among student services personnel in higher education was a growing concern (Mullen et al., 2018). In the wake of the pandemic, a mass resignation has occurred across professional sectors; however, student service and student affairs professionals in post-secondary education are resigning at such high rates, which has been termed the "mass exodus" (Ellis, 2021). Empathy-based stressors could explain the departures from the profession. Vicarious and secondary trauma and compassion fatigue are categorized by Rauvola et al. (2019) as "empathy-based stress." Empathy-based stress "is a stressor–strain-based process of trauma at work, wherein exposure to secondary or indirect trauma, combined with empathic experience, results in empathy-based strain" (Rauvola et al., 2019, p. 299).

People working in trauma-exposed professions can experience vicarious and secondary trauma, compassion fatigue, and burnout that may lead to poor decision-making and impact organizational cultures lacking adequate leadership support (Tyler, 2012; Hormann & Vivian, 2005; Handran, 2015). Employees who feel supported and empowered by the organization have

a lower risk of burnout and secondary trauma (Handran, 2015). Higher education institutions try to support the organization's psychological safety to curb the impact of empathy-based stress on employees. "When [psychological safety] is low, [people] shut down, self-censor, and redirect their energy toward risk management, pain avoidance, and self-preservation" (Clark, 2020, p. 5). High levels of psychological safety are vital to an organization's success (Clark, 2020). Fostering an organizational culture that acknowledges the complexity is essential to a psychologically safe environment. According to Bloom (2020):

> organizational health is an evolving human resource that helps the organization and everyone who comprises it to adapt to the challenges of every life […] feel a sense of well-being and interact with their surroundings in ways that promote successful development. (p. 5)

In short, human complexity is woven into organizations. Thus, developing our organizations in a way that is significant and meaningful to the living beings within them is essential.

Meaning embraces how people interpret or apply sensemaking to situations they encounter in life (Martela & Steger, 2016). Meaning in life is unique to each person and often changes based on the moment (Frankl, 1970). King and Hicks (2021) purported that meaning in life involves three elements: coherence, purpose, and significance. Coherence is realized when different components of life, such as behaviors and values, logically align and make sense (King & Hicks, 2021). Purpose signifies having goals and a direction in life; it drives motivation into action by pursuing, for example, a vocation, cause, or life experience in a way that contributes to meaningfulness in life (Klinger, 1977). Finally, significance is the extent to which a person believes their life is worth living (Martela & Steger, 2016).

The training and learning transfer literature recognizes a need to utilize intentional and mindful approaches to supporting learners in making connections by scaffolding the concepts (Brent, 2011). Facilitators "practicing thoughtful approaches towards learning transfer are more likely to see it occur" (Thomas, 2007, p. 6). Among factors identified by Broad and Newstrom (1992), adapting the curriculum to meet learners' needs and understanding the organization's cultural and social context is critical to helping learners integrate knowledge (as cited in Brion, 2022). To grow, a learner must have an appropriate balance of challenge and support (Sanford, 1966). Often, meaningful professional development occurs when people are allowed to sit with uncomfortable concepts (Attebury, 2017). However, successful integration transpires when learners are given space to *safely* practice their learning (Roumell, 2019).

Research Design

In 2018, two members of the research team began developing training curricula on trauma-informed student services and leadership. Variations of the training were delivered at practitioner conferences for educational opportunities programs in 2019 and 2020. Since 2019, our team has tailored the curricula to meet client needs and the organizations they represent. During fall of 2021, the client approached a member of our research team after attending their conference session. The client wanted to provide their *work team* with an intentional and meaningful professional development opportunity after the team's intense experience of organizational change and uncertainty. In the wake of a prolonged pandemic and institutional changes, their team was experiencing burnout and empathy-based stress.

The client and training/research team met early in 2022 to discuss learning objectives and desired training outcomes. The client requested we shift from strictly trauma-informed concepts to incorporate topics like team values, communication, and establishing group norms. As the research team and trainers, we adapted existing curriculum to include topics and exercises that meet the client's needs. The concepts of safety, trust, and transparency, and guiding principles of trauma-informed care were vital curriculum components (SAMHSA, 2014). Central to the curriculum design was Sandra Bloom's (2020) framework for creating healthy *biocratic* organizations. The word, biocratic combines elements of biology, a complex and adaptive living system that functions using healthy democratic practices (Bloom, 2020). In addition to professional development, we designed the training to emphasize personal development. Throughout the training, we incorporated practices in relational mindfulness and concepts that support understanding the interpersonal relational space, such as empathy and validation.

Table 1

Organismic Biocracy: Fostering a Healthy Workplace Curriculum Outline

Schedule	Topics	Learning Activities
Day One	○ Group Agreements ○ Johari Window ○ Personal Communication Style ○ Margin Equation ○ Team Well-being	▪ Safety, Belonging, Vulnerability, Gratitude ▪ Communication Style Assessment ▪ What I bring -- What I need
Day Two	○ Understanding Reactivity ○ Mindfulness Concepts ○ Relational Mindfulness ○ Compassion ○ Validation	▪ Savoring: cup of tea meditation ▪ "What brings you joy?" ▪ Video: "Empathy vs. Sympathy" ▪ "Just like me" exercise ▪ RAIN
Day Three	○ Understanding Stress ○ Burnout vs Compassion Fatigue ○ Safety at Work ○ Trust and Transparency ○ Organizational Justice ○ Appreciation Languages ○ Grounding	▪ S.T.O.P ▪ Languages of Appreciation at work
Day Four	○ Well-being ○ Relationship with Time ○ Organizational Culture ○ Task and Maintenance ○ Self and Team-Care	▪ Reflection: What does well-being look like? ▪ Reflection: Team values and norms ▪ Team-care approaches ▪ Revisit "I bring, I need"

Data Collection and Analysis

We provided the training in four-hour segments, in four days spread over two weeks, during spring 2022. The training was delivered remotely via Zoom due to public health restrictions related to COVID-19. We used a generic qualitative design (Kahlke, 2014) and census sampling

to collect information from all participants. Our research team collected two kinds of data, individual written reflections, and recorded group debriefings. Questions for individual reflection were assigned the first three days. The daily reflection prompts aimed to understand what each participant thought was important and meaningful that they wanted to incorporate into their personal and professional lives. Three participants submitted written reflections after the first and second sessions; one submitted a reflection after the third session. Participants submitted images of their handwritten daily reflections electronically and transferred into typed documents. All four participants and the trainers engaged in debriefing sessions during the final 20 minutes of the four daily trainings. The debriefing sessions were recorded via Zoom and transcribed using online transcription software. Individual written reflections were combined by prompt, organized by day, and input into a shared spreadsheet.

We approached our data analysis using Srivastava and Hopwood's (2009) reflexive iteration framework. A reflexive iterative framework is an adaptable approach to analysis that emphasizes the importance of "visiting and revisiting the data" (p. 77) using a reflexive process. Our research team adapted the framework by engaging in the process as a group, which allowed us to openly reflect, critique, and assess our individual relationships with the research questions and collected data. As recommended by Srivastava and Hopwood (2009), during our weekly research team meetings we repeatedly asked what the data revealed and understanding how it meaningfully connected to what we sought to know. Our research team also inductively coded and analyzed transcripts independently to prepare for weekly meetings supporting further analyst triangulation (Patton, 2015). Approaching reflexive analysis through the lens of multiple perspectives aided data triangulation (Patton, 1999).

Preliminary Findings

Our analysis revealed that participants grew both personally and professionally. Reflections often revealed insights into what individuals needed to learn but were unaware they were missing certain concepts and skills. Participants often remarked that adopting an open positive attitude reinforced during the training made them focus on their own experience and not compare to others. Participants held space for one another in a way that invited brave authenticity.

Meeting the needs of the inner self meets group needs. The group's work first met self-needs that, in turn, met the group's needs. Participants engaged with curiosity and open minds, genuinely setting aside work tasks and personal agendas to cultivate self-discovery. Increasing self-awareness allowed others to see one another clearly and hear what individual group members needed. For example, the activity called *I bring, I need*; created space for participants to highlight the strengths they bring to the group and voice what they need from the group to strengthen their team. In other words, participants' self-discovery created space to understand self in the relational context of others.

Common language leads to effective communication. Through several activities, we introduced concepts that required specific language that the group could use, knowing they had a shared understanding of the language. For example, we taught the *human margin equation* (Swenson, 2004), which uses a mathematical equation to describe an individual's capacity to carry out additional tasks. Swenson explained that every person has resources, such as time, money,

energy, support, etc., that contribute to how much they can accomplish. Likewise, people have load that may be internal or external. External load refers to tasks that need completing, bills, dependents, and errands; personal expectations about performance are an example of internal load. Margin is the remaining amount of energy when load is subtracted from resources. Margin can be expressed in human terms as positive or negative. If people can add tasks to their load, they are in a positive margin. On the other hand, if a person has more tasks than resources, they are in a negative margin and should not agree to additional work. This common language gave participants shared meaning without having to explain details or feel guilty for turning down a request that would take time.

Small everyday practices make significant impacts. Participants' expressed curiosity about what they noticed in the dynamic between trainers and how well we worked together across our power differential (the lead trainer is a mentee and student of the other trainer). The group observed us model shared power and small, yet significant ways we expressed appreciation for the work and expertise of one another. As trainers, we practiced humanity with each other by giving each other grace to make mistakes and embrace imperfection. Participants noted that by observing the trainers, they were more able to engage in self-compassion and compassion for each other that they expressed by demonstrating a profound appreciation for each other's humanity.

Discussion

Approximately a year ago, we developed and researched the Organismic Biocracy training with a team of student services personnel at a community college. Initial findings reinforce a need to design training that accentuates the significance of creating mutual respect and support and identify training resources that champion a learning environment (Knowles, 1975). Using a trauma-informed perspective, we employed adult learning theories to analyze professional and team development. Our next research steps are to revisit the student services group who participated in the training and engage them in a post-training group reflection and individual interviews to ascertain which concepts and practices have been integrated into their team.

References

Attebury, R. I. (2017). Professional development: A qualitative study of high impact characteristics affecting meaningful transformational learning. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship 43*(3), 232–241. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.acalib.2017.02.015

Bloom, Sandra. (2020). Creating healthy biocratic organizations. In K.R. Ginsburg & Z.B.R. McClain (Eds), *Reaching teens: Strengths-based, trauma-sensitive, resilience-building communication strategies rooted in positive youth development* (pp. 800-816). American Academy of Pediatrics.

Brent, D. (2011). Transfer, transformation, and rhetorical knowledge. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*, *25*(4), 396–420. https://doi.org/10.1177/1050651911410951

Brion, C. (2022). Culture: The link to learning transfer. *Adult Learning*, *33*(3), 132–137. https://doi.org/10.1177/10451595211007926

Broad, M. L., & Newstrom, J. W. (1992). *Transfer of training: Action-packed strategies to ensure high payoff from training investments*. Da Capo Press.

Clark, T. R. (2020). *The 4 stages of psychological safety: Defining the path to inclusion and Innovation*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers, Incorporated.

Ellis, L. (2021, June 18). *'A mass exodus': Inflexible remote-work policies could bring major staff turnover*. The Chronicle of Higher Education. Retrieved November 15, 2022, from https://www.chronicle.com/article/a-mass-exodus-inflexible-remote-work-policies-may-bring-major-staff-turnover-for-colleges

Frankl, V. E. (1970). *The will to meaning: Foundations and applications of logotherapy*. New American Library.

Handran, J. (2015). Trauma-informed systems of care: The role of organizational culture in the development of burnout, secondary traumatic stress, and compassion satisfaction. *Journal of Social Welfare and Human Rights, 3*(2), 1-22. https://doi.org/10.15640/jswhr.v3n2a1

Hormann, S., & Vivian, P. (2005). Toward an understanding of traumatized organizations and how to intervene in them. *Traumatology, 11*(3), 159-169. https://doi.org/10.1177/153476560501100302

Kahlke, R. M. (2014). Generic qualitative approaches: Pitfalls and benefits of methodological mixology. International *Journal of Qualitative Methods, 13*(1), 37–52. https://doi.org/10.1177/160940691401300119

King, L. A., & Hicks, J. A. (2021). The science of meaning in life. *Annual Review of Psychology, 72*, 561-584. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-072420-122921

Klinger, E. (1977). *Meaning & void inner experience and the incentives in people's lives*. University of Minnesota Press.

Knowles, M. S. (1975). *Self-directed learning: A guide for learners and teachers*. The Adult Education Co.

Martela, F., & Steger, M. F. (2016). The three meanings of meaning in life: Distinguishing coherence, purpose, and significance. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, *11*(5), 531-545.

Mullen, P. R., Malone, A., Denney, A., & Dietz, S. S. (2018). Job stress, burnout, job satisfaction, and turnover intention among student affairs professionals. *College Student Affairs Journal*, *36*(1), 94–108. https://doi.org/10.1353/csj.2018.0006

Patton, M. (1999). Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. *Health Services Research*, *34*(5), 1189–1208.

Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice* (4th ed.). Sage.

Rauvola, R. S., Vega, D. M., & Lavigne, K. N. (2019). Compassion fatigue, secondary traumatic stress, and vicarious traumatization: A qualitative review and research agenda. *Occupational Health Science*, *3*(3), 297–336. https://doi.org/10.1007/s41542-019-00045-1

Roumell, E. A. (2018). Priming adult learners for Learning transfer: Beyond content and delivery. *Adult Learning*, *30*(1), 15–22. https://doi.org/10.1177/1045159518791281

Sanford, N. (1966). *Self & society: Social change and individual development*. Atherton Press.

Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA). (2014). SAMHSA's concept of trauma and guidance for a trauma-informed approach. https://store.samhsa.gov/sites/default/files/d7/priv/sma14-4884.pdf

Srivastava, P., & Hopwood, N. (2009). A practical iterative framework for qualitative data analysis. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *8*(1), 76–84. https://doi.org/10.1177/160940690900800107

Swenson, R. A. (2004). *Margin: Restoring emotional, physical, financial, and time reserves to overloaded lives* (Rev. ed.). NavPress.

Thomas, E. (2007). Thoughtful planning fosters learning transfer. *Adult Learning, 18*(3–4), 4–8. https://doi.org/10.1177/104515950701800301

Tyler, T. A. (2012). The limbic model of systemic trauma. *Journal of Social Work Practice, 26*(1), 125-138. https://doi.org/10.1080/02650533.2011.602474

Examining Community-Based Approaches to Decolonizing Environmental Science Education

R. Justin Hougham. Ph.D.
University of Wisconsin-Madison

Abstract: Decolonizing science education takes many forms. One important facet of this work is connecting school-based projects to meaningful community engagement. A subset of science education that occurs in community context is environmental education. Engagement and diversity in environmental education are important initiatives. However, this field has low levels of diversity in its staffing now and historically. This paper examines strategies to develop justice, equity, and inclusion work in this area through professional development. Emerging literature offers practical and applicable strategies for improving inclusion and diversity work in environmental education. Periodic evaluation of the field indicates where challenges remain in employee professional development and adult education. Lastly, a specific example of this type of work provides a case study of how the community plays an important role in environmental education.

Keywords: environmental justice, community-based science, professional development

Environmental science education—particularly *informal* environmental science education—occurs in and outside of schools. Some examples are community-based environmental programs, such as clubs or nonprofit environmental organizations, while other examples include specific places or facilities, such as nature centers and parks, that focus on this work and bring students to these sites for place-based environmental science education. In either case, community-based approaches to environmental science education are increasingly focused on justice, equity, diversity, and inclusion initiatives to serve the mission of the organization and the communities in which they are situated. In some cases, this is impacting the focus or the mission of the organization itself. Programmatic growth and staff training remain two areas of focus in these organizations. Staff training and continuing education are needed to address this need, which is frequently addressed through employer sponsored professional development. This article examines a broad reach of programming efforts and innovations, a structured assessment of this work, and a case study of putting theory to action.

Background

Program examples and success stories abound in this work. One such example was compiled in 2022, when *CLEARING Magazine* published a special issue focused on justice, equity, diversity and inclusion in environmental education. *CLEARING Magazine* is intended for educators, managers and practitioners in environmental education. Many ideas, best practices and professional development resources are shared in this publication. In the process of compiling these articles, many themes and innovations in approaches to implementing diversity programs were identified. These represent programming across many ages, geographies and topics. Arias

& Drossman (2022) provide examples of how long term, field based immersive college projects can improve dialogue and engagement for students. Matsaw, et al. also explored long format immersive experiences on the land, reconnecting ancestral lands with youth today (Matsaw, J., Matsaw, S. & Miller, B. 2022). Land acknowledgements are increasingly used in organizations, talks and in education. Finding and sharing tools to support educators is critical to helping delivery in the classroom to be accessible and meaningful (Crowley-Thomas 2022). Foreman, et al poise important reflections on how we provide moving through and out of the pandemic-

> What if we returned from this pandemic with a deep and profound commitment to a new way of being? What would it look like if, instead of this crisis making our work towards equity slower and less important, it became an opportunity for the field to work towards equity faster and make that work a higher priority (Foreman, J., Payan, R., Rodriguez, L., & Strang, C. 2022)?

These examples from the special issue provide inspiration for the work need to be done in JEDI, as well as example rationale and methodology for applying approaches to other staff training projects.

Approach

Grant funding from the Mellon Foundation supported research staff to conduct a survey of the field of environmental science education, diversity initiatives therein, and professional development need for adult employees in these careers. Looking at a specific sample of informal educators in environmental science provided insight into were the field currently is on this issue, where gaps may lay, and what next steps may be. In 2015 a version of this study went out across the state of Wisconsin to gauge many aspects of training and professional development in this field, the results of which where published in 2017 (Hougham, R. J., Kerlin, S., Liddicoat, K., Ellis, K., & Crampe, E., 2017). In 2019 a version of this study was published that identified that half (50%) of organizations dedicated time to justice, equity, diversity and inclusion work while at the same time the majority claimed it was an organizational priority (Hougham, R. J., Herde, I., Zocher, J., Morgan, T., & Olsen, S. (2021). Further, in this version of the study recognized that opportunity to address the persistent science, technology, engineering and mathematics (STEM) achievement gap in Wisconsin could, in part, be met by strengthening the training the environmental science educators received as it pertains to justice, equity, diversity and inclusion. Essentially, environmental education can be a venue to strengthen the formal STEM field in addressing the achievement gap. In the most recent version of this report it is clear that an important, initial matter is to delineate and address the gap being diversity, equity and inclusion efforts that are tolerance minded and those that can have inclusion as a lasting outcome (Hougham, R., Bauer, J., & Burgess, S. 2022).

Best Practices

As a specific case study, Science Strikes Back provides an example of community engagement to adult learners as well as professional development for environmental educators whose organizations are committing to strengthening their diversity, equity and inclusion work. Science Strikes Back is a community science fair, whose mission is to encourage community members in Milwaukee to critically analyze environmental issues and solve problems in their communities.

Through the development of collaborative relationships between students, educators, and content specialists from locally based organizations, Science Strikes Back supports a strong network in Milwaukee for continued environmental education and natural resource stewardship. Science Strikes Back categories include a wide array of STEM topics and emphasize collaboration and community voice in the project process. Science strikes back approach includes pre-event programing that facilitates project refinement. Pre-event efforts also include professional development that includes teachers, informal educators and volunteers. The day of the event, peer judging uses a rubric to score each project. Science strikes back was started in 2017 and has evolved over that time to include a more focused lens on social justice and youth voice. Barriers to overcome in a model such as this include integration or coordination with in-classroom expectations (Zocher & Hougham 2020). This event brings kids together from an array of different schools, from different parts of Milwaukee and it lets them see what other people are working on. We see a variety of ages and we see people from all over the city come to this event. They are from schools, homeschool networks, different universities, different businesses, different nonprofits. A science fair like this is important for the kids and parents because it shows them what our environment would look like in the future or what it looks like now. Community based science is one of the approaches we use to reframe who does science and what do we do science for. By situating it in the context of a community, we hope that it broadens the imagination around who participates in solutions and asking questions in their own hometown or neighborhood. Science Strikes Back is relatively unique, here in Milwaukee. It really excites a lot of new partnerships and new relationships between youth and schools, and schools and their community. Here in Milwaukee, looking at the quality and condition of the three rivers, or looking at the great lake are all venues for the questions that we are asking and the types of actions and activities students apply their skills to. We hope by continuing to support this event, we have a venue that increases Great Lakes water literacy for our students and schools that participate but for the community at large, as well. Integral to that potential is continuing training, education and professional development that supports staff to thoughtfully engage this work.

Discussion

The context for change is an important consideration when engaging this work. Beyond a literature review and assessment, as was done in this example, it is important to appreciate the local context for science education. The community context found in our example of Science Strikes Back is novel and is evolving. We have new relationships every year to bring in and learn from.

As scientists may shift in thinking how to teach science, we will certainly have to address anti-racist methods of teaching and of the scientific practice in general. In a recent article published in Nature, the author begins to unpack the methods for science teaching that will create more impact for students "*…teachers should facilitate "learning to think in a different way, and there's real expertise in how to guide people to do that". Many education experts promote active-learning techniques, such as getting students to work together to solve problems." (Dance, 2023).* Dance (2023) continues in suggesting that

> A small but growing number of scientific faculty members are focusing on the science of teaching. They often transition to education research from a scientific discipline after becoming interested in improving their own classrooms. Although education research is sometimes perceived as low status by department heads, it can yield papers, grants and public impact, just like other disciplines — and it helps universities to adopt science-based teaching methods. (p. 204)

While many universities seek and claim to be diversifying the STEM field, teaching in this way is not a matter of recruitment but truly changing our practices in community-based science reaching the classroom- and vice versa.

Acknowledgement

Elements of the projects described here were funded through a grant entitled Humanities Education for Anti-racism Literacy (HEAL) in the Sciences and Medicine. A subset of this project team for HEAL contributed to the literature review and survey work detailed in this article over the course of the last three years. HEAL is based at the University of Wisconsin–Madison and funded by the Andrew W. Mellon Foundation's Just Futures Initiative. We seek to provide models and examples of transformative of higher education by drawing on humanities research to advance anti-racist practices and pedagogies in science, technology, engineering, mathematics, and medicine (STEMM). Beginning with an acknowledgement of pervasive systemic racism, our aim is to center the educational experiences of Black, Native, Indigenous and other students of color to build more accurate narratives about histories of racism in the sciences and medicine, allowing us to better understand persistent underrepresentation and to develop educational tools for building a more equitable university and society.

References

Arias, J.M. & Drossman, H. (2022). *Power and equity in undergraduate environmental education: "Loving Critique" at the Colorado College TREE Semester.* Clearing (Winter 2022), pp 28-29.

Crowley-Thomas, G. (2022). *A New Tool: Land Acknowledgment Resource Cards.* Clearing (Winter 2022), pp 28-29.

Dance, A. (2023). *A Passion for Pedagogy.* Nature Vol 613, pp 204.

Foreman, J., Payan, R., Rodriguez, L., & Strang, C. (2022). *Racial Equity in Outdoor Science and Environmental Education: Re-Establishing the Field with Intention*. Clearing (Winter 2022), pp 28-29.

Hougham, R., Bauer, J., & Burgess, S. (2022). Status and Needs of Environmental Education Related Organizations in Wisconsin: Executive Summary from the 2021 state-wide survey. Madison, Wisconsin.

Hougham, R. J., Herde, I., Zocher, J., Morgan, T., & Olsen, S. (2021). Mind the Gap: How Environmental Education Can Step Forward to Address the STEM Achievement Gap. *Clearing.* pp. 19-23.

Hougham, R. J., Kerlin, S., Liddicoat, K., Ellis, K., & Crampe, E. (2017). Status and Needs of Environmental Education Related Organizations in Wisconsin: Results from the 2015 state-wide survey. Madison, Wisconsin.

Matsaw, J., Matsaw, S. & Miller, B. (2022). *River Newe: Creating New Narratives On Historic Landscapes.* Clearing (Winter 2022), pp 28-29.

Zocher, J. L. & Hougham, R. J. (2020). Implementing Ecopedagogy as an Experiential Approach to Decolonizing Science Education. *Journal of Experiential Education*. https://doi.org/10.1177/1053825920908615

An Inter-organizational Knowledge Sharing Model for Sustainable Workplace Safety

Heather Lindell, Shinhee Park, Trisha Barefield
University of Georgia

Abstract: Workplace safety recommendations and regulations are constantly evolving. This paper reviews workplace safety literature on safety culture and inter-organizational knowledge sharing among healthcare organizations. The research question asks, *how does sustainable workplace safety occur in a healthcare* setting? The findings of the literature review assisted in the creation of a model to promote a culture of safety within healthcare fields and moved beyond individual organizations to support sustainable workplace safety practices. The context of hazardous drug handling is used as an example for model application throughout the paper. The C^2oST^3 model promotes *collaboration* among and within organizations to promote a *culture of safety* (C^2oS) through *transfer* (T), *translation* (T), and *transmission* (T) of knowledge.

Keywords: knowledge sharing, inter-organizational learning, culture of safety, healthcare

In the United States, organizations, such as the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) and The National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH), continuously evaluate the safety of handling potentially harmful substances, including hazardous drugs in medical practices. Engaging current best practices for handling hazardous materials is important for the health and safety of workers. It is critical that updates about materials considered hazardous reach all impacted audiences. Although OSHA and NIOSH's standards and guidelines are made public, not all hazardous products are listed, exposing a lack of information and a gap in knowledge when medical practices update their hazardous handling protocols. Beyond knowledge distribution, processes are required to ensure the integration of knowledge into practice to support a culture of safety. To surface these processes, our research question asked: How does sustainable workplace safety occur in a healthcare setting?

Literature Review

This paper draws from the current literature on culture of safety, knowledge sharing, and inter-organizational learning; and proposes a model for inter-organizational knowledge sharing for sustainable workplace safety. We propose collaborative networks for reaching into siloed medical and veterinary practices to promote a safety culture. The authors adopt an ecological approach to the problem, aligning with the One Health Initiative; "a movement to forge co-equal, all-inclusive [*sic*] collaborations between physicians, osteopathic physicians, veterinarians, dentists, nurses, and other scientific-health and environmentally related disciplines" (One Health Initiative, 2021, para. 1). Inter-organizational collaborations are needed to properly address changes in our global context and how organizations access and use information (van Winkelen, 2010).

Learning collaborations can be an effective means for sharing policies and concrete knowledge (Van Wijk et al., 2008), and they also create the potential for social networking and tacit knowledge sharing (Allee, 2000). Both types of knowledge sharing are necessary in the case of cultivating a culture of safety spanning organizations. Although our model's primary aim is to distribute knowledge about hazardous drugs, collegial connections across medical specialties in the spirit of the One Health Initiative are necessary for fostering sustainable networks and workplace safety.

Knowledge goes beyond information. Knowledge includes beliefs, promises, actions, and meaning (Nonaka, 1994). Nonaka (1994) analyzed the dynamics of organizational knowledge creation. Nonaka found knowledge is created through continuous social interactions between tacit knowledge and explicit knowledge, and by inducing knowledge-sharing activities between organization members. Knowledge sharing is a process where individual members of the organization not only possess their own knowledge but also expand the scope of knowledge through exchange relations with others, thereby pursuing the interests of both members of an organization and the whole organization. It is important to recognize knowledge sharing as an iterative, recursive process.

A culture of safety has been defined as "the attitudes, beliefs, perceptions, and values the employees *share* in relation to safety" (Cox & Cox, 1991, p. 93). Safety culture develops through knowledge sharing, informed decisions, open communications, and feedback from individuals, groups, and teams within learning organizations with shared visions, missions, and values. One way to promote a culture of safety within the work environment is via workplace safety education. The perceived importance of safety has been described as the safety climate (DeJoy et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2019). According to Beus et al. (2016), workplace safety is defined "as an attribute of work systems reflecting the (low) likelihood of physical harm—whether immediate or delayed—to persons, property, or the environment during the performance of work" (p. 353). When relating to the aspects of One Health, the definition can be understood as corresponding with the health of humans, animals (property), and the environment.

Methodology

Inclusion criteria established prior to data collection focused on selecting English language literature for factors influencing knowledge sharing and workplace safety to enhance a culture of safety. Inclusion criteria limited the subject of analysis search to empirical research published in academic journals and excluded research not found in a peer-reviewed journal. We excluded articles lacking empirical or theoretical research. To identify relevant resources, we employed academic search engines, including Google Scholar and the University of Georgia Libraries' databases. Knowledge transfer and knowledge sharing are sometimes used synonymously or are considered to have overlapping content (Paulin & Suneson, 2011). Therefore, in this study, we used search terms 'knowledge sharing', 'knowledge transfer', 'knowledge exchange', and 'workplace safety'. We added keywords 'inter-organizational knowledge sharing', 'veterinary', and 'healthcare'. We limited inclusion results to studies from 2000 to 2021 and obtained 39 academic papers.

Data Collection and Analysis

Of the 39 academic papers, we excluded non-empirical studies and analyzed 9 relevant to our focus on knowledge sharing within healthcare settings. We constructed a guiding research framework for the analysis of articles meeting the literature review purpose. After the collection of the articles, we detailed each article's content into categories: (a) author and year; (b) organization and purpose (c) focus variable; (d) research methods; and (e) findings.

We analyzed current literature on knowledge sharing in healthcare settings to determine potential variables contributing to sustainable workplace safety. We used an integrative literature review to group variables related to knowledge sharing and workplace safety. An integrated literature review is a research method used to present a new conceptual model or perspective by comprehensively reviewing, evaluating, and synthesizing literature related to the subject. An integrative literature review is an appropriate method when a topic has been discussed for a considerable length of time and continues to expand and diversify; when consideration and reconceptualization are required; or when an overall concept or document integration on a newly emerging topic is warranted (Torraco, 2016).

This paper took a synthesizing integrative approach by reviewing new and emerging topics and joined them in a model to support sustainable workplace safety (see Figure 1 under Recommendations for Practice). In this study, the criteria for the analysis target were first established, and data were collected and selected based on established criteria. Synthesizing the results, we extracted data to design a conceptual integrative workplace safety model using factors influencing knowledge sharing and enhancing a culture of safety.

Findings and Recommendations

Of the nine studies analyzed, seven researched knowledge sharing explicitly with three focusing on inter-organizational knowledge sharing. Three studies contained content related to safety culture or safety climate with one mentioning knowledge transfer (mobilization) and another knowledge sharing. Seven countries were represented across the studies: Canada, Jordan, Korea, Netherlands, Oman, Taiwan, and the United States. Based on the literature review, we created a conceptual sustainable workplace safety model (Figure 1) to promote a culture of safety within healthcare organizations, specifically workplace safety related to hazardous drugs, by exploring knowledge sharing. Studies on KS were plentiful, allowing us to narrow our focus to the healthcare context. We analyzed three studies for variables affecting KS in healthcare. We noticed subjective norms affect the likelihood of KS more than attitude or perceived behavioral control (Ryu et at., 2003). There are direct or indirect positive effects on KS when psychological ownership, empowerment, and autonomous motivation are present (Wu et al., 2021). Other positive effects on KS included the behavior of participants expressing conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness (Harb et al., 2021).

We found three studies addressing inter-organizational KS specifically in healthcare. Of these, we noticed studies focused on computer systems for facilitating KS revealed the importance of the human factor (Al-Busaidi, 2014; Al-Busaidi & Olfman, 2017). Al-Busaidi (2014) assessed knowledge workers' perceptions of potential benefits and challenges of inter-organizational

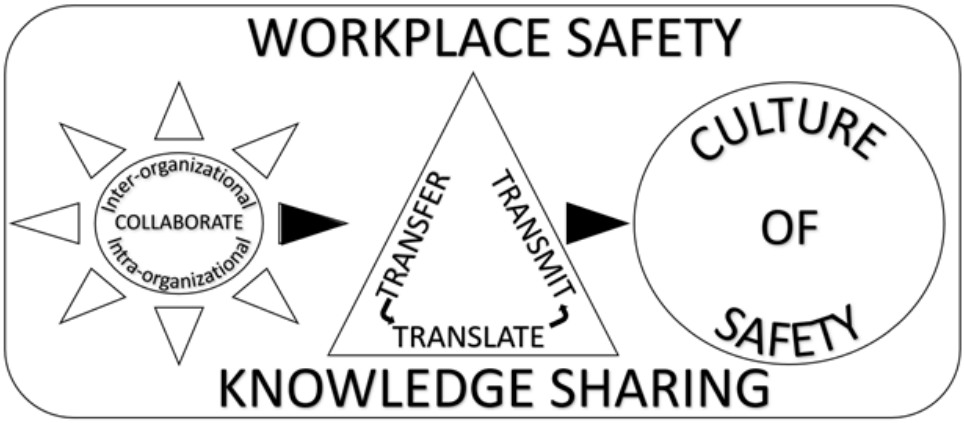
knowledge systems (IOKSS) using the Delphi method. Cultural and social aspects of knowledge workers have significant direct impacts on the intention to share knowledge through IOKSS (Al-Busaidi & Olfman, 2017). Eussen et al. (2017) determined defining common goals is a factor for greater collaborations and can be enhanced by engaging in knowledge sharing and identifying common responsibilities.

Three studies in the healthcare context focused on safety. Lee et al. (2019) examined mediating effects of KS between empowering leadership and safety behavior and found a positive influence on safety climate. Another positive effect on safety climate included management's greater levels of commitment to safety culture, and knowledge of hazards must be accompanied by appropriate safety actions (DeJoy et al., 2017). Transfer of knowledge via knowledge mobilization in combination with the actions of leaders can facilitate a more positive safety culture (Fazel et al., 2021).

Recommendations for Practice

Returning to our chosen context of HDs in medical contexts, inter-organizational knowledge sharing via educational opportunities (e.g., continuing education, workshops) is a recommended viable method to increase knowledge about handling hazardous drugs in human medical and veterinary practice settings. It is proposed, designated individuals from the practice setting would receive transferred knowledge from an inter-organizational learning opportunity; translate the information into practical application; and transmit the need, urgency, and practices within their own organization (van Winkelen, 2010).

Figure 1
C^2oST^3 Model for Sustainable Workplace Safety



Note: C^2 = **C**ollaborate, **C**ulture; oS = **o**f **S**afety; T^3 = **T**ransfer, **T**ranslate, **T**ransmit

A theoretical example of how this can be accomplished is if a hospital has a designated individual (e.g., board-certified veterinary oncologist) serving the organization as an expert related to handling hazardous substances. A new hazardous substance is released on the market of interest to the organization. With the **transfer** of knowledge among **collaborating** experts, the information can be **translated** by the expert of the organization to practical applications within their organization (e.g., product innovation, hazardous drug list updated). With resources (e.g., funding) and support of leaders within the organization (e.g., removal of barriers to

implementation), the expert arrives back at the hospital and **transmits** information about the hazardous substance throughout the organization and within target departments handling the substance hands-on (e.g., receiving to disposal); and gathers feedback with open communication and reflection to improve the processes.

When the target departments engage with the development of a process keeping workers safe and fit within their workflow with minimal disruption, there is likely to be a more positive uptake of the new hazardous substance and reinforcement of the **culture of safety**. From this scenario, using the C^2oST^3 model (**c**ollaborate, the **c**ulture **o**f **s**afety, **t**ransfer, **t**ranslate, **t**ransmit) presented in Figure 1 guides sustainable workplace safety system enhancement via knowledge sharing.

Discussion and Implications

Our findings suggest sustainable workplace safety is facilitated by knowledge sharing. This integrative literature review used a synthesis approach to meld the literature on knowledge sharing and safety culture with the literature on inter-organizational knowledge sharing in healthcare to create a model for sustainable workplace safety. The model incorporated inter-and intra-organizational knowledge sharing to enhance a culture of safety. The dearth of literature on KS of safety information in healthcare is a limitation of this work.

Knowledge sharing about safety practices in healthcare is lacking in the literature and is an important area for expansion. More conceptual and empirical work is needed. Testing and measurement of the C^2oST^3 model are encouraged. Testing aspects within the model could include Kramer et al.'s (2013) proposed conceptual model as an evaluation tool to assess knowledge transfer and exchange interventions. Measurements of learning transfer could be tested by using the Learning Transfer System Inventory (Holton III et al., 2000) as well. A culture of learning within an organization is an essential component of facilitating knowledge sharing. Communication and collaboration between organizations are fruitless if the organizational environment is not open to learning and change based on updated information (Beesley, 2004).

To determine if the organization has attributes of a learning organization, the validated Dimensions of the Learning Organization Questionnaire (Watkins & Kim, 2018) could be employed as a gap analysis tool to determine readiness for learning. The learning organization, having a culture of learning, seeks both internal and external knowledge for continuous learning opportunities and success within the organization (Iftikhar & Ahola, 2020). Having foundational intra-organizational knowledge sharing experience can facilitate more productive inter-organizational knowledge sharing (van Winkelen, 2010). From our review of the literature, we found sustainable workplace safety occurs in healthcare settings by leaders fostering a culture of safety. For sustainable workplace safety to prevail, leaders must facilitate a culture of safety by acting. The C^2oST^3 model can be used as a template for guiding iterative and recursive actions to protect humans, animals, and the environment.

References

Al-Busaidi, K. A. (2014). Knowledge workers' perceptions of potential benefits and challenges of inter-organizational knowledge sharing systems: a Delphi study in the health sector. *Knowledge Management Research & Practice, 12*(4), 398-408. https://doi.org/10.1057/kmrp.2013.4

Al-Busaidi, K. A., & Olfman, L. (2017). Knowledge sharing through inter-organizational knowledge sharing systems. *VINE Journal of Information and Knowledge Management Systems*, *47*(1), 110-136. https://doi.org/10.1108/VJIKMS-05-2016-0019

Allee, V. (2000). The value evolution: Addressing larger implications of an intellectual capital and intangibles perspective", J*ournal of Intellectual Capital, 1*(1), 17-32. https://doi.org/10.1108/14691930010371627

Beesley, L. (2004), Multi-level complexity in the management of knowledge networks, *Journal of Knowledge Management, 8*(3), 71-100. https://doi.org/10.1108/13673270410541051

Beus, J. M., McCord, M. A., & Zohar, D. (2016). Workplace safety: A review and research synthesis. *Organizational Psychology Review*, *6*(4), 352-381. https://doi.org/10.1177/2041386615626243

Cox, S., & Cox, T. (1991). The structure of employee attitudes to safety: A European example. *Work & Stress, 5*(2) 93-106. https://doi.org/10.1080/02678379108257007

DeJoy, D.M., Smith, T. D., Woldu, H., Dyal, M-A., Steege, A. L., & Boiano, J. M. (2017). Effects of organizational safety practices and perceived safety climate on PPE usage, engineering controls, and adverse events involving liquid antineoplastic drugs among nurses. *Journal of occupational and Environmental Hygiene, 14*(7), 485-493. https://doi.org/10.1080/15459624.2017.1295496

Esmaeilzadeh, P., Sambasivan, M., Kumar, N., & Nezakhati, H. (2011, December). Adoption of technology applications in healthcare: the influence of attitude toward knowledge sharing on technology acceptance in a hospital. In *International Conference on U-and E-Service, Science and Technology* (pp. 17-30). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-27210-3_3

Eussen, B. G. M., Schaveling, J., Dragt, M., & Blomme, R. J. (2017). Stimulating collaboration between human and veterinary health care professionals. *BMC Veterinary Research, 13*(174), 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1186/s12917-017-1072-x

Fazel, S. S., Keefe, A., Shareef, A., Palmer, A. L., Brenner, D. R., Nakashima, L., Koehoorn, M. W., McLeod, C. B., Hall, A. L., & Peters, C. E. (2021). Barriers and facilitators for the safe handling of antineoplastic drugs. *Journal of Oncology Pharmacy Practice,* 1-13. https://doi.org/10.1177/10781552211040176

Harb, Y., Zahrawi, A., Shehabat, I., & Zhang, Z. (2021). Managing knowledge workers in healthcare context: role of individual and knowledge characteristics in physicians' knowledge sharing. *Industrial Management & Data Systems, 121*(2), 381-408. https://doi.org/10.1108/IMDS-02-2020-0097

Holton III, E. F., Bates, R. A., & Ruona, W. E. A. (2000). Development of a generalized learning transfer system inventory. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 11*(4), 333-360.

Iftikhar, R., & Ahola, T. (2020). Knowledge sharing in an interorganizational setting: empirical evidence from the Orange Line metro train project. *Journal of Knowledge Management*. Advance online publication. https://doi.org/10.1108/JKM-06-2020-0485

Kramer, D. M., Wells, R. P., Carlan, N., Aversa, T., Bigelow, P. P., Dixon, S. M., & McMillan, K. (2013). Did you have an impact? A theory-based method for planning and evaluating knowledge-transfer and exchange activities in occupational health and safety. *International Journal of Occupational Safety and Ergonomics, 19*(1), 41-62. https://doi.org/10.1080/10803548.2013.11076965

Lee, Y. H., Lu, T. E., Yang, C. C., & Chang, G. (2019). A multilevel approach on empowering leadership and safety behavior in the medical industry: The mediating effects of knowledge sharing and safety climate. *Safety Science, 117*, 1-9. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ssci.2019.03.022

Nonaka, I. (1994). A dynamic theory of organizational knowledge creation. *Organization Science, 5*(1), 14-37. https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.5.1.14

Nonaka, I., & Konno, N. (1998). The concept of "Ba": Building a foundation for knowledge creation. *California Management Review, 40*(3), 40-54. https://doi.org/10.2307/41165942

One Health Initiative. (2021). *One Health Initiative will unite human and veterinary medicine.* https://onehealthinitiative.com/

Paulin, D., & Suneson, K. (2011). Knowledge transfer, knowledge sharing and knowledge barriers-three blurry terms in KM. In: *Proceedings of the European Conference on Knowledge Management, ECKM, 2,* 752-760. Accessed July 1, 2021. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/286105137_Knowledge_transfer_knowledge_sharing_and_knowledge_barriers-Three_blurry_terms_in_KM

Ryu, S., Ho, S. H., & Han, I. (2003). Knowledge sharing behavior of physicians in hospitals. *Expert Systems with Applications, 25*(1), 113-122. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0957-4174(03)00011-3

Torraco, R. J. (2016). Writing integrative literature reviews: Using the past and present to explore the future. *Human resource development review*, *15*(4), 404-428. https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484316671606

Van Wijk, R., Jansen, J. J., & Lyles, M. A. (2008). Inter-and intra-organizational knowledge transfer: a meta-analytic review and assessment of its antecedents and consequences. *Journal of management studies, 45(*4), 830-853. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2008.00771.x

van Winkelen, C. (2010). Deriving value from inter-organizational learning collaborations. *The Learning Organization, 17*(1), 8-23. https://www.emerald.com/insight/content/doi/10.1108/09696471011008215/full/html

Watkins, K. E., & Kim, K. (2018). Current status and promising directions for research on the learning organization. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *29*(1), 15-29. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrdq.21293

Wu, S-Y., Wang, W-T., & Hsiao, M-H. (2021). Knowledge sharing among healthcare practitioners: Identifying the psychological and motivational facilitating factors. *Frontiers in Psychology, 12*(736277). https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.736277

Adaptive Learning for Change and Uncertainty: Preparing Tomorrow's Medical Professionals

Elizabeth Locklear and M. Jayne Fleener
North Carolina State University

Abstract: Today's physicians must be equipped to address the changes and complexities in healthcare. This study focused on medical educators' experiences and understanding of the Master Adaptive Learner (MAL) model, which uses a metacognitive approach to teach physicians to develop adaptive expertise to manage change and uncertainty effectively. Findings included five major themes that describe how medical educators prepare future-ready physicians with guidance from the model. Using a Futures Literacy (FL) framework, the research supports the need for adaptive and futures learning in medical education to develop physicians equipped with adaptive expertise and skills to anticipate the future.

Keywords: adaptive learning, futures literacy, medical education, master adaptive learner (MAL)

The medical education curriculum currently focuses on teaching and assessing isolated knowledge and often the information medical students learn early in medical education changes upon entrance to residency and even more upon entrance into practice, thus creating a gap between what society needs from physicians and what medical education provides (Mylopoulos, 2020; Papanagnou et al., 2021). As the curriculum is developed and updated, it is necessary to envision what the healthcare system will look like 10, 20, or 30 years from now, what the future generation of medical providers will look like, and how educators can address these issues today (Chen, 2017).

Shifting from an educational model that fosters the traditional physician's role to a role that meets the current and future needs of patients, the healthcare system, and society is essential to 21st-century medical education (Borkan et al., 2021; Schiavone & Ferretti, 2021; Skochelak et al., 2021). Cutrer et al. (2017) developed the Master Adaptive Learner (MAL) model in response to the need for adaptive expertise in medical education. The MAL model teaches future physicians metacognitive and adaptive skills to address uncertainty and novel challenges within the clinical practice (Cutrer et al., 2019; Skochelak et al., 2020). The MAL model approaches lifelong learning through self-regulated learning to create a shared mental model for learners and educators to foster deeper understanding and knowledge (Cutrer et al., 2018).

Despite the knowledge of the importance of adaptive expertise and adaptability, there is limited research on adaptive expertise in medical education. Research is even more limited regarding medical educators' personal experiences teaching and learning adaptive expertise through the MAL model (Kua et al., 2021). Additionally, there are few standards for preparing educators to teach the phases of the MAL model (Wolff et al., 2021). The findings from this study identify teaching strategies and educator experiences for teaching aspects of the MAL model, including

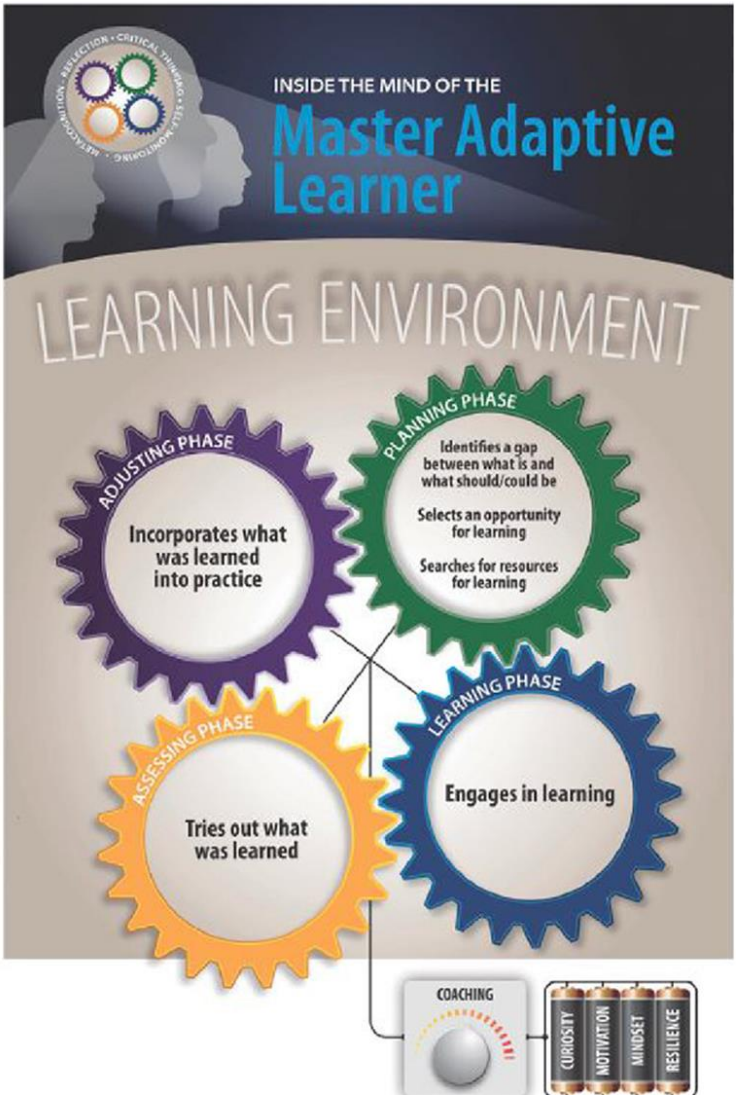
barriers and facilitators to teaching MAL, and contribute to the literature on the growing use of adaptive learning in medical education.

Literature Review

Based on self-regulated learning, the MAL (Figure 1) model trains learners to develop skills of adaptive expertise that include flexibility, openness to change, and learning new concepts and solutions. Adaptive expertise is developed through curiosity, motivation, a growth mindset, and resilience, all essential to the MAL model. Adaptive experts balance treating a patient through routine treatment, which emphasizes efficiency, and novel treatments, which emphasizes innovation. Although adaptive expertise requires efficiency and innovation, they work together to develop adaptiveness (Mylopoulos & Woods, 2017).

Figure 4

The Master Adaptive Learner Process



Note: The phases and characteristics of the Master Adaptive Learner model are shown. The characteristics are depicted as batteries driven by coaching, which power the 4 phases of the

model. From "Exploring the Characteristics and Context that allow Master Adaptive Learners to thrive," by W.B. Cutrer, H. G. Atkinson, E. Friedman, N. Deiorio, L. D. Gruppen, M. Dekhtyar, and M. Pusic, 2018, *Medical Teacher, 40*(8), p. 2

As the healthcare system changes rapidly, routine approaches to problems will soon be replaced by new and innovative approaches (Pusic et al., 2018; Pusic, 2020; Schiavone & Ferretti, 2021). To prepare future physicians to develop adaptive skills, medical educators must shift from an educational model that favors routine expertise to a model that promotes adaptive expertise. Guided by the notions of efficiency and innovation, adaptive experts must become comfortable with learning through experimentation, uncertainty, randomness, and challenging the status quo. Adaptive expertise is not simply increasing one's expertise; instead, it is a developed capability that fosters an adaptive mindset to learn for the unknown future (Pusic et al., 2018).

Futures literacy is a capacity to view change as a resource to question predisposed actions and seek a new and innovative present that allows people to envision the future based on present action (Miller, 2018). Describing futures literacy as one's ability to imagine, Miller (2015) argues that futures literacy as a capacity includes awareness, discovery, and choices (Häggström & Schmidt, 2021). Futures literacy creates a vision of how something will happen, guiding action in the present. Futures literacy specifically addresses the issue of developing individuals' relationships with the future beyond the predictable or known futures to being able to anticipate and use the future to create better futures (Fleener, 2022). Thus, futures literacy focuses on "using the future" in the present to anticipate uncertainty and guide a response to novelty (Facer & Sriprakash, 2021).

Methodology

This qualitative study aimed to better understand adaptive expertise in medical education and medical educators' experiences teaching and learning to teach the MAL model at medical education institutions. The overall research question asks: *How do medical educators prepare future-ready MAL physicians for the future of healthcare?* This research question was supported by two sub-research questions: (1) *What are medical educators' experiences with and ideas about the MAL model?* and (2) *How can the MAL model be combined with futures literacy to prepare future-ready physicians?*

Purposeful sampling (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Merriam & Tisdell, 2015) was used to select 15 participants who had experience teaching the MAL model. Participants came from 15 different medical schools across the U.S. and taught at both undergraduate and graduate levels. Participants represented 10 specialty areas including family medicine, emergency medicine, pediatrics, internal medicine, obstetrics and gynecology, educational policy, psychology, higher education, adult education, and evaluation. Responsive interviewing was used to gather in-depth information from participants through semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Data were analyzed using first and second cycle coding to develop themes to address the research questions (Saldaña, 2016).

Findings

The findings from this study include five emergent themes: (1) lifelong self-improvement, (2) creating a culture of learning, (3) assessment through self-reflection and coaching, (4) overcoming a punitive culture, (5) future adaptive expert, and four sub-themes: (1) coaching framework, (2) teaching how to learn, (3) system barriers, and (4) facilitating a shared vision. The first four themes and subsequent subthemes emerged in response to sub-research question one. The fifth theme emerged in response to sub-research question two.

All 15 participants provided insight into their experiences with the model in the classroom and/or clinical setting. Findings from the study answered the overall research question and are supported by existing literature on adaptive expertise and the MAL model. Findings suggested that medical educators' experiences vary, and a specific curriculum is not followed when implementing the model. Instead, medical educators have taken concepts of the model and adapted them to the needs of their programs and students. Findings suggest that the MAL model can be applied to medical education as a meta-curriculum. A meta-curriculum defines the boundaries within which learned, planned, and taught curriculum is delivered. The meta-curriculum defines how medical education should be developed, structured, and delivered (Smith, 2004). The themes that guide the use of this meta-curriculum emerged as participants described their thinking about and use of the MAL model.

Discussion

Findings revealed new insights into how the model has been implemented and how it can be expanded better to prepare future physicians for the future of healthcare. Each phase of the model addresses using metacognitive processes to support a deeper understanding and transfer of knowledge in medical education (Cutrer et al., 2017). Participants noted the model's importance as a learning model for preparing physicians for the future of healthcare. For example, some participants indicated that their teaching efforts often focused on one aspect of the model, such as the planning phase or developing a growth mindset, and often depended on how it fits into the existing curriculum. Findings highlight the need for educators to convey the value of the MAL model by explicitly explaining to learners how the MAL model is not only a tool to help them through medical school but a tool to support them in lifelong learning and throughout their career as a provider. Faculty development is needed to support the preparation of future-ready physicians through the MAL model and should focus on educating medical educators about the MAL model and creating a learning environment conducive to fostering adaptive learning. Participants noted that medical educators have a responsibility to be more intentional in educating future physicians on how to independently find gaps in their knowledge and function in times of uncertainty. However, this must be supported by a shared vision for adaptive learning in the educational environment.

While the MAL model fosters the skills to work through periods of uncertainty, findings indicate that a key component of preparing future-ready physicians for the future of healthcare is missing. This key component is the anticipation of uncertainty. Futures literacy cultivates mindsets to prepare for the emergence of uncertainty, take control of it, and use it as a resource to respond to change (Miller, 2015) and shape the future. Beyond adapting to change, futures literacy supports

developing strategies for creating possible, plausible, and desirable futures (Miller, 2018) that move beyond adaptation to creativity and novelty. Futures literacy is valuable for providing physicians the skills to not only adapt to uncertainty and change but embrace it. This will involve becoming familiar with the unfamiliar and understanding that you will encounter change. However, how you use change to rethink and question present assumptions will enable you to embrace complexity and uncertainty (Miller, 2018).

Recommendations for Future Research

The study adds to the MAL model literature and introduces future studies to medical education literature. Faculty development is needed to support the preparation of future-ready physicians through the MAL model. Faculty development should focus on educating medical educators about the MAL model and creating a learning environment conducive to fostering adaptive learning. Future research should include a longitudinal study of how teaching efforts related to the MAL model are translated into physician practice and how a practicing physician incorporates the MAL model into patient care. Future research should also explore the MAL model and futures literacy to respond to uncertainty and facilitate anticipatory practices in medicine.

Futures literacy combined with MAL will better prepare future-ready physicians as faculty develop understandings of how to address possible, plausible, and desirable futures. Futures literacy prepares individuals to embrace uncertainty and see it as a resource rather than a threat (Miller, 2018). While the MAL model prepares physicians to work through uncertainty, focusing on understanding anticipation through the lens of futures literacy prepares physicians to anticipate innately unknowable phenomena (Miller, 2015). Future research should explore the relationship between the MAL model and futures literacy and how it can be implemented in the MAL model such as using an active pedagogical approach (Häggström & Schmidt, 2021) or anticipatory activities (Facer & Sriprakash, 2021; Häggström & Schmidt, 2021; Miller, 2018). As a framework for learning, futures literacy encourages the practice of anticipation (Facer & Sriprakash, 2021). This recommendation is foundational to incorporating future studies in medical education literature.

References

Borkan, J. M., Hammoud, M. M., Nelson, E., Oyler, J., Lawson, L., Starr, S. R., & Gonzalo, J. D. (2021). Health systems science education: The new post-Flexner professionalism for the 21st century. *Medical Teacher*, *43*(sup2), S25–S31. https://doi.org/10.1080/0142159X.2021.1924366

Chen, J. (2017). Playing to our human strengths to prepare medical students for the future. *Korean Journal of Medical Education*, *29*(3), 193-197. doi:10.3946/kjme.2017.65

Creswell, J. W. & Poth, C. (2018*). Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Cutrer, W. B., Miller, B., Pusic, M. V., Mejicano, G., Mangrulkar, R. S., Gruppen, L. D., Hawkins, R. E., Skochelak, S. E., & Jr, D. E. M. (2017). Fostering the development of Master Adaptive Learners: A conceptual model to guide skill acquisition in medical education. *Academic Medicine*, *92*(1), 6.

Cutrer, W. B., Atkinson, H. G., Friedman, E., Deiorio, N., Gruppen, L. D., Dekhtyar, M., & Pusic, M. (2018). Exploring the characteristics and context that allow master adaptive learners to thrive. *Medical Teacher*, *40*(8), 791–796. https://doi.org/10.1080/0142159X.2018.1484560

Cutrer, W. B., Pusic, M. V., Gruppen, L. D., Hammoud, M. M., & Santen, S. A. (Eds.). (2019). *The master adaptive learner*. Elsevier.

Facer, K., & Sriprakash, A. (2021). Provincialising futures literacy: A caution against codification. *Futures*, *133*,102807. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.futures.2021.102807

Fleener, M.J. (2022). Futures Literacy for Adult Learning: Hopeful Futures in Complex Worlds. For Petra A. Robinson, Kamala V. Williams, Maja Stojanovic (Eds.), *Global Citizenship for Adult Education: Advancing Critical Literacies for Equity and Social Justice.* Routledge, pp. 42-53.

Häggström, M., & Schmidt, C. (2021). Futures literacy – To belong, participate and act!: An educational perspective. *Futures*, *132*, 102813. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.futures.2021.102813

Kua, J., Lim, W.-S., Teo, W., & Edwards, R. A. (2021). A scoping review of adaptive expertise in education. *Medical Teacher*, *43*(3), 347–355. https://doi.org/10.1080/0142159X.2020.1851020

Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation* (4th ed.). John Wiley & Sons.

Miller, R. (2015). Learning, the future, and complexity. An essay on the emergence of futures literacy. *European Journal of Education*, *50*(4), 513–523. https://doi.org/10.1111/ejed.12157

Miller, R. (Ed.). (2018). *Transforming the future: Anticipation in the 21st century*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351048002

Mylopoulos, M. (2020). Preparing future adaptive experts: Why it matters and how it can be done. *Medical Science Educator*, *30*(S1), 11–12. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40670-020-01089-7

Mylopoulos, M., & Woods, N. N. (2017). When I say … adaptive expertise. *Medical Education*, *51*(7), 685–686. https://doi.org/10.1111/medu.13247

Papanagnou, D., Ankam, N., Ebbott, D., & Ziring, D. (2021). Towards a medical school curriculum for uncertainty in clinical practice. *Medical Education Online*, *26*(1), 1972762. https://doi.org/10.1080/10872981.2021.1972762

Pusic, M. [BWH Education Institute]. (2020, September 10). *The Master Adaptive Learner Framework: A Metacognitive approach to clinician learning* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jek8cyUeRDE

Pusic, M. V., Santen, S. A., Dekhtyar, M., Poncelet, A. N., Roberts, N. K., Wilson-Delfosse, A. L., & Cutrer, W. B. (2018). Learning to balance efficiency and innovation for optimal adaptive expertise. *Medical Teacher*, *40*(8), 820–827. https://doi.org/10.1080/0142159X.2018.1485887

Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2011). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Saldaña, J. (2016). *The coding manual for qualitative researchers*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Schiavone, F., & Ferretti, M. (2021). The futureS of healthcare. *Futures*, *134*(102849). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.futures.2021.102849

Skochelak, S. E., Hammoud, M. M., Lomis, K. D., Borkan, J. M., Gonzalo, J. D., Lawson, L. E., & Starr, S. R. (Eds.). (2020). *Health systemics science* (2nd ed.). Elsevier

Skochelak, S. E., Lomis, K. D., Andrews, J. S., Hammoud, M. M., Mejicano, G. C., & Byerley, J. (2021). Realizing the vision of the lancet commission on education of health professionals for the 21st century: Transforming medical education through the accelerating change in medical education consortium. *Medical Teacher*, *43*(sup2), S1–S6. https://doi.org/10.1080/0142159X.2021.1935833

Smith, S. R. (2004). The meta-curriculum in medical education. *Medicine and Health Rhode Island*, *87*(8), 236-9.

Wolff, M., Deiorio, N. M., Miller Juve, A., Richardson, J., Gazelle, G., Moore, M., Santen, S. A., & Hammoud, M. M. (2021). Beyond advising and mentoring: Competencies for coaching in medical education. *Medical Teacher*, *43*(10), 1210-1213. https://doi.org/10.1080/0142159X.2021.1947479

Virtual Reality as a Transformative Learning Experience to Reduce Implicit Racial Bias

Cory Logston
Fielding Graduate University

Abstract: Virtual reality promotes prosocial behavior on various issues, including homelessness, ageism, and the environment. Recently researchers have explored the potential for a virtual reality experience to promote an empathic perspective transformation with promising results. The purpose of my proposed research is to investigate and explain the effectiveness of virtual reality as a strategy to bring about a transformative learning experience through historical empathy and reduce implicit racial bias. The expected outcomes of my research will show virtual reality as an intervention to reduce implicit racial bias through historical empathy. Consequently, indicating engagement in virtual reality is more effective than traditional methods, a 2D desktop or written transcript. Results of this proposed study are hypothesized to demonstrate that virtual reality is a beneficial strategy for prosocial behavior.

*Keywords***:** virtual reality, historical empathy, transformative learning, implicit racial bias

Ruth Bader Ginsberg (n.d.) once said, "I think unconscious bias is one of the hardest things to get at." Unconscious or implicit bias is the underlying stereotypes, prejudices, and attitudes directed toward an individual or group without conscious awareness (Oberai & Anand, 2018). The implicit biases ubiquitous in our society are gender, age, sexuality, and race. Research on various interventions involving the latter, implicit racial bias, has produced mixed results. A recent systematic review reported that different intervention approaches, which include identifying with the outgroup, adopting egalitarian views, and implementing counter-stereotypical methods, discovered these techniques ineffective (Fitzgerald et al., 2019).

Attempts to understand racism through individual and societal frameworks have resulted in several theories. Allport's (1954) pioneering work on prejudice and intergroup social relations explained group behaviors in the context of ingroup and outgroup interaction. Social identity theory seeks to explain how the groups that individuals belong to shape their identity and social acceptance, further advancing the ingroup and outgroup concept (Tajfel et al., 1979). Efforts to identify more subtle forms of prejudice and discrimination resulted in aversive racism, described as avoiding the outgroup (Dovidio et al., 2017). Microaggression theory addresses the issue of subtle and often implicit derogatory everyday slights by a majority group towards a minority (Sue, 2010). The prejudice habit model discusses that prejudice results from external and internal motivation (Devine, 1989). Based on Forscher et al. (2017) the premise that unintentional bias is an "unwanted habit that can change through motivation, awareness, and effort" (p. 2). A study by Devine et al. (2012) produced an evidence-based habit-breaking method to reduce racism; further randomized controlled testing suggested that participants sustained the effects for up to three years. Greenwald and Banaji (1995) developed an implicit social cognition paradigm, arguing that some biases are unexpressed by the individual rather than an unconscious judgment

that affects perceptions and behaviors. The Implicit Associations Test (IAT) uses a framework to measure implicit bias. It was implemented in numerous studies on implicit racial bias (Banakou et al., 2018; Groom et al., 2009; Peck et al., 2013).

Transformative Learning Theory

The adult educational model, transformative learning theory (TLT), was developed to describe the mental process learner experiences, resulting in a change of previously held beliefs and subsequent behavior. First originated by Jack Mezirow (1978a), the paradigm attempts to explain the phenomenon of a *disorienting dilemma* that triggers metamorphosis in previous beliefs and world views. According to Mezirow, the learner then progresses through stages, including recognition, exploration, and acquiring knowledge to make an informed change in perspective. The final stage of the theory is the implementation of the newly acquired perspective (Mezirow, 1991). Outcomes range from self-efficacy, to awareness, and confidence in one's critical thinking abilities (Dirkx et al., 2006).

The word transformation implies a change, to alter, modify, or sometimes, a complete metamorphosis of a person, place, or thing. Transformative learning theory (TLT) is an adult educational theory created in the 1970s by Jack Mezirow (1978a) after a groundbreaking study for the Department of Education on adult women returning to a college program after a hiatus and the factors that hindered or facilitated their success (Mezirow, 1978a). The qualitative data concluded that participants experienced a personal transformation in perspective and personal growth accompanied by a change in worldview. Based on this analysis, Mezirow developed ten phases of transformative learning to explain an adult change in perspective as shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Ten phases of transformative learning proposed by Mezirow (2000)

Phase	Characteristics
Phase 1	A disorienting dilemma
Phase 2	A self-examination with feelings of guilt or shame
Phase 3	A critical assessment of epistemic, sociocultural, or psychic assumptions
Phase 4	Recognition that the process of transformation is shared
Phase 5	Exploration of options for new roles, relationships, and actions
Phase 6	Planning of a course of action
Phase 7	Acquisition of knowledge and skills for implementing plans
Phase 8	Provisional trying of new roles
Phase 9	Building of competence and self-confidence in new roles and relationships
Phase 10	A reintegration into one's life based on perspective

Note. Reprinted from *The evolution of John Mezirow's transformative learning theory*, by A. Kitchenham, 2008. *Journal of Transformative Education*, p. 105. Copyright 2008 by Sage Publications.

The theory proposes that following the disorienting dilemma is a period of self-examination. Learners examine preconceived assumptions, known as the phase of critical reflection.

Brookfield (2000) describes critical reflection as the process of constructing and deconstructing meaning. Although Mezirow's (1978a) traditional view of critical reflection is based on purely cognitive aspects, critics claim (Taylor, 2015). After some debate, Mezirow conceded that "affective, emotional, and social aspects were important to the framework" (Kitchenham, 2008, p. 110). Therefore, critical reflection is a thinking process by which severe consideration and contemplation result in a meaningful combination of cognitive and emotional factors (Taylor, 2015).

Empathy and Historical Empathy

Empathy is a complex constrHuiuct described as the ability to put oneself into another's shoes to understand the emotions and feelings of that person (Ioannidou,& Konstantikaki, 2008). . Empathy is thought to develop from a young age and is a vital personality characteristic (Ornaghi et al., 2020). Each person can vary in their capacity to empathize. However, this ability is not only an intrinsic emotion it can also be learned as a social psychological construct. Empathy connects people and plays a vital role in building a stronger society (Riggio et al., 1989).

Much like empathy, the definition of *historical empathy* has been under scrutiny since its inception. The literature describes historical empathy as an educational framework integrating historical context, perspective-taking, and emotional connection (Davis et al., 2001). Historical context comprehension of a past figure's life event aids in understanding their decisions and actions (Endacott & Brooks, 2013). *Taking a walk in someone else's shoes* is the expression often used to describe perspective taking, in this case, the viewpoint of an actual person in history. Emotional connection creates a deeper understanding of the feelings and motivations of the lived experience (Huijgen et al., 2017). Historical empathy relies upon non-fiction narrative-based perspective-taking to "develop an enriched understanding of certain figures and events during a specific time in history" (Davis, 2001).

Initially, historical empathy research focused on the cognitive or affective components separately, eventually integrating the two elements (Endacott, 2014). Early research focused on the more cognitive part of historical empathy using influential historical figures, for example Neville Chamberlain (Foster, 1999) and Harry Truman (Foster & Yeager, 1998). In cognitive exercises students were encouraged to understand and evaluate historical decisions through rational inquiry and perspective-taking which are components of historical empathy. Additionally, the affective element of empathy was emphasized through marginalized characters, for instance, women (Kohlmeier, 2006) or Holocaust victims (Riley, 1998), and attempted to explain the emotional element through the feelings and motivating actions at that particular time in history. Endacott and Brooks (2013) proposed a dual process model based on empathy, the cognitive, affective construct. A study on Truman’s decision to drop the bomb suggested a strong correlation between cognitive perspective-taking and emotional empathy.

Historical empathy differs from empathy as there is a contextual component to historical empathy. The viewer experiences a figure from the past in the framework of the environment, socio-political and cultural time (Endacott & Brooks, 2013). Huijgen et al. (2017) studied historical perspective-taking and concluded that prior knowledge of the historical event was

critical in participants' ability to disregard present-day thinking. Endacott (2014) suggested a balance between perspective-taking and historical context.

Virtual Reality as a Strategy to Reduce Implicit Racial Bias

A relatively new and innovative intervention method for reducing racial bias is virtual reality (VR). Schroeder (2008) described VR as an alternate environment generated by technology with the potential to interact and immerse oneself. VR has a history dating to the 1800s, from the first stereoscope to the current Oculus headset. In the 1920s, pilots used the first flight simulator, invented for training and education. A toy company introduced an early form of VR in 1939 with the popular View-Master, which included hundreds of reels ranging from cartoons to scenic trips. The VR experience has 60 years of View-master history. Filmmaker Morton Heilig believed films should be a sensory experience creating the first immersive film experience called Sensorama that incorporated vision, hearing, touch, and smell. VR has emerged in the next four decades with gaming, entertainment, education, healthcare, and wellness applications.

A VR experience replicates real life, incorporating the senses, sight, hearing, and touch for an interactive, reactive experience. Designers create controlled environments to surround the viewer with a realistic narrative representation. Markowitz and Bailenson (2021) revealed in a review the impact a climate change VR simulation had on participants; the literature showed an increase in awareness and altruistic motivation, although the authors acknowledge the lack of longevity studies. To discover a relationship between a homeless perspective-taking VR experience and volunteerism, Herrera et al. (2018) recruited 130 U.S. university students. They found a lasting compassionate attitude toward the homeless population, showing participants' willingness to volunteer. A recent study by Banakou et al. (2018) virtually embodied 28 male student participants in the body of theoretical physicist Albert Einstein. The data suggested reduced ageism and a change in cognitive processing with higher executive functioning (Banakou et al., 2018).

Immersive VR is widely regarded by scholars and researchers as an instrument to induce and foster empathy (Bollmer, 2017; Herrera et al., 2018; Rueda & Lara, 2019). The term empathy machine has been used to describe the ability of VR to transport the viewer into perspective and lived experience. Barbot and Kauffman (2020) determined that a VR experience can be crucial for increasing empathy. There is a current trend in using technology to enhance different experiences that would otherwise be inaccessible. For example, an immersive journalism experience on specific news events yielded higher VR empathy than a 2D platform (Bujić et al., 2020). A recent meta-analysis examining nine empirical studies on empathy, perspective-taking, and immersive VR concluded that an empathy-promoting experience could lead to positive social behavior toward the outgroup (Ventura et al., 2020). The data showed that perspective-taking VR technology is more effective than traditional methods in motivating prosocial behavior (Ventura et al., 2020). A study by Schutte and Stilinović (2017) on 24 university students concluded that the more profound the engagement in the experience, the more empathetic the connection between the effects of an immersive documentary about a refugee camp and a young migrant’s plight.

Research on the potentiality of VR as a medium to reduce implicit racial bias in various settings revealed positive outcomes. In one study, Peck et al. (2013) designed a simulation whereby 60

female participants were immersed in one of four avatar conditions, black, white, brown, and purple; data suggested a higher level of engagement and a reduction in implicit racial bias. A similar study with 90 female students indicated that an immersive VR experience in either a Black or White avatar decreases implicit racial bias in white participants. Additionally, the data showed that the effect was sustained for at least one week (Banakou et al.,2016). In another study on VR as a viable tool in the courtroom, 92 male and female participants revealed lower implicit racial bias and a higher cognitive assessment of insufficient evidence after a mock legal scenario (Salmanowitz, 2018).

Indications for Adult Education

VR has been widely used in training, for example, military simulations, manufacturing, and medical field training. A case study on VR pilot training in Air Force training explored constructive, experiential, and active theories. Participants expressed a higher engagement and a better understanding of concepts (Lignos & Korres, 2021). Additionally, the healthcare field developed VR experiences for training and patient care, allowing students to learn from trial and error (Pottle, 2021). A review of 26 peer reviewed journal papers showed the efficacy of VR as a teaching model for skills building and experiential learning students would not have in the real world (Asad et al., 2021). Although research is sparse, published studies indicate that VR is a positive tool to enhance the learning experience.

Conclusion

Systemic racism affects multiple facets of Black lives in America. Efforts to discover new strategies to mitigate implicit racial bias have resulted in numerous interventions, including breaking prejudicial habits and counter-stereotyping, with mixed results (Forscher et al., 2019). However, an immersive experience is considerably more effective than other traditional methods in decreasing racial bias (Peck et al., 2013).

My research aims to establish a VR experience as a viable strategy using a historical narrative documentary to reduce implicit racial bias. VR is a powerful empathy machine becoming increasingly popular in multiple prosocial applications. Technology is not a cure-all, although the research proves to be optimistic about the ability to transform perspectives and affect social change.

References

Allport, G. W. (1954). *The nature of prejudice*. Addison-Wesley.

Asad, M. M., Naz, A., Churi, P., & Tahanzadeh, M. M. (2021). Virtual reality as pedagogical tool to enhance experiential learning: A systematic literature review. *Education Research International, 2021*.

Banakou, D., Kishore, S., & Slater, M. (2018). Virtually being Einstein results in an improvement in cognitive task performance and a decrease in age bias. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 917.

Barbot, B., & Kaufman, J. C. (2020). What makes immersive virtual reality the ultimate empathy machine? Discerning the underlying mechanisms of change. *Computers in Human Behavior, 111,* Article 106431. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2020.106431

Bollmer, G. (2017). Empathy machines. *Media International Australia, 165*(1), 63-76.

Brookfield, S. D. (2000). The concept of critically reflective practice. *Handbook of Adult and Continuing Education, 2*, 33-49.

Bujić, M., Salminen, M., Macey, J., & Hamari, J. (2020). “Empathy machine”: how virtual reality affects human rights attitudes. *Internet Research*.

Davis, O. L., Yeager, E. A., & Foster, S. J. (2001). *Historical empathy and perspective taking in the social studies.* Rowman & Littlefield.

Devine, P. G., Forscher, P. S., Austin, A. J., & Cox, W. T. (2012). Long-term reduction in implicit race bias: A prejudice habit-breaking intervention. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *48*(6), 1267-1278.

Devine, P. G. (1989) Stereotypes and prejudice: Their automatic and controlled components. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 56* (1), 5.

Dirkx, J. M., Mezirow, J., & Cranton, P. (2006). Musings and reflections on the meaning, context, and process of transformative learning: A dialogue between John M. Dirkx and Jack Mezirow. *Journal of Transformative Education*, *4*(2), 123-139.

Dovidio, J. F., Gaertner, S. L., & Pearson, A. R. (2017). 12 Aversive Racism and Contemporary Bias.

Endacott, J., & Brooks, S. (2013). An updated theoretical and practical model for promoting historical empathy. *Social Studies Research and Practice.*

Endacott, J. L. (2014). Negotiating the process of historical empathy. *Theory & Research in Social Education*, *42*(1), 4-34.

FitzGerald, C., Martin, A., Berner, D., & Hurst, S. (2019). Interventions designed to reduce implicit prejudices and implicit stereotypes in real world contexts: a systematic review. *BMC Psychology*, *7*(1), 1-12. https://doi.org/10.1186/s40359-019-0299-7

Forscher, P. S., Mitamura, C., Dix, E. L., Cox, W. T., & Devine, P. G. (2017). Breaking the prejudice habit: Mechanisms, timecourse, and longevity. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *72*, 133-146.

Forscher, P. S., Lai, C. K., Axt, J. R., Ebersole, C. R., Herman, M., Devine, P. G., & Nosek, B. A. (2019). A meta-analysis of procedures to change implicit measures. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *117*(3), 522–559. https://doi.org/10.1037/pspa0000160

Foster, S. (1999). Using historical empathy to excite students about the study of history: Can you empathize with Neville Chamberlain?. *The Social Studies*, *90*(1), 18-24.

Foster, S. J., & Yeager, E. A. (1998). The role of empathy in the development of historical understanding. *International Journal of Social Education*, *13*(1), 1-7.

Greenwald, A. G., & Banaji, M. R. (1995). Implicit social cognition: attitudes, self-esteem, and stereotypes. *Psychological Review*, *102*(1), 4–27. https://doi-org.fgul.idm.oclc.org/10.1037/0033-295x.102.1.4

Groom, V., Bailenson, J. N., & Nass, C. (2009). The influence of racial embodiment on racial bias in immersive virtual environments. *Social Influence, 4*(3), 231–248. https://doi.org/10.1080/15534510802643750

Herrera, F., Bailenson, J., Weisz, E., Ogle, E., Zaki, J. (2018) Building long-term empathy: A large-scale comparison of traditional and virtual reality perspective-taking. *PLoS ONE 13*(10): e0204494. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0204494

Huijgen, T., Van Boxtel, C., van de Grift, W., & Holthuis, P. (2017). Toward historical perspective taking: Students' reasoning when contextualizing the actions of people in the past. *Theory & Research in Social Education*, *45*(1), 110-144. doi:10.1080/00933104.2016.

Ioannidou, F., & Konstantikaki, V. (2008). Empathy and emotional intelligence: What is it really about? *International Journal of Caring Sciences, 1*(3), 118-123. Retrieved from https://fgul.idm.oclc.org/login?url=https://www-proquest-com.fgul.idm.oclc.org/scholarly-journals/empathy-emotional-intelligence-what-is-really/docview/1112231766/se-2

Kitchenham, A. (2008). The evolution of John Mezirow's transformative learning theory. *Journal of Transformative Education*, *6*(2), 104–123. https://doi.org/10.1177/1541344608322678

Kohlmeier, J. (2006). "Couldn't she just leave?": The relationship between consistently using class discussions and the development of historical empathy in a 9th grade world history course. *Theory & Research in Social Education*, *34*(1), 34-57.

Lignos, I., & Korres, M. P. (2021). Virtual Reality Applications as an Innovative Educational Practice in Adult Education: A Case Study on Training Hellenic Air Force Pilots. In *Research Anthology on Adult Education and the Development of Lifelong Learners* (pp. 386-406). IGI Global.

Markowitz, D. M., & Bailenson, J. N. (2021). Virtual reality and the psychology of climate change. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, *42*, 60-65.

Oberai, H., & Anand, I. M. (2018). Unconscious bias: thinking without thinking. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, *26*(6), 14-17.

Ornaghi, V., Conte, E., & Grazzani, I. (2020). Empathy in toddlers: The role of emotion regulation, language ability, and maternal emotion socialization style. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*, 586862.

Peck, T.C., Seinfeld, S., Aglioti, S.M., & Slater, M. (2013). Putting yourself in the skin of a black avatar reduces implicit racial bias. *Consciousness and Cognition, 22*, 779-787.

Mezirow, J. (1978a). *Education for perspective transformation: Womens re-entry programs in community colleges.* Teacher's College, Columbia University.

Pottle, J. (2019). Virtual reality and the transformation of medical education. *Future Healthcare Journal*, *6*(3), 181.

Riggio, R. E., Tucker, J., & Coffaro, D. (1989). Social skills and empathy. *Personality and individual differences*, *10*(1), 93-99.

Riley, K. L. (1998). Historical empathy and the Holocaust: Theory into practice. *International Journal of Social Education, 13*(1), 32-42.

Rueda, J., & Lara, F. (2020) Virtual reality and empathy enhancement: Ethical aspects. *Frontiers in Robotics and AI*.

Salmanowitz, N. (2018). The impact of virtual reality on implicit racial bias and mock legal decisions. *Journal of Law and the Biosciences*, *5*(1), 174-203.

Schroeder, R. (2008). Defining virtual worlds and virtual environments. *The Journal of Virtual Worlds Research, 1*.

Schutte, N. S., & Stilinović, E. J. (2017). Facilitating empathy through virtual reality. *Motivation and emotion*, *41*(6), 708-712.

Sue, D. W. (2010). *Microaggressions in everyday life: Race, gender, and sexual orientation.* John Wiley & Sons.

Tajfel, H., Turner, J. C., Austin, W. G., & Worchel, S. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. *Organizational Identity: A Reader*, 56-65.

Taylor, E.W. (2015). Empathy: The stepchild of critical reflection and transformative learning. *Educational Reflective Practices*, 5-22.

Ventura, S., Badenes-Ribera, L., Herrero, R., Cebolla, A., Galiana, L., & Baños, R. (2020). Virtual reality as a medium to elicit empathy: A meta-analysis. *Cyberpsychology, Behavior, and Social Networking*, *23*(10), 667-676.

Trauma-Informed Practice: Designed for Children, Necessary for Adults

Heather Ebba Maib, Laura Holyoke, and Tricia Gehrlein
University of Idaho

Abstract: Trauma-informed practices were initially designed for children; however, we argue that higher education is well-positioned to address the needs of adults as well. This paper discusses adopting trauma-informed practices in organizations and relational spaces. We also share preliminary findings from a qualitative pilot study that explored the attitudes of student affairs professionals toward the concepts and strategies of providing trauma-informed care in an institution of higher education. Study participants engaged in a post-training survey and semi-structured interviews after completing a trauma-informed services training intervention developed and delivered by research team members.

Keywords: trauma-informed, organization development, higher education, professional development

Over the last twenty years, an increasing body of research has brought attention to the impact of early childhood trauma and adversity on how people approach daily challenges and interpersonal relationships. While trauma-informed practices have been implemented in the K-12 settings, we argue that higher education institutions are well-positioned to address such needs for adult learners. Adults who have experienced adversity, anxiety, and toxic stress, much like elementary and secondary educational children could benefit from post-secondary system-based support. Even though trauma-informed practice is designed to meet the needs of children, we believe it is necessary for adults who bring maladaptive coping mechanisms into higher education organizations to also receive such program planning. This growing need is timely as we navigate our future workplaces and learning communities. A trauma-informed approach shifts questioning from *What's wrong with you?* to *What happened to you?* Such an approach shifts blame from a person to the situation. Hence, this paper briefly details trauma-informed practice and related professional development. Next, we share preliminary findings from a qualitative pilot study that explored student affairs professionals' perceptions of concepts and strategies following a trauma-informed training intervention. Finally, we discuss limitations and make recommendations for future research and practice.

Literature Review

Trauma and childhood adversity are ubiquitous in the United States. An estimated 50%-90% of people in the United States have experienced trauma (Gray & Litz, 2005; Treleaven, 2018; Donisch et al., 2016; Brion, 2020). To address the impact of trauma and adversity on the populations they serve, some public health and community service agencies, including the K-12 system developed and implemented trauma-informed frameworks and practices for approaching their work. Nevertheless, research is needed to determine how these models could influence the culture of adults learning and working at higher education institutions.

Education, emergency response, child welfare, and health systems need providers trained in research-based trauma services (Ko et al., 2008). Educational systems are accessible and well-

situated to provide needed support. However, professionals in these social sciences fields, trained to *do no harm,* lack the proper training to support students who have experienced trauma (Alisic, 2012). Therefore, these professionals avoid providing support in the name of possibly furthering harm or retraumatizing children. Effective trauma-informed training must include *actionable steps* that staff, faculty, and administrators can implement to become more inclusive and culturally responsive (Henshaw, 2022).

In addition to benefits for those receiving services, trauma-informed training interventions also positively impact people working in the organization. Recent studies illustrate positive correlations between staff perceptions of their organization and increased client outcomes after adopting a trauma-informed approach to care (Hales et al., 2019). Training interventions positively impact the well-being of the trainees, who feel their experiences were validated (Schimmels & Cunningham, 2021). Parker et al. (2020) found that employees who received trauma-informed training demonstrated an enduring change in their mindset and approach to work. However, training language used to discuss a trauma-informed approach is inconsistent across service sectors (Donisch et al. 2016).

The literature on trauma-informed practice has shown benefits on the personal, social, and societal levels (Fernández et al., 2023). Vandervoort (2006) proposes that a trauma-informed curriculum could benefit the university climate and culture. Moving an institution of higher education toward becoming a trauma-informed organization is significant for several reasons. A trauma-informed approach in higher education can increase perceptions of safety and well-being in the organization (Henshaw, 2022). Implementing trauma-informed practices in higher education could aid in retention and graduation rates for all students, particularly those who have experienced contentious relationships with educators (Henshaw, 2022). Additionally, trauma-informed practices could potentially benefit faculty and staff retention and increase the well-being of employees, which could positively impact overall student success and experience.
As educators and practitioners, our research team has devoted time to developing trauma-informed training interventions that address issues pertinent to higher education institutions. In the study presented here, we share preliminary findings of a pilot study that sought to understand which aspects of a trauma-informed training intervention resonated with student affairs professionals. We begin by addressing questions to evaluate trauma-informed staff training recommended by Purtle (2020): 1) what should be the minimum duration of trauma-informed training; 2) which content should be included; and 3) to what extent the training should be tailored to the organization?

Research Design

Two research team members developed a trauma-informed training curriculum in 2018 and piloted the program at a practitioner conference for educational opportunities programs fall of 2019. Over four years, our team tailored the curriculum to meet the needs of regional organizations that requested our training. Our training team consulted with each client to tailor the workshops to meet their organizational needs. The complete training intervention curriculum takes approximately 14-16 hours to deliver, although some have been considerably shorter. During spring 2022, we consulted with a student affairs division at a public four-year university in the northwestern United States to provide a workshop on trauma-informed approaches. Staff

from this group represented a variety of offices across the institution. The client reviewed our developed materials and met with us to customize the curriculum for their training.

We designed the training to promote personal growth in addition to professional development. The curriculum framed trauma-informed organizations using Sandra Bloom's (2020) conception of creating *biocratic* organizations. According to Bloom (2020), biocratic organizations are living systems that must have their basic needs met in order to healthily function. Concepts explored in training included Bath's three pillars of trauma-wise care (Safety, Connection, and Coping), Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration and the Center for Disease Control's six guiding principles of trauma-informed care (1. Safety, 2. Trustworthiness and Transparency, 3. Peer Support, 4. Collaboration and Mutuality, 5. Empowerment, Voice and Choice, and 6. Cultural, Historical and Gender Issues), an overview of adverse childhood experiences, and ways toxic stress, vicarious/secondary trauma, and burnout impact individuals and organizations (Bath, 2015; SAMHSA, 2014). Weaved through the training were practices rooted in relational mindfulness. Such methods included activities in deep listening, validation, empathy, and understanding interpersonal reactivity.

Data Collection and Analysis

Research participants in this study attended a one-day training designed and facilitated by our research team. We utilized a generic qualitative design because our approach was not informed by a predetermined set of philosophical assumptions, for study design and data collection (Kahlke, 2014). We collected data post-training intervention via a four-question qualitative survey and twenty-minute semi-structured qualitative interviews. The open-ended survey was created using the Qualtrics platform and sent to training attendees (~40) via email approximately one week after participating in the training intervention. The survey included the following questions:

1. Which aspects of the training did you appreciate and why?
2. What concepts or ideas presented in the training resonated with you that you can begin using in your professional and/or personal life?
3. What do you see as the potential effects a trauma-informed approach could have on organizational culture and the well-being of faculty, staff, and students?
4. In what ways do you see yourself promoting and creating trauma-awareness and responsiveness in our campus community?

Attendees received a follow-up contact reminder to complete the survey approximately two weeks after the conclusion of the training. Twenty respondents began the survey, with nine completing and submitting responses. Each complete submission was downloaded as a PDF for our research team to analyze individually and then as a group. Answers were combined by the survey questions and entered into a shared spreadsheet.

Training attendees were also offered an opportunity to participate in a brief qualitative interview. The research team collaborated with the training organizer to recruit interviewees. We used purposeful convenience sampling to select participants who would provide information-rich feedback about the training through interviews (Patton, 2015). Three training attendees participated in the research interviews, and the following questions guided the data collection:

1. What do you remember about that day? Tell me more about that?

2. Have any of the concepts from the training come up since the training either at work or at home? Please tell me about that.
3. Is there anything you recommend we remove from the training?
4. If there was one thing from the training that you wish was widely practiced in higher education, what would it be and why?

The in-person interviews were conducted and recorded via Zoom and initially processed with online transcription software. One team member cleaned the transcripts using intelligent verbatim transcription. Each research team member independently analyzed and coded the data and met weekly to discuss insights and findings. Our research team utilized the reflexive iteration framework proposed by Srivastava and Hopwood (2009). Their proposed framework captures a flexible and simplified process to understand and articulate relationships and concepts discovered during analysis. Central to this approach is "the visiting and revisiting the data and connecting them with emerging insights, progressively leading to refined focus and understanding" (p. 77). We adapted this process and engaged in individual and group reflexive analysis to support and articulate our understanding of the data. Additionally, the reflexive group analysis process supported data triangulation by incorporating multiple perspectives from the three individual members of our research group (Patton, 1999).

Preliminary Findings

This pilot study aimed to gain insights into how student affairs professionals engaged with a professional development training on trauma-informed services. We aimed to explore the participants' perceptions of the concepts and strategies promoted during the training. Our preliminary analysis revealed survey and interview respondents fell into three audience tiers: 1) those with no intention of integrating the material, 2) those who found the information helpful, and 3) those already working toward a similar goal and desired further development. Within these tiers, we identified preliminary themes: a) learning human skills takes practice, b) learning and common language, c) realistic training time(ing), and d) training as a valued opportunity.

Learning human skills takes practice. Our analysis showed that while participants learned concepts during the training, they recognized not knowing how to apply these concepts in their day-to-day work. Participants indicated wanting more time to practice what they learned during the training instead of later. Understanding concepts is easy, doing them poses challenges.

Learn and use common language. One recurring theme from the surveys and the interviews was the concept or need of *naming* or providing a common language to describe the practice. Some training attendees were in the process of moving their work teams toward adopting similar practices discussed in the intervention but appreciated how the training provided them with a common language for trauma-informed practice.

Need for Realistic training time(ing). A consistent theme that emerged from the survey responses and interviews was the *timing* of the training intervention. Most respondents expressed that they felt they needed more time with the concepts. Additionally, due to the compressed nature of the training, the ability to engage in activities to support their learning transfer was and context. Another issue related to timing was the time of year the training occurred. The training

intervention was scheduled before the beginning of the academic year, a critical time for student affairs professionals to prepare for various events and orientations. The beginning of the academic year proved difficult as approximately half of the division staff could attend the training. Additionally, the low completion rate for the post-training survey and the difficulty in recruiting interviewees could be explained by the hectic nature of this time of year.

Training as a valued opportunity. One of the most interesting themes we identified from the study was hidden or *invisible data.* In addition to conducting the current pilot study, our research team also analyzed data from another study that explored what people found meaningful in a small workgroup professional development training. We found that one of the primary differences in how the groups reacted to the training was the *value* attached to the opportunity. The trainers received no monetary compensation for this session, whereas previously we received compensation as trainers for professional development training. Therefore, it is possible that the attendees did not find value in the training because it was offered without a fee to the participants. The second issue in terms of value was related to *compulsory attendance.* The entire division of student affairs was not able to attend the training. If the training was optional, it is possible that finding value in the content is diminished. Finally, by attempting to accommodate the client's request to include a lot of content over a short duration, we ultimately did not meet their needs as an organization. In our attempt to meet this request, we compressed the content, leaving the group without enough time to engage more deeply with the material.

Discussion

The preliminary findings start to answer questions posed by Purtle (2020). In terms of duration, we believe trauma-informed training interventions must last longer than one day (7 hours) for attendees to understand and begin applying the concepts. Allowing enough time during the training for application and reflection is critical to personal and organizational integration of the concepts and content (Furman & Sibthorp, 2013). While we did not explicitly design our study to address Purtle's second question regarding what content to include, as the training developers, we felt it was essential to introduce the critical background and foundational information to contextualize the curriculum (Thomas, 2007). Because one size does not fit all, we tailored the training to suit the stated needs of the contact client (Schein, 1999). Moving forward, we want to ensure we do not dilute the learning process by offering *a la carte* workshops.

Institutions of higher education are well-positioned to meet the needs of adults, both employees and learners, who bring diverse life experiences to institutions. As awareness of societal issues that impact individual adults increases, we believe adopting approaches that honor their lived experiences is crucial to healthy and inclusive organizational cultures (Bloom, 2020). Integrating trauma-informed practices in higher education can support the creation of a more inclusive campus climate. Although there are studies assessing trauma-informed training interventions, we recommend further investigation into trauma-informed professional development designed explicitly to meet the needs of faculty, staff, and administrators in higher education institutions.

References

Alisic, E. (2012). Teachers' perspectives on providing support to children after trauma: A qualitative study. *School Psychology Quarterly, 27*(1), 51–59. https://doi.org 10.1037/a0028590

Anderson, E. M. (2015). Exploring a school-university model for professional development with classroom staff: teaching trauma-informed approaches. *School Community Journal, 25*(2), 113-134.

Bath, H. (2015). The three pillars of traumawise care: Healing in the other 23 hours. *Reclaiming Children and Youth, 23*(4), 5-11.

Bloom, Sandra. (2020). Creating healthy biocratic organizations. In K.R. Ginsburg & Z.B.R. McClain (Eds), *Reaching teens: Strengths-based, trauma-sensitive, resilience-building communication strategies rooted in positive youth development* (pp. 800-816). American Academy of Pediatrics.

Brion, C. (2020). Trauma-informed leadership. *International Journal of Teaching and Case Studies, 11*(4), 344-357. https://doi.org/10.1504/ijtcs.2020.112751

Donisch, K., Bray, C., & Gewirtz, A. (2016). Child welfare, juvenile justice, mental health, and education providers' conceptualizations of trauma-informed practice. *Child Maltreatment, 21*(2), 125-134. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077559516633304

Fernández, V., Gausereide-Corral, M., Valiente, C., & Sánchez-Iglesias, I. (2023). Effectiveness of trauma-informed care interventions at the organizational level: A systematic review. *Psychological Services*. https://doi.org/10.1037/ser0000737

Furman, N., & Sibthorp, J. (2013). Leveraging experiential learning techniques for transfer. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, *2013*(137), 17–26. https://doi.org/10.1002/ace.20041

Gray, M. J., & Litz, B. T. (2005). Behavioral interventions for recent trauma: Empirically informed practice guidelines. *Behavior Modification, 29*(1), 189-215. https://doi.org/10.1177/0145445504270884

Hales, T. W., Green, S. A., Bissonette, S., Warden, A., Diebold, J., Koury, S. P., & Nochajski, T. H. (2019). Trauma-informed care outcome study. *Research on Social Work Practice*, 529-539. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049731518766618

Henshaw, L. A. (2022). Building trauma-informed approaches in higher education. *Behavioral Sciences*, *12*(10), 368. https://doi.org/10.3390/bs12100368

Kahlke, R. M. (2014). Generic qualitative approaches: Pitfalls and benefits of methodological mixology. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *13*(1), 37–52. https://doi.org/10.1177/160940691401300119

Ko, S. J., Ford, J. D., Kassam-Adams, N., Berkowitz, S. J., Wilson, C., Wong, M., Brymer, M. J., & Layne, C. M. (2008). Creating trauma-informed systems: Child welfare, education, first responders, health care, juvenile justice. Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 39(4), 396–404. https://doi.org/10.1037/0735-7028.39.4.396

Patton, M. (1999). Enhancing the quality and credibility of qualitative analysis. *Health Services Research*, *34*(5), 1189–1208.

Patton, M. Q. (2015). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Parker, J., Olson, S., & Bunde, J. (2020). The impact of trauma-based training on educators. *Journal of child & adolescent trauma*, *13*(2), 217–227. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40653-019-00261-5

Purtle, J. (2020). Systematic review of evaluations of trauma-informed organizational interventions that include staff trainings. *Trauma, Violence, & Abuse*, 21(4), 725–740. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524838018791304

Schein, E. H. (1999). P*rocess consultation revisited: Building the helping relationship.* Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.

Schimmels, J., & Cunningham, L. (2021). How do we move forward with trauma-informed care? *Journal for Nurse Practitioners*, *17*(4), 405–411. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nurpra.2020.12.005

Srivastava, P., & Hopwood, N. (2009). A practical iterative framework for qualitative data analysis. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, *8*(1), 76–84. https://doi.org/10.1177/160940690900800107

Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA). (2014). SAMHSA's concept of trauma and guidance for a trauma-informed approach. https://store.samhsa.gov/sites/default/files/d7/priv/sma14-4884.pdf

Treleaven, D. A. (2018). *Trauma-sensitive mindfulness: Practices for safe and transformative healing.* W.W Norton & Company.

Thomas, E. (2007). Thoughtful planning fosters learning transfer. *Adult Learning, 18*(3-4), 4–8. https://doi.org/10.1177/104515950701800301

Vandervoort, D. J. (2006). The importance of emotional intelligence in higher education. *Current Psychology*, 4-7. https://doi.org /10.1007/s12144-006-1011-7

Critical Digital Andragogy

Jacqueline M. McGinty and Kimberly M. Rehak
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Abstract: Critical educational approaches challenge practices and structures that perpetuate inequalities. The goal is to surpass knowledge acquisition, emphasizing the interconnections of community and context. Twenty-first-century adult education environments must attend to digital literacy and aim to help close the digital divide. One way to address this issue is to promote critical digital andragogy as part of adult education practice. This article explores the concept of critical digital andragogy and the effects of technology on adult education. Adult educators must empower learners when engaging in digital spaces. The authors suggest strategies that adult educators should implement when using digital tools in their teaching practice.

Keywords: critical, digital, andragogy, adult learning, technology

Digital literacy is essential for adult learners. According to the World Economic Forum, digital literacy is part of the twenty-first-century toolkit (Bandura & Méndez Leal, 2022). Many of today's adult learners do not receive digital literacy instruction in school and need digital skills to succeed across every aspect of society. Although many adults have increased technology use, especially since the COVID-19 pandemic, there is still a digital divide (Vogels, 2021). Technology is rapidly evolving, and to keep pace with the digital world, adults must continuously advance their skills and access to new devices and tools. Blackley & Sheffield (2015) suggest that, given the widespread emphasis on "21st-century learning skills" in educational discussions, it may be an opportune moment to reexamine adult learning theory, or andragogy, in the context of these modern learning abilities and the characteristics of today's learners. The changes accompanying technology use call for us to critically analyze learning and instruction in digital environments.

The persisting digital divide highlights the equity issues surrounding technology access and use. Although internet and smartphone use has increased for all Americans, low-income adults still fall behind in access to high-speed internet and digital devices (Vogels, 2021). Approximately 40% of low-income adults lack broadband internet, home computers, and tablets (Vogel, 2021). Another study found that many adults have access to smartphones but need larger devices to participate fully in online/distance learning (ProLiteracy, 2020). To fully participate in society, adults need to have access to high-speed internet, and they need to have the skills to effectively utilize a variety of digital tools such as laptops, personal computers, and tablets. There are many initiatives across the United States to increase all Americans' broadband access and internet use (Digital Inclusion, 2023). Training in digital literacy is essential to using and adopting these tools successfully.

In addition to using different digital devices, adults must know how to navigate digital environments safely and effectively. To help learners develop agency in digital spaces, adult educators must include digital literacy in their teaching practice. It is essential to design learning

experiences that attend to factors related to educational technologies, including privacy, cybersecurity, access, ethics, accessibility, and inclusion. Blackley and Sheffield (2015) developed the term "digital andragogy" to combine andragogical practices with digital teaching and learning (p. 407). The concept of critical digital andragogy takes their work a step further to encompass not only course design but also training for educators and learners on critical aspects associated with technology use. This paper aims to highlight the importance of digital literacy in adult education and offer tips for educators on practicing critical digital andragogy. A short background on critical digital andragogy is provided, followed by best practices for promoting accessibility, equity and inclusion, ethics, privacy and safety, and learner agency.

Background

To develop our perspectives on critical digital andragogy, the authors reviewed foundational literature on critical theory, critical digital pedagogy, and adult learning. Through this comprehensive review, a connection between the principles of critical theory and the evolving field of digital education for adults was identified, highlighting new pathways for learner empowerment and engagement. The concept of critical digital andragogy grew from critical educational perspectives and their connections to the digital world (Blackley & Sheffield, 2015; Stommel, 2014). We can explore critical, digital, and andragogy to understand the concept further.

Critical refers to critical theory. Critical theory is a philosophical orientation that addresses marginalization and aims to liberate humans from oppression and domination (Bohman, 2021). The field of adult education has many connections to critical theory. Wang et al. (2019) highlight that critical theory is especially relevant for mature individuals, as they face not only life challenges and personal development issues but also encounter pervasive influences such as personal and institutional beliefs, dominant societal practices, inequality, intolerance, and feelings of estrangement. Adults often face institutional and personal hurdles in their pursuit of lifelong learning. One of the hurdles is the growing digital component of our daily interactions. The need for continuing education and training is expanding as the digital world continues to grow and change.

Andragogy is a framework that guides the development of adult learning. Andragogy centers on the self-directedness of adults and promotes learning environments that value the experiences and contributions of adult participants. Andragogy focuses on adults as independent learners, in contrast to pedagogy, which focuses on children as dependent learners. The digital andragogical approach, as described by Blackley and Sheffield (2015), places the learners as self-directed entities in control of their learning. They define digital andragogy as “the practice of educators to equip and encourage adult learners to choose and use the affordances of accessible digital technologies to personalize their learning and facilitate their interactions with peers and tutors” (Blackley & Sheffield, 2015, p. 408). In a digital andragogical approach, the educator must design online learning experiences that are easy to navigate, contain a variety of modalities for accessing information, include directly applicable scaffolded information, and encourage collaboration, individual contribution, and reflection (Blackley & Sheffield, 2015).

People often use Pedagogy when discussing educational practices for children and adults. In some environments, pedagogical approaches are the dominant format for delivering instruction.

For example, educators often refer to critical pedagogy when discussing higher education and community learning environments where adult learners are increasing. Critical pedagogy focuses on critiquing power and oppression structures in K-12 and higher education. Critical approaches focus on promoting agency and empowering learners at any age or level (Stommel, 2014). Critical digital pedagogy extends critical pedagogy to digital environments. Open and networked educational environments shouldn't just be storage places for content. Instead, they need to serve as interactive platforms where students and teachers actively participate as the main drivers of their own learning (Stommel, 2014).

By aligning critical digital pedagogy with the unique needs and experiences of adult learners, a more nuanced understanding of how to create inclusive, responsive, and transformative learning environments was achieved. This synthesis not only expands the traditional understanding of andragogy but also offers fresh insights into how critical digital tools and methodologies can be effectively integrated to foster a more participatory and reflective educational experience for adults.

Best Practices in Digital Learning

Adult educators need to be confident in modeling digital literacy in their practice. Adult education programs should include training in technology and expanding digital skills. It is essential to critically reflect upon digital policies and practices to ensure that our instructional approaches do not marginalize learners (Xu & Shah, 2020). Equity gaps are inherent in digital learning environments, and educators need to be aware of the issues and take steps to reduce the inequities (Kubic, 2021). By practicing critical digital andragogy, adult educators can promote digital literacy by attending to specific course facilitation and delivery aspects. When creating learning experiences using digital tools, we must model best practices and account for access and accessibility, equity and inclusion, ethics, privacy and safety, and learner agency.

Access & Accessibility

When designing adult learning experiences, it is vital to consider whether learners have internet access and the hardware and software tools needed to participate. In addition to digital tools, we must consider whether learners possess the computer knowledge and skill to navigate digital devices, which includes the learning management system (Xu & Shah, 2020). Adult educators should take steps to provide directions for participants about how to access the course, how to use digital tools, and where to seek technical assistance.

It is also essential to ensure that class and multimedia tools are accessible for learners with disabilities. If you create videos, include closed captions and alternative (ALT) text for images. Check color contrast for presentations and use a font style and size that is appropriate for digital media. When designing online courses, follow the accessibility guidelines established by the Quality Matters Rubrics, www.qualitymatters.org, and the WCAG Web Accessibility Guidelines, www.w3.org. Many word processing and presentation tools offer accessibility checkers, be sure to utilize them as you create documents and instructional media.

Equity and Inclusion

Course materials need to be inclusive. Inclusive college course materials are essential to provide equal access and opportunities to all students, regardless of their background, abilities, or needs.

By ensuring that materials are accessible and reflective of diverse perspectives, educators create a learning environment where every student feels represented and supported (Gunawardena et al, 2019). Inclusivity not only promotes a more equitable educational experience but also enriches the learning process by incorporating varied viewpoints and experiences, fostering critical thinking and empathy among students (Hammond, 2015). Resources should include a variety of perspectives, and there should be opportunities for learners to connect with the subject matter. Adult educators can leverage the principles of Culturally Responsive Teaching to promote equity and inclusion in their practice. The Motivational Framework for Culturally Responsive Teaching (Ginsberg, 2018; Ginsberg & Wlodkowski, 2019) can guide adult educators toward developing learning experiences that are inclusive, meaningful, relevant, and effective in helping learners reach their goals. In this framework, Ginsberg & Wlodkowski (2018; 2019) outline criteria for inclusion, attitude, meaning, and competence in a learning environment. Learners need to connect to the class community and feel respected by the instructor and peers. Create safe spaces for students to reach out, get technical assistance, and ask questions about the course. Also, clearly explain digital tools and ensure that they are safe to use and easy to navigate. To promote a positive attitude, facilitators should involve the participants in decision-making and offer a variety of ways to connect with course content (Ginsberg, 2018). Consider using digital technologies to create options for learning content by using a variety of multimedia applications for learners to engage with. To promote meaning-making, support learners by scaffolding challenging tasks and guiding them toward personally relevant projects (Ginsberg, 2018). Furthermore, help students explore the digital landscape and engage in real-world problem-solving while building digital literacy skills. To build confidence, encourage learners to demonstrate their knowledge in different ways by providing options for submitting assignments such as written works, visual graphics, video, or other forms of multimedia (CAST, 2018).

Ethics, Privacy, and Safety

A critical aspect of digital literacy is demonstrating the ethical use of the internet and digital tools (Beck et al, 2021). To model digital ethics, engage in responsible internet use by treating others with respect in online interactions, avoiding using the internet for cheating, engaging in responsible digital commerce, and respecting the privacy and autonomy of other internet users.

For example, be aware of fair use and copyright rules and ensure that the content you use is credited to the original author. Copyright laws protect an author’s right to their creative works restricting how the content can be distributed (Covello, 2019). Adult educators should act ethically and respect privacy and safety as part of their teaching practice. For example, evaluating the personal information that learners must provide when acquiring, accessing, and using different technologies is essential when using digital tools. Be mindful of free digital tools that track learner location, behaviors, and personal information. Commonsense Media offers a free online resource for evaluating the privacy of different digital applications, www.privacy.commonsense.org. Carefully select technologies that do not risk the learners' information security. Demonstrate how to read privacy policies and user agreements for digital tools. Engage in conversations about cybersecurity and safety when using digital tools.

Agency

Learner Agency is an essential aspect of critical digital andragogical and pedagogical perspectives. Learner agency is when a person experiences a feeling of control and ownership

over their learning (Hase & Blaschke, 2021). As passive recipients of knowledge from experts, learners become part of an oppressive educational structure that diminishes agency and self-efficacy (Blaschke et al., 2021; Hase & Blaschke, 2021). This top-down, expert-led transmission of information had a long history in educational institutions when information access was limited (Hase & Blaschke, 2021). The internet and other digital technologies have changed the landscape of knowledge and information access, and anyone connected to the internet can acquire information from millions of sources on nearly any topic. Adult educators can use information accessibility to promote agency in learning environments. Digital technologies increase our access to information and expand our networks and ability to build online learning communities.

We can promote agency by encouraging learners to explore concepts by connecting to online communities and joining networks of individuals interested in similar topics (Blaschke et al., 2021). Educators who want to enhance student agency in their teaching should consider the concept of learning ecologies. According to Blaschke et al. (2021), learning is seen as a process that evolves and alters rather than proceeding in a linear fashion, varying across different situations. They further assert that the strength of networked learning ecologies is in their ability to promote learning that spans throughout life, extends across different aspects of life, and delves deeply into the learning experience. Learning ecologies encompass many different environments, including online, hybrid, and face-to-face learning and the environments where people live, work, and play (Blaschke et al., 2021). This perspective views learning as an emerging process that does not follow a straight line and changes across different contexts (Blaschke et al., 2021). "The potential of [networked] learning ecologies lies in facilitating lifelong, lifewide, and lifedeep learning" (Blaschke et al., 2021, para 8). Learning ecologies are multidimensional and encourage student agency as part of a person's learning journey. According to Blaschke et al. (2021), lifelong learning refers to learning across your lifespan, lifewide learning encompasses informal, formal, and other adult learning throughout life, and lifedeep learning is how a person defines their exploration of knowledge.

Discussion

Digital literacy is becoming one of the essential skills that adults need. As adult education extends into digital spaces, learners must receive support to safely and effectively use technology in all aspects of their lives. Adult educators must understand how to design and deliver training experiences that prepare adults to navigate the digital world. A critical digital andragogical perspective can help adult educators identify issues related to access and accessibility, equity and inclusion, ethics, privacy and safety, and learner agency. The intentional practice of critical digital andragogy can also encourage adult learners to join the conversation to help identify their needs and co-construct what it means to be a 21st Century adult learner (Blaschke et al, 2021; Gunawardena et al., 2019). As the digital world continues to evolve, adult educators must keep pace with the changes and share their knowledge with others. The authors of this paper created a resource guide for *critical digital andragogy* offering additional tips, links, and suggestions for practice. We invite you to use, share, and revise the information in the guide to support adult learners as we navigate adult education in the 21st century.

References

Bandura, R. & Méndez Leal, E.I. (2022, July 18). The digital literacy imperative. Center for Strategic and International Studies (CSIS). https://www.csis.org/analysis/digital-literacy-

imperative#:~:text=Digital%20literacy%20has%20become%20indispensable,open%2C%20inclusive%2C%20and%20secure.

Beck, E., Goin, M. E., Ho, A., Parks, A., & Rowe, S. (2021). Critical digital literacy as method for teaching tactics of response to online surveillance and privacy erosion. *Computers and Composition*, 61. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compcom.2021.102654

Blaschke, L. M., Bozkurt, A., & Cormier, D. (2021). Learner agency and the learner-centered theories for online networked learning and learning ecologies. In S. Hase & L. M. Blaschke (Eds.), Unleashing the Power of Learner Agency. EdTech Books. https://edtechbooks.org/up/ecol

Blackley, S. & Sheffield, R. (2015). Digital andragogy: A richer blend of initial teacher education in the 21st century. Issues in Educational Research, 25(4). https://espace.curtin.edu.au/bitstream/handle/20.500.11937/47871/235893_235893.pdf?sequence=2

Bohman, James, "Critical Theory", The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (Spring 2021 Edition), Edward N. Zalta (ed.), https://plato.stanford.edu/archives/spr2021/entries/critical-theory/

CAST (2018). Universal Design for Learning Guidelines version 2.2. Retrieved from http://udlguidelines.cast.org

Covello, S. (2019). Visual Communication. Granite State College. https://granite.pressbooks.pub/comm543/chapter/the-basics-of-copyright-fair-use-and-creative-commons/

Digital Inclusion (2023). Broadband USA National Telecommunications and Information Administration. https://broadbandusa.ntia.doc.gov/resources/digital-inclusion

Ginsberg, M.B. (2018, May 16). A motivational framework for instructional equity in higher education. Higher Education Today. American Council on Education Blog. https://www.higheredtoday.org/2018/05/16/motivational-framework-instructional-equity-higher-education/

Ginsberg, M.B. & Wlodkowski, R.J. (2019). Intrinsic motivation as the foundation for culturally responsive social-emotional and academic learning in teacher education. Teacher Education Quarterly 46(4), 53-66. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1231507.pdf

Gunawardena, C., Frechette, C., & Layne, L., (2019). *Culturally inclusive instructional design: A framework and guide for building online wisdom communities.* Taylor and Francis. Kindle Edition.

Hammond, Zaretta L. (2015, April 1). 3 tips to make any lesson more culturally responsive. *Cult of Pedagogy*. https://www.cultofpedagogy.com/culturally-responsive-teaching-strategies/

Hase, S. & Blaschke, L. M. (2021). The pedagogy of learner agency. In S. Hase & L. M. Blaschke (Eds.), Unleashing the Power of Learner Agency. EdTech Books. https://edtechbooks.org/up/peda

Kubic, C. (2021). Taking small steps toward equity. Culturally Responsive Teaching. Edutopia. https://www.edutopia.org/article/taking-small-steps-toward-equity

ProLiteracy. (2020, June 26). COVID-19 and its impact on adult literacy programs. https://www.proliteracy.org/Blogs/Article/564/COVID-19-and-its-Impact-on-Adult-Literacy-Programs

Stommel, J. (2014). Critical digital pedagogy: A definition. Hybrid Pedagogy. Retrieved from: https://hybridpedagogy.org/critical-digital-pedagogy-definition/

Vogels, E.A. (2021, June 22). Digital divide persists even as Americans with lower incomes make gains in tech adoption. Pew Research Center. https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2021/06/22/digital-divide-persists-even-as-americans-with-lower-incomes-make-gains-in-tech-adoption/

Wang, V.X., Torrisi-Steele, & Hansman, C.A. (2019). Critical theory and transformative learning: Some insights. Journal of Adult and Continuing Education, 25(2), 234-251. https://doi-org.proxy-iup.klnpa.org/10.1177/1477971419850837

Xu, C. & Shah, S. (2020). Evaluating the User Experience. In T. Trust (Ed.), *Teaching with Digital Tools and Apps.* EdTech Books. https://edtechbooks.org/digitaltoolsapps/evaluatingUX

"You Can't Be a Hippie Forever!" – A Septuagenarian Makes Meaning from His PhD Pathway

Billie R. McNamara
University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Abstract: This single-participant phenomenological study derived from an advanced graduate-level qualitative research course assignment in 2022. I investigated the graduate school experiences of a purposefully selected septuagenarian male PhD student at a large, Southeastern U.S. university. The well-established University of Tennessee Transdisciplinary Phenomenology Research Group (TPRG) method framed the study. TPRG acknowledges multiple philosophies but is situated in Merleau-Ponty's approach, which recognizes four existential grounds: Body, Time, Others, and World. Structured analysis of the interview transcript elicited numerous themes; I chose six for focus in this paper. The self-described "unusual ... lifelong learner" provided incredibly rich data that could be analyzed for numerous topical papers and explored through follow-up interviews.

Keywords: phenomenology, lifelong learning, senior-aged graduate student

Sohn et al. (2017) counseled, "Educational researchers must begin with a genuine question spurred by deep curiosity" (p. 129). The single-participant phenomenological research synopsized in this paper encompasses those characteristics, reporting an analysis of one individual's experiences as a senior-aged PhD student at a Southeastern U. S., Research-1 class, land-grant university. The study explored the participant's experiences and resulting perspectives on his corporeal world, his intellectual world, his age and life accomplishments, his awareness of synergy in every facet of his life, his dedication to learning, and his appreciation for connections with others. Each of those senses was defined further in its context as an existential ground in Merleau-Ponty's phenomenological philosophy using the University of Tennessee Transpersonal Phenomenological Research Group (TPRG) Framework delineated in this paper.

The participant, identified in this research by the pseudonym "Phil," was in a truly uncommon role comprising student, employee, and independent business person with a variety of income channels. The study explored each of those roles from Phil's frame of reference and provided an analysis of his life experiences related to his graduate student engagement. Phil is male, aged early-70s, and an engineering PhD student. He has a corporate executive background in technological research and development. Phil actively invests in, and consults for, technology start-up companies. He also has legal training and represents intellectual property clients. Phil is a published author. He is an internationally ranked senior-aged athlete. He lectures extensively. Phil's direct and indirect language reflects personal pride. He described himself as "quite unusual" (Transcript Page 1, Line 22) and an "oddity" (Page 8, Line 24). Phil referred to his age several times in the interview, yet he repeatedly described feeling young. Phil was genuinely pleased to have the opportunity to share his graduate student and other life experiences.

Sohn et al. (2017) suggested researchers expect long blocks of monologue from participants. Phil was at ease and glib, so this study certainly met that mark. In fact, there is enough material in this single interview to create multiple focalized research reports and topical articles. Creating the research report, however, represented one of the most difficult writing assignments of my life. I am not challenged by the rudiments of qualitative research or requirements for creating robust, tenable reports that meet standards for academic writing. Rather, my challenge lay in setting aside my natural inclination to elicit a profusion of detail about fascinating individuals.

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

In keeping with the course assignment for which this paper was prepared, it does not include a traditional literature review. Nonetheless, a summary of the theoretical and conceptual frameworks surrounding phenomenological research is in order. Creswell and Poth (2016) define phenomenology as a qualitative approach similar to narrative research, where researchers focus on events (phenomena) as they "collect, analyze, and tell individual stories and build awareness" (p. 74) and "ascribe meaning" to the components of individuals' experiences (p. 133).

This study's design uses the TPRG's "unique" framework, which has approximately 35 years' worth of established validity and reliability. The TPRG approach assimilates recognized philosophies of Husserl, Heidegger, and Gadamer, but embraces the existential philosophy of Merleau-Ponty: a higher-order, "descriptive and hermeneutic" process where researchers examine study participants' meaning and experience in tandem (Sohn et al., 2017, p. 124). For educational research, TPRG includes the scholarship of van Manen (1990); however, van Manen recommends substituting researchers' taxonomies and redefinitions for participants' original language in antithesis to Merleau-Ponty's preference for original voices (Sohn et al.).

Research Background & Problem Statement

As introduced above, TPRG's approach centers on the phenomenological philosophy of Merleau-Ponty (Sohn et al., 2017) with procedural "Steps" refinements (Thomas & Pollio, 2002, p. 45). Sohn et al. stress Merleau-Ponty's philosophy that the participant's "perception is primary" (p. 125). The researcher's role includes extracting "[e]xistential themes...that constitute the grounds of human experience in the lifeworld," then expressing those themes in simpler language for the research report (p. 125). For Merleau-Ponty, interviews represent "true dialogue" — opportunities for researchers and participants to find common ground (S. P. Thomas, class lecture, January 27, 2022). Thomas observed, "Phenomenologists have the most humility because they can't presume to create an interview protocol."

The crux of a phenomenological study following TPRG's Framework is defining what is figural to the participant. "Figural," in this instance, is an object or phrase representing a concept or belief that dominates the participant's statements. The figural aspect is most often expressed as a metaphor in the interview. Otherwise, the researcher identifies the figural aspect through repetitive references. Researchers cannot know what is figural until they review transcripts (S. P. Thomas, class lecture, January 27, 2022).

Sohn et al. (2017) defined TPRG's Framework, in which researchers focus on four existential grounds or constructs identified by Merleau-Ponty: Body, Time, Others, and World. The *Body* is the fundamental category for understanding an individual's interconnections with remaining grounds. *Body* represents intentionality and the participant's context — that which anchors individuals to their environments. *Time* is subjective temporality and relationality, not as measured by traditional chronometric tools. The *Others* represent connections to other humans that mitigate the participant's feeling alone. Researchers must "give careful attention to other people who appear in participant narratives of lived experience" (p. 127). The *World* represents the participant's surroundings — space and place, security and freedom, society and culture — in the moment captured by the interview. The World construct exists "before we begin to reflect upon it" (p. 127). Humans are in and of the World, and it is in "all the everyday objects and things humans encounter" (p. 127).

The present research responded to a PhD-level advanced qualitative research course assignment: Interview a graduate student about graduate school experiences, then use the TPRG Framework to generate a single-subject phenomenological study and report. The assigned interview question was, "What stands out about your graduate student experiences [the phenomenon]?"

Research Method

Bracketing

Thomas and Pollio (2002) established *Steps for Doing a Phenomenological Research Project* (p. 45). These steps provide structure to the TPRG approach, which proclaims the interview and analysis processes create an "intimate connection," requiring researchers to "refrain from theorizing about [participants] before we come to know them" (Sohn et al., 2017, p. 124). Thomas and Pollio delineate a sequence of foci for every research study, beginning with the interviewer ("Self as Focus"), where bracketing of researchers' biases and assumptions occurs. In a larger study, bracketing includes an interview of the researcher by an experienced phenomenologist (Sohn et al.). The time available to complete the course assignment did not permit external bracketing interventions. Most of my self-ascribed bracketing (Goldberg, 1997) occurred as a reflection on the conversation and my reactions to Phil's statements. The scholarship supports post-interview bracketing (Fischer, 2009).

Bracketing produces objectivity and enhances reflexivity as the researcher considers her role and position as *bricoleur* in its evolved interpretation within the larger sphere of qualitative research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011, p. 4). The phenomenological interview procedure was a much greater concern in my post-interview bracketing. I have interviewed hundreds of individuals in multiple countries for a wide array of purposes, spanning from my teenage years to the present. I unwittingly practice a more phenomenological style in terms of wanting to capture the essence of subjects' stories. Unfortunately, I primarily employ a procedural modality based on investigative interviewing, and that structure was difficult to shed when I performed as a phenomenologist in the present study.

Participant Sample and Selection

The study reported herein contains a single subject selected through purposive sampling. Curious about graduate degree-seeking students aged 65 and above — while cognizant of FERPA and the

assignment's due date — I asked the university Registrar's senior-aged student services contact to e-mail a request on my behalf to random students. The first respondent met the criteria for my assignment, so I selected him. I could not have idealized a better candidate, nor could I have predicted the extraordinary effect our serendipitous encounter would have on my life.

While there is an entire universe of literature on sample sizes in qualitative research, the special nature of this study-as-assignment and the resulting quality of collected data supported my limitation to a single subject. Morse (2000) recognized the "inverse relationship" between "useable data" and the "number of participants" (p. 4), and that was certainly true in the interview transcript from Phil. Patton (2002) stated purposive sampling requires theoretical saturation, which Malterud et al. (2016) argued is better-described as "information power" contained in "the contribution of new knowledge from the analysis," which "must be evaluated continuously during the research process" (p. 1759). In the present study, "new knowledge" from Phil's experiences has implications for broad application and further study of senior-aged graduate degree-seeking learners.

Participant Interview

We arranged the Zoom-based interview at a convenient time for Phil. The approximately one-hour conversation was dialogue-style preferred by the TPRG Framework, wherein the interviewer "refrains from theorizing" before the meeting, is supportive and receptive, engenders an "intimate connection," and is alert to nuances in speech while observing nonverbal communications for clues (Sohn et al., 2017, p. 124).

TPRG's Framework suggests phenomenological interview questions be broad, eliciting tendrils of feelings and reactions to events and experiences, with a strong reminder, "The interview question must help them to speak from their first-person perspective of what it is like for them" (Sohn et al., 2017, p. 129). Unlike other approaches and methods, phenomenologists do not prepare a series of questions in advance of the interview, nor do they ask "how" or "why" questions. Thomas suggested simply asking instead, "What stands out about [the phenomenon]?" If redirection or prompting is required, Thomas recommended, "What stands out about [a particular described component]?" She encouraged researchers to note "aside" remarks and nonverbal cues for prompting as needed (S. P. Thomas, personal communication, January 27, 2022).

Once we completed the interview, Zoom generated an automated, rudimentary rendering of the transcript text. I then carefully reviewed the transcript while watching the video to make necessary corrections and add "paralinguistic features" (Sohn et al., 2017, p. 134). I asked Phil to clarify jargon and specific details to ensure accuracy. I also reviewed and annotated field notes as to my observations and reactions, which notes were necessarily limited by the Zoom platform.

Data Analysis

The TPRG Framework embeds a three-phase data analysis model by the researcher, which I describe as procedural objectives in this report.

Objective 1: Read for a "Sense of Whole" and Define "Meaning Units"

Sohn et al. (2017) reported TPRG's approach is to parse transcription text word-by-word and line-by-line to "...hear what it says..." (pp. 135-136). They continued, "Capturing the essence of a phenomenon involves scrupulous attentiveness to the particular words, metaphors, and phrases chosen by participants to describe their experience" (p. 135). Thomas and Pollio (2002) stressed the importance of observing participants' use of metaphors, similes, and colloquial substitutions.

The participant's words, phrases, and reactions constitute "meaning units" – the "'micro' aspects" of words and phrases that represent "the smallest piece of information about something that can stand by itself" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, as cited in Sohn et al., 2017, p. 136). Larger strings, or "'macro' aspects" of text, represent patterns that may evolve into themes as analysis continues (Sohn et al., p. 136). Thomas and Pollio (2002) recommend reading for the "sense of whole" and delineation of meaning units occur simultaneously.

I then prepared an anonymized version of the transcript to share with classmates. TPRG's method incorporates a *group read* and discussion during a regular meeting (Sohn et al., 2017), but the present assignment required a narrow, guided approach. Sohn et al. suggested hearing the text read aloud makes it experiential. Further, subsequent discussions among peers provide an opportunity to identify particular words, phrases, and reactions and analyze why the item created a group member's reaction. Connecting content to other studies or resources may enrich discussions. Each researcher autonomously determines whether group-identified meaning units are relevant to the study.

Objective 2: Determine what Is "Figural" to the Participant

Sohn et al. (2017) wrote, "Thematic structures, when well executed, reveal the essence of an experience and its context. The structure reveals that the themes are natural lines of fracture in the figure, set against a ground, which is our interpretation of the phenomenon" (p. 140). For Phil, learning emerged as the figural component. He repeatedly referred directly or euphemistically to education-related concepts. Phil described himself as a lifelong learner moments after we established the connection: "...new experiences are ... As a lifelong learner, it's always new, right?" (Transcript Page 1, Line 8). Phil repeated the concept in the first few sentences of his self-introduction: "I never stopped learning" (Page 2, Lines 10-11). About midway in the interview, Phil described his reaction to the voracious learning of his grandchildren: "What a perfect thing to watch – when you're a lifelong learner at [over 70] – to watch a five-year-old, ask ... you know ... ask you questions ... about ... you know ... anything (Page 14, Lines 9-10). A few minutes later, Phil said, "It's like I'm the real McCoy when it comes to a lifelong learner" (Page 15, Lines 25-26).

Objective 3: Identify Existential Grounds or Constructs Represented by Themes

The transcript produced 170 meaning units. I created a taxonomy of keywords and phrases from the meaning units, dividing the identified components into Merleau-Ponty's four existential grounds — Body, Time, Others, and World — in anticipation of identifying themes from the text and correlating them to the existential grounds (Sohn et al., 2017). I also identified Phil's remark that contained the essence of his experiences, which the TPRG Framework suggests lends itself to the title of a study report:

> "Well, yeah, you have to realize that one of the things I'm not very good at is perceiving my own age. I actually forget. I forget it. I'll ... I'll talk to somebody like I'm a teenager sometimes, and then I think "No [laughter]. This is not ... this is not right." ... you know ... I mean, you just can't be a hippie forever." (Transcript Page 14, Lines 14-18)

Identification of Themes

Six themes emanated from the transcript's 170 meaning units. The themes represented all four of Merlau-Ponty's existential grounds, enumerated as Body ground = 6 themes; Others ground = 2 themes; Time ground = 5 themes; World ground = 4 themes.

Theme 1:	Gratitude	Grounds: Body, Others
Theme 2:	Excitement	Grounds: Body, Time, Others
Theme 3:	Persistence, Journey	Grounds: Body, Time, World
Theme 4:	Social Connections	Grounds: Body, Time, Others, World
Theme 5:	Ambition, Drive	Grounds: Body, Time, World
Theme 6:	Age, Relevance	Grounds: Body, Time, World

Conclusion

Citing van Manen (2014), the TPRG method maintains research reports must "induce wonder" and appeal to "cognitive and noncognitive modes of knowing." Readers must be moved and engaged by the "alive" voices (Sohn et al., 2017, p. 141). This interview experience changed the researcher's and participant's lives in measurable, positive ways. Presentations drawn from this single-subject study have inspired scores of readers and listeners. Unwittingly, this assignment evolved into a quasi-pilot study for my dissertation, which will be a full phenomenological study of senior-aged degree-seeking graduate students to explore the themes present in their graduate school experiences using the TPRG Framework.

References

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2016). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2011). Introduction: The Discipline and Practice of Qualitative Research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.). *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research* (4th ed., pp. 1–20). Sage.

Fischer, C. T. (2009). Bracketing in qualitative research: Conceptual and practical matters. *Psychotherapy Research, 19*(4–5), 583–590. https://doi.org/10.1080/10503300902798375

Goldberg, S. C. (1997). Self-ascription, self-knowledge, and the memory argument. *Analysis, 57*(3), 211–219. https://doi.org/10.1093/analys/57.3.211

Malterud, K., Siersma, V. D., & Guassora, A. D. (2016). Sample size in qualitative interview studies: Guided by information power. *Qualitative Health Research, 26*(13), 1753–1760. https://doi.org/10.1177/1049732315617444

Morse, J. M. (2000). Editorial: Determining sample size. *Qualitative Health Research, 10*(1), 2–5. https://doi.org/10.1177/104973200129118183

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). Sage.

Sohn, B. K., Thomas, S. P., Greenberg, K. H., & Pollio, H. R. (2017). Hearing the voices of students and teachers: A phenomenological approach to educational research. *Qualitative Research in Education, 6*(2), 121–148. https://doi.org/10.17583/qre.2017.2374

Thomas, S. P., & Pollio, H. R. (2002). *Listening to patients: A phenomenological approach to nursing research and practice*. Springer.

van Manen, M. (1990). *Researching lived experience: Human science for an action sensitive pedagogy*. State University of New York Press.

_____. (2014). *Phenomenology of practice: Meaning-giving methods in phenomenological research and writing*. Left Coast Press.

First Listen Closely: Establishing a University Center for Educator Professional Development

Makena Neal
Michigan State University

Abstract: The literature on teaching centers and faculty development increasingly recognizes teaching centers are well-positioned to support institutional effectiveness activities. There is critical importance in collaborating with educators to establish topics of engagement, positioning, and partnership including the importance of stakeholder buy-in, which can be enhanced or promoted by the inclusion of stakeholders' voices in center planning and decision-making. Many teaching and learning centers historically focused on *faculty* as primary stakeholders, but welcoming, seeking out, and embracing a diversity of thoughts, perspectives, and ideas in voices represented by adopting a widely inclusive definition of *educator* is vital to a successful teaching center establishment. This case study shares the intentional design of educator listening activities for center development.

Keywords: stakeholder engagement, center for teaching and learning, designing structures of support, faculty professional development

Wright, Lohe, and Little (2018) stated teaching and learning centers "connect disciplines, resources, and educational constituents in order to support instructors and move institutional initiatives forward" (p. 39). This point of purpose is reified by Cook and Kaplan (2011), whose research also showed teaching centers are well-positioned to support institutional effectiveness activities. They posited that "staff at teaching centers typically have much experience working with academic administrators and faculty on critical assessment-related tasks, such as defining local instructional needs, helping faculty work collaboratively, facilitating conversations and events that will prompt curricular enhancements, and providing resources to support follow-up and implementation of changes" (p.123). The value of such units in higher education institutions is well established and demonstrated by the commonality of their occurrence; for example, the POD Network (2022) maintains a list of 1,291 teaching centers located globally. Given this context, an institution of higher education that has never had a centralized unit dedicated to supporting professional development in teaching and learning would be in the minority. Michigan State University (MSU), a large, decentralized, research-focused university has been in this position; historically it never had a teaching center. Between 2019 and 2022, MSU embarked on efforts to establish a center for teaching and learning to support its many educators.

In a study of teaching and learning centers, Beckley (2022) found common examples of positioning and partnership, including the importance of stakeholder buy-in, which can be enhanced or promoted by including stakeholders' voices in center planning and decision-making. For many teaching and learning centers, the historical focus has been on *faculty* as primary stakeholders. However, welcoming, seeking out, and embracing diverse thoughts, perspectives, and ideas in represented voices are essential. Literature on teaching centers and faculty development increasingly recognizes the importance of collaborating with educators on topics

from curriculum design to assessment (Sorcinelli et al., 2005). For MSU, this means embracing a widely inclusive definition of "educator" (e.g., faculty, academic staff, graduate teaching assistants, undergraduate learning assistants, librarians, information technology and residence hall staff, and coaches) (Skogsberg et al., 2021, p. 184).

This paper highlights experience design aspects in the Center for Teaching and Learning's early development stages that were critical to building buy-in, determining a service and programming portfolio, and establishing iterative processes to keep center efforts relevant to adult learners served. As the cornerstone activity for launching MSU's Center for Teaching and Learning Innovation (CTLI or the Center), "listening" required keen attention to detail, acknowledgment of institutional histories, audience engagement, and future commitment to ongoing listening; all of which are imperative for building necessary relationships and trust.

Background

Their beliefs and conceptions of teaching and learning greatly influence educators' approaches to teaching in higher education (Postareff et al., 2007). Industry members know beliefs and conceptions are highly dependent on educators' experiences as *learners* in higher education (Mundy et al., 2012). Because universities usually hire instructors for their content expertise, instructor exposure to training in positive teaching and learning practices is highly variable. It is well established that the pipeline of future faculty (i.e., terminal degree programs and doctoral studies) varies widely in their structured opportunities for teaching development (Rutz et al., 2012). As graduates enter the profession of an early-career faculty member, it is critical to provide "...on-going professional development opportunities to enable the scholar who teaches his subject to become a meaningful teacher of students, a true educator." (Mundy et al., 2012, p. 2). All the while, instructors' orientation to teaching and learning is influenced by their institutions' classifications and their disciplinary fields. This complexity of teaching and learning in higher education further establishes the need to provide educators with opportunities to learn about effective teaching through professional development (Connolly & Miller, 2006).

Design & Approach

On January 14, 2022, the MSU CTLI held its *Kick-off Summit*, the first step in creating opportunities and dedicated spaces for the Center's primary audience — educators — to share their ideas and expectations for this novel (in institutional history) centralized unit. Recognizing diverse efforts already underway to support educators at different levels across the university, CTLI held the first-of-many event intending to build on existing efforts through listening, collaboration, and relationship building.

The Summit's team-based leadership comprised a collaborative team of six educational developers representing four centralized units whose missions' supported educators in their ongoing development led the Summit. This team identified an audience for this initial listening experience, defined core language, designed ideation activities, analyzed data, and reported findings broadly. As an institution, MSU generally employs a decentralized structure for educator support and development. The Summit team identified participants as existing educator development and support professionals at MSU (across colleges, units, and departments); thus, establishing definitional congruence was vital prior to the event.

I must acknowledge the effects of the global COVID-19 pandemic throughout the planning and execution of the Summit event. For the two years preceding the Summit, public health concerns fueled a state of destabilization and chaos worldwide. Especially during the COVID-19 Delta variant's influx, the event team prioritized health and safety and could not safely facilitate the Summit in person. In an attempt to recreate the experience of hands-on activities traditionally used during sessions designed for in-person participation, the Summit planning team sent all confirmed participants a box of event staples (e.g., snacks, handouts, writing utensils) to increase a sense of community throughout the event. Additionally, the Summit used MURAL, a web-based visual collaboration platform, to facilitate the event.

The 37 individuals attending engaged in three core activities related to establishing a shared vision, engagement norming and principles of collaboration, and initial CTLI service portfolio prioritization. The first activity asked participants to identify big ideas they could group into common themes and inform a shared vision for the Center, MSU educator network, and teaching and learning broadly. Participants individually answered the prompt "Wouldn't it be fantastic if" and organized statements to show what the Center might influence, control, or create. This activity led naturally to the second activity, which asked participants to assume one of five roles (Academic Unit Administrators, Faculty and Instructors, Center Affiliated Staff, College Affiliated Staff, and University-Wide Staff). The activity challenged each role-based group to outline what from the other four groups they would need to succeed. The third activity aimed at identifying a minimum viable product for the CTLI service portfolio by asking participants to write reviews of the Center as if they had experienced a positive encounter. These reviews were used to identify themes of both topics/content areas as well as format (such as workshop, panel, consultation, etc.).

Major Themes

The three scaffolded activities led participants through visioning, norming, and portfolio building. In visioning exercises, stakeholders identified various needs they categorized as ed-tech support, resources, staffing, space, and coordination/planning. Participants seemed to hope to build a network for these services, such as a "shared list of experts across campus to make finding the right person to ask easier". Another statement underscored the networking theme: "explicit partnerships and shared services between the teaching center and other key support units." Specific services most frequently mentioned included support for DEI in instruction and fostering innovative practices, instructional design, and pedagogy. Consulting, training, and similar events' delivery formats are most often associated with the center.

While engaged in role-playing the various stakeholder roles, three overlapping primary themes emerged from each group; this convergence pointed to commonalities among the groups. All five groups identified the need for a clear and concise service and support portfolio as a need for multiple roles: stakeholders in the Center, Center staff working with stakeholders, and potential partners and patrons of the Center. Additionally, participants across role groups identified a shared need for connection and collaboration. Primarily, group participants wanted other units to collaborate with the Center to figure out ways to connect across boundaries, leveraging and building relationships. Finally, each group identified a concept designated as "teaching and learning in practice," which encompasses many things, including teaching and learning in tenure and promotion, incentivizing teaching and learning, and the scholarship of teaching and learning.

The Summit's final activity aimed to aid in prioritizing a portfolio of services the Center could provide. The goal of a "minimum viable product" activity, framed as a mock online review session, was to discover prioritizing ideas. The activity paired participants as dyads, asking each team to assume the perspective of an educator who had a positive experience while working with the CTLI. Top-mentioned themes in the 17 combined Center *reviews* related to coaching/ consultation (64% of reviews), pedagogy and student voice (50%), curricular/modality restructure and redesign (41%), student experience and engagement (41%), educator confidence and empowerment (35%), and collaboration/partnership coordination (35%).

Discussion

According to the literature, centers for teaching and learning impact institutions in two primary ways: Uplifting, facilitating, and amplifying research-informed conversations focused on innovative learning and teaching; and providing quality support for all educators, regardless of experience or background (Singer, 2002). Berg & Haung (2004) posited educator professional development should include high-impact instructional practices and the best methods to incorporate and infuse proven pedagogical theories into undergraduate general education courses to enhance student learning and, ultimately, success. As Mundy et al. (2012) stated, institutions must keep new and experienced faculty members informed and knowledgeable of best practices to promote student learning through proactive, continual professional development in asynchronous and synchronous environments that encourage lifetime learning. Across higher education, instructional best practices are missing from many university and college classrooms. As educators, we have a moral and ethical responsibility to teach in a manner that provides the best learning environment and learning opportunities for every student. We can meet our responsibility by developing a comprehensive professional development series that is easily accessible to all university professors, high school teachers with dual-credit courses, and undergraduate and graduate teacher education students.

Following the CTLI Kick-off Summit, MSU CTLI began benchmarking similar institutions' centers for teaching and learning (CTLs). The results were an informative peek at CTLs with the most important theme being each CTL's focus, structure, and programming was based on meeting institutional needs (i.e., no two CTLs are the same; they are unique based on their institution and their needs). We embraced this empowering realization, along with other benchmarking and Summit data to shape the CTLI for its first semester of active implementation. CTLI established the mission "to support MSU's educators and their practices through collaboration and consultation." The CTLI vision established to complement its mission is:

> to support MSU communities where educators work together across roles to provide inclusive, research-informed experiences that support student success; build a path to success for every educator by leading the university with unwavering integrity and a strong culture of teaching and learning; and collaborate with and empower all MSU educators in their engagement in equitable, student-centered teaching and learning practices (Mission and Vision, 2022, para. 2)

The mission and vision, coupled with areas of expertise embodied in CTLI staff, serve as primary guidelines for CTLI programs (e.g., workshops, training, presentations, conferences, and cohort programs) and services (i.e., instructional consultations, curriculum and course design, online program management, and academic entrepreneurship), as well as their partners and affiliates. Institutions of higher education face pressure to change how they do business (i.e., educate students) (Mundy et al., 2012). While specific to building support for educator professional development within a higher education context, intentional design and development of programs, processes, and structures of support for lifelong learning in collaboration with stakeholders are relevant to a much broader professional development designer audience. Based on the literature and implementation of findings from the MSU CTLI case study, we confidently assert that engaging in pre-development listening with stakeholders is critical to initial buy-in, design, and ongoing engagement with lifelong learning support structures and units.

Acknowledgments

This work would not have been possible without the time and energy committed by Jessica Sender (MSU Libraries), Brendan Guenther (CTLI), Dave Goodrich (CTLI), Jeremy Van Hof (Enhanced Digital Learning Initiative), and Stefanie Baier (MSU Graduate School) in designing, facilitating, and evaluating the CTLI Kick-off Summit.

References

Beckley, T. J. (2022). *How do higher education teaching and learning centers contribute to an institutional culture of assessment?* (Publication No. 11234) [Doctoral Dissertation, West Virginia University]. ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. https://doi.org/10.33915/etd.11234

Connolly, M., & Millar, S., (2006). Using workshops to improve instruction in STEM courses. *Metropolitan Universities 17*(4), 53–65.

Cook, C., & Kaplan, M. (Eds.) (2011). *Advancing the culture of teaching on campus: How a teaching center can make a difference*. Stylus Publishing.

Mundy, M. A., Kupczynski, L., Ellis, J. D., & Salgado, R. L. (2012). Setting the standard for faculty professional development in higher education. *Journal of Academic and Business Ethics*, *5*, 1–9.

POD Professional and Organizational Development Network. (2022). *Centers and Programs Directory*. https://podnetwork.org/centers-programs/

Postareff, L., Lindblom-Ylanne, S., & Nevgi, A. (2007). The effect of pedagogical training on teaching in higher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 23*, 557–571. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2006.11.013

Rutz, C., Condon, W., Iverson, E. R., Manduca, C. A. & Willett, G. (2012). Faculty professional development and student learning: What is the relationship?. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 44*(3), 40–47. https://doi.org/10.1080/00091383.2012.672915

Singer, S. R. (2002). Learning and teaching centers: Hubs of educational reform. *New Directions for Higher Education, 119*, 59–64.https://doi.org/10.1002/he.71

Skogsberg, E., Neal, M., McDaniels, M., Shellgren, M., & Stewart, P. (2021). #iteachmsu: Centering an educator learning community (ELC). *To Improve the Academy: A Journal of Educational Development, 40*(1), 183–208. https://doi.org/10.3998/tia.161

Sorcinelli, M. D., Austin, A. E., Eddy, P. L., & Beach, A. L. (2005). *Creating the future of faculty development: Learning from the past, understanding the present.* Anker Publishing Company, Inc.

Wright, M. C., Lohe, D. R., & Little, D. (2018). The role of a center for teaching and learning in a de-centered educational world. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 50*(6), 3844. https://doi.org/10.1080/00091383.2018.1540826

Journey of Reshaping the Meaning of Work as an Underemployed Woman: Cases of Korean Millennial Women

Jiyea Park
University of Georgia

Abstract: This paper reports the results of a qualitative study based on the feminist perspective and qualitative feminist interviews. Before their interviews, the 10 participants wanted to share their negative experiences of underemployment; however, deep conversations revealed that while their stories were negative, they were also positive. Through the interviews, participants disclosed what motivated them to continue their careers despite the onus of gender-specific job segregation in the Korean job market that is biased against Korean Millennial women. As they were sharing their experiences, the participants had an A-Ha! moment that reshaped their definitions of the meaning of work. These findings have important implications for policy decisions regarding women's career development education and adult education programs for overqualified women in the workplace.

Keywords: Korean Millennial women, meaning of work, reshaping, underemployment

Jiyoung, 41 years old, identified herself as an underemployed Korean Millennial woman. She holds a master's degree in early childhood education but experienced underemployment four times and career discontinuation twice due to pregnancy. Jiyoung was the principal of a childcare center for nine years but described the job market as completely different when she sought a job in her mid-20s and late 30s. Presently, Jiyoung works in a bakery — completely different from her previous job and her master's program discipline. She experienced numerous restrictions to her reemployment when she reentered the job market in her late 30s.

Jiyoung's story echoes those of well-educated Korean Millennial women across South Korea (hereafter called Korea for brevity) who are or were in the job market. Millennials in Korea, born between the 1980s and the late 1990s, have received exceptional education, have excellent skills in using digital devices, and have experienced more cultural diversity than those of earlier generations (Eom, 2019). Nonetheless, the continuing economic depression in Korea has forced Korean Millennials to accept job positions below their skill levels. However, Korean Millennial women face more difficulties in the Korean job market (Kim, 2013). Kim pointed out that Korean women are more likely to be exposed to complex discrimination — including sexual discrimination —in the labor market as they are framed by traditional cultural roles that militate against women; thus, they are relegated to the status of a cheap workforce and marginalized in the Korean job market. In addition, Korean Millennial women experience a significant change in societal role expectations when they get married, affecting their expectations for obtaining good quality jobs in the future or returning to their previous jobs. As a result, experiencing a glass ceiling and sticky floors (often used to describe women's condition at work) can differ between single women and married women (Triana, 2017).

Although numerous studies and reports highlight overqualification and job mismatch among members of the Millennial generation, few studies focus on Korean Millennial women. These include a study of the M-curve pattern in the job market (Choi, 2017; Lee, 2008; Park & Kim, 2003), income inequalities and gender pay gaps (Kim, 2013; Kim & Oh, 2019), and career discontinuation (Cho & Lim, 2015; Choi). A few studies and reports illuminate underemployment among the Millennial generation; however, these studies are more than 10 years old (Eun & Park, 2002; Lee, 1996). Despite the importance of the topic, no prior research exists on the underemployment of Korean Millennial women.

Exploring Korean Millennial women's underemployed job experiences provides a significant resource for interpreting their complex discriminations in the job market. This study documents the vivid experiences of underemployment of 10 Korean Millennial women. The focus of the research questions of this study was: (1) How do underemployed Korean Millennial women describe their job trajectory? (2) How do underemployed Korean Millennial women define the meaning of work?

Related Literature

Trapped in Stereotype: The M-curve

In Korean Millennial women's endeavor to survive in the job market, they face a massive obstacle in their career path: CAREER DISCONTINUATION. Women in this generation are more highly educated than women of their mothers' and grandmothers' generations. However, this well-educated group of women disappears from the job market and the workforce in their late 20s to mid-30s due to marriage, pregnancy, and age discrimination. Researchers have pointed out that the M-curve is the most frequently seen pattern in the Korean women's job market (Choi, 2017; Lee, 2008; Park & Kim, 2003). The term M-curve refers to the shape of the letter "M," and this is easily seen in Korean women's employment graphs. The inverse "U-shape" is most frequently seen in Korean men's employment graphs. These shapes tell of inequalities and gender stereotypes beyond the graph, as the M-curve pattern ended in the 1970s for developed countries, while it is still found in the employment of Korean women among the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries (Han, 2012).

Underemployment

Many scholars have defined underemployment as a person having a higher skill level than the job requires (Feldman, 1996; Green & Henseke, 2016). For example, imagine an architect working in a fast-food service after losing their regular job, which is completely different from their previous job (Allan et al., 2018). Although underemployment is a serious labor market issue, Feldman asserted underemployment is largely ignored; yet, unemployment has received much attention from many scholars.

Existence of Gender-Specific Jobs

Until the 1970s, low-educated young women mainly worked in traditional manufacturing industries in Korea. After the 1980s, Korea's rapid economic growth required women's talents and skills in various fields (Choi, 2017). Many Korean women had opportunities to participate actively in the labor market. Even married women could transfer to the workforce in the 1990s, and well-educated Korean women were a significant force in the job market (Choi, 2017; Min,

2008). However, the majority of Korean women obtained irregular employment, marked by a lower level of pay than that of men and job insecurity (Choi, 2017; Cooke, 2010; Heo, 2013).

Research Approach

For this study, I employed a qualitative research methodology using the feminist perspective and qualitative feminist interviews. "Feminist perspectives view as problematic women's diverse situations and the institutions that frame those situations" (Creswell & Creswell, 2017, p. 62). Feminist qualitative researchers focus on learning and understanding the meaning of problems and issues that women participants encounter, seek to examine their experiences and delineate their voices, which historically were neglected. These approaches helped me explore Korean Millennial women's oppressive situations and listen to their voices as they told me about their experiences as underemployed workers.

I used snowball sampling to locate potential participants, born between 1980 and 1996. I then finalized 10 volunteers who self-identified as underemployed. The interview questions covered personal backgrounds, and life before, during, and after the underemployment, as I was looking for participants who had lived in Korea for at least 15 years and who shared the Korean societal norms and culture. Interviewees were sensitive about disclosing their personal stories, so our interviews were conducted 100% via phone and we used Korean to communicate to have a cozy interview environment. They all agreed to allow me to record the interview, and data analysis materials (i.e., transcript (written in Korean), reflection notes, and partial translation (written in English)) were shared for member-checking within a week. The partial translations were checked by two people fluent in Korean and English and who had experience writing theses and dissertations in English. After that, I asked my personal editor who only speaks English to check the nuance or word choice of quotations. The translation and back translation were helpful in making the data analysis more accurate and clearly delivering the 10 women's voices.

Major Themes

The 10 participating women revealed they faced social prejudice in the job market, and the moment they felt solidarity with each other reshaped their definition of the meaning of work. In this section, I will walk you through their history of life and career paths shared in dialogues.

Social prejudice: Age discrimination and the Existence of Gender-Specific Jobs

One of the commonalities was the experience of age discrimination in their job trajectories. The participants encountered difficulties in finding a new job in their late 20s. Six participants were single, and job interviews placed them in unpleasant situations. They usually progressed to the final round of the job search process, but some interviewers asked them personal questions about their lives, such as "Are you seeing anyone?"

The 10th interviewee, *Yeaji* described her experience of an unpleasant moment in this way:

> I haven't thought I would face this unpleasant situation in my life. I entered the job market in my late 20s because I worked as a contract worker and prepared for a civil service examination for three years. I mostly have negative memories of the job search. I had 3–4-year gaps in my CV and the interviewers (both men and women) asked me about my

> private life. They frequently asked me "Are you seeing anyone?" "When are you getting married?" or "Are you planning to have children?" I was in the job market in my late 20s, so this was not unexpected, but it still hurt…

Marital status was a significant issue while searching for a new job. Three married participants with children experienced both employment discrimination and age discrimination. One participant (The 5th interviewee; Jihye) could not renew her contract because she was pregnant. She was a school music teacher, and the school's principal first wanted to renew her contract for one more year because of recommendation letters from other teachers. After Jihye accepted the offer and told the principal she was pregnant, he immediately said, "Oh, then I cannot renew your contract because you are pregnant." She anticipated that response, but it was still painful.

Although they were from different educational and cultural backgrounds, in their career paths, every participant faced limited opportunities to find jobs; job postings or headhunters mainly recommended them to apply for jobs in service fields, which was not related to their interests or previous job experiences.

The 10th interviewee, Yeaji shared how she entered underemployment in her career path:

> Jobs in the service industry I applied for usually have lower salary compared with other types of occupations. However, I did not have much choice other than the service industry though. Even the headhunter recommended the service fields which did not match my major and dream.

Participants did not devalue these jobs but highlighted the job mismatch. They were all well-educated women. Some had a master's degree, but most of the time they ended up finding — or headhunters recommended — jobs in service fields. Moreover, they faced the limitations of relegation to gender-specific jobs.

Meaning of Work: Solidarity and a Better Tomorrow

Although some participants were dissatisfied with their roles as workers and identified themselves as underemployed, they recounted experiencing a feeling of solidarity at the workplace. They reported a good relationship with women co-workers because they worked in the same community, they shared interests and sympathies and supported each other. Faced with challenging moments, they built sisterhood and solidarity through community-building and mentorship. Married participants especially experienced sisterhood and solidarity when co-workers unanimously agreed they could bring their children to the workplace. During the COVID-19 pandemic, working moms faced many unexpected situations, such as the closing of a school or kindergarten, and needed to care for their children during the workday.

At the end of the interviews, all participants stated that they expected a better future even though they were currently underemployed. They never thought their current job was the last in their lives. They always planned to move on to the next level and worked very hard on self-development. The sixth interviewee, Minji, said, "I think there is always a chance. With time, there is another chance. Even if it is an underemployment job, you can find the meaning there."

When I asked the participants what reshaped their definition of the meaning of work, the most common answer was feeling a sense of accomplishment gave them greater self-esteem and self-confidence.

The 7th interviewee, *Jiyoung* described her experience of an unpleasant moment in this way:

> Even though my previous jobs and my current job are in underemployed occupations, I am satisfied with it. These jobs made me dream about moving forward to the next step (for better jobs or better life). People might ask me "what do you learn from your job?" I can answer "I am lucky to have this job. I learn from experience. I love my job." These jobs help me to have a better future.

Jiyoung worked three jobs because she wanted to keep building her career and advancing her self-development. Though people labeled her as underemployed, she felt lucky to have these jobs, stating, "Every job in the world is useful and meaningful. There is nothing useless."

Discussion

Korean women face daunting issues of social inequality; joining the workforce is a positive tool they use to change the patriarchal and Confucianist Korean society. The women involved in my study consistently demonstrated unwavering determination to advance their careers, irrespective of the obstacles they encountered. This resolute willpower can be seen as their method of resisting the patriarchal power structure. In examining the life histories of the interviewees, it became evident that the phenomenon of gender-based inequality transcends generational boundaries and persists beyond the experiences of their mother's generation (Baby Boomers, born between 1955 and 1963). These Korean Millennial women actively strive to bridge the societal gap, thereby working towards ending the perpetuation of this cycle within their own generation and preventing its negative impact on future generations.

References

Allan, B. A., Rolniak, J. R., & Bouchard, L. (2018). Underemployment and well-being: Exploring the dark side of meaningful work. *Journal of Career Development, 47*(1), 111–125. https://doi.org/10.1177/089484531881986

Cho, S. Y., & Lim, Y. Y. (2015). The narrative inquiry on the reemployment experiences of highly-educated housewives to their temporary jobs. *The Journal of Asian Women, 54*(1), 141–169. http://journal.kci.go.kr/asianfem/archive/articleView?artiId=ART001994930

Choi, S. E. (2017). What makes it difficult for Korean high educated women to participate in the labor market?: The heritage of the developmental welfare production regimes of Korea. *Issues in Feminism, 17*(1), 145–192. DOI : 10.21287/iif.2017.4.17.1.145

Cooke, F. L. (2010). Women's participation in employment in Asia: A comparative analysis of China, India, Japan and South Korea. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 21*(12), 2249–2270. DOI: 10.1080/09585192.2010.509627

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.* Sage Publications.

Eom, S. H. (2019). *The influence of work and life balance on the turnover intention of the millennium generation: Mediating effect of employee engagement and perceived organizational support* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Chungang University.

Eun, K. S., & Park, S. M. (2002). Sequence analysis in women's work transition. *Korea Journal of Population Studies, 25*(2), 107–138. https://www.dbpia.co.kr/journal/articleDetail?nodeId=NODE00756897

Feldman, D. C. (1996). The nature, antecedents, and consequences of underemployment. *Journal of Management, 22*(3), 385–407. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/pdf/10.1177/014920639602200302

Green, F., & Henseke, G. (2016). Should governments of OECD countries worry about graduate underemployment?. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy, 32*(4), 514–537. doi:10.1093/oxrep/grw024

Han. H. O. (2012, February 06). *A study of Korean women's economic activity. KERI Column.* http://www.keri.org/web/www/issue_04?p_p_id=EXT_BBS&p_p_lifecycle=0&p_p_state=normal&p_p_mode=view&p_p_col_id=column-1&p_p_col_count=1&_EXT_BBS_struts_action=%2Fext%2Fbbs%2Fview_message&_EXT_BBS_sCategory=&_EXT_BBS_sKeyType=title&_EXT_BBS_sKeyword=%EC%97%AC%EC%84%B1&_EXT_BBS_curPage=1&_EXT_BBS_optKeyType1=&_EXT_BBS_optKeyType2=&_EXT_BBS_optKeyword1=&_EXT_BBS_optKeyword2=&_EXT_BBS_sLayoutId=0&_EXT_BBS_messageId=151033

Heo, E. (2013). A study on the occupational gender segregation by the layers of labor market: Focusing on the forms of vertical/horizontal segregation. *Korean Journal of Sociology, 47*(2), 241–266. https://www.kci.go.kr/kciportal/ci/sereArticleSearch/ciSereArtiView.kci?sereArticleSearchBean.artiId=ART001767503

Kim, C. H., & Oh, B. D. (2019). No gender discrimination before career disruption?: Gender earnings gap at the early stage of work career among college graduates in South Korea. *Korean Sociological Association, 53*(1), 167–204. DOI:10.21562/KJS.2019.02.53.1.167

Kim, T. H. (2013). The decomposition of wage gap due to gender and employment pattern. *The Women's Studies, 84*(1), 31–61. DOI : 10.33949/tws.2013..1.002

Lee, M. J. (1996). Under-utilization of women's education in Korean labor market: A macrolevel explanation. *Korea Journal of Population Studies, 19*(2), 107–137. https://koreascience.kr/article/JAKO199611920244767.pdf

Lee, S. W. (2008). Conceptualizing 'the Asian' and Asian women's studies. *Asian Journal of Women's Studies, 14*(4), 28–53. https://aawomenstudies.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/02/2007_AAWS_Sanghwa_Lee-English.pdf

Min, H. J. (2008). Who gets a good job? — An analysis on the entry process into good jobs and bad jobs in the Korean women's labor market. *Economy and Society, 2008*(6), 223–225. https://www.dbpia.co.kr/journal/articleDetail?nodeId=NODE01031719

Park, K. S., & Kim, Y. H. (2003). Patterns of Korean women's life course. *Korea Journal of Population Studies, 26*(2), 63–90. https://koreascience.kr/article/JAKO200312910509056.page

Triana, M. (2017). *Managing diversity in organizations: A global perspective.* Taylor & Francis.

Trying to "Do the Work": Teacher Transparency and Journeying Toward Antiracist Education

Amy Pickard[1] and Alisa Belzer[2]
[1]Indiana University
[2]Rutgers University

Abstract: Professors of adult education often encourage learners to engage in antiracist practice yet fail to make clear that this is easier said than done. *Teacher transparency* is one way to model adult educators' responsibility to be reflective, problematize practice, and deepen conversation and analysis during antiracist adult education classroom activities. In the paper, we explore the definition of antiracist education, describe the theoretical foundations for and define our vision of teacher transparency, and provide examples and steps for enacting this practice.

Keywords: antiracist education, teacher transparency, adult education

Learning to be an antiracist adult educator is an ongoing journey. Adult educators need models, experiential activities, and tips and techniques to develop their practice. *Teacher transparency* is one approach that may support a deepening of antiracist conversations and analysis in the classroom. Teacher transparency as a concept draws from Brookfield's (2014) idea of narrative modeling in antiracist pedagogy, with some modifications drawn from other works dedicated to antiracist teaching (Kaplowitz et al., 2019; Singleton & Linton, 2006) and intercultural models for storytelling/story listening (Deardorff, 2019). In this paper, we explore the definition of antiracist education and outline the theoretical framing of the teacher transparency concept. We also provide two examples of teacher transparency and conclude with a reflection on this approach and its implications for practice.

Antiracist Education

While endeavoring to be an antiracist educator, defining the term is crucial. However, no universally accepted definition exists; some definitions have very different emphases. For example, Brown University's Harriet W. Sheridan Center for Teaching and Learning's statement (n.d.), "*Effective Teaching is Anti-Racist Teaching*," focuses on effective classroom teaching processes to create a racially equitable environment. In contrast, Yale's Poorvu Center for Teaching and Learning's (n.d.) statement, "*Considerations for Antiracist Teaching*," emphasizes the importance of teachers identifying their internal biases as well as external processes, such as improving classroom procedures and environments and identifying and countering bias within the discipline at large. Our focus for teacher transparency is on antiracist classroom processes. Therefore, we draw on Brown University's Sheridan Center for Teaching and Learning's definition, which suggests antiracist teaching is "intentional syllabus design, class content, or pedagogy that creates or develops racial equity, with applications for face-to-face and remote/hybrid teaching environments*"* (para. 3), to frame our concept of teacher transparency.

Teacher Transparency

As stated above, the teacher transparency concept builds on Brookfield's (2014) idea of narrative modeling. We were initially intrigued by this idea, which Brookfield developed to expand traditional antiracist pedagogy, which he defined as "helping learners identify and counter racist ideas and actions they detect in themselves and others*"* (p. 89). He proposes instructors share their experiences with enactments of white supremacy, racism, and racism disruptions. As Brookfield put it, "Instead of trying to purge themselves of these, conceal them, or damp them down, an alternative educational approach is to make these racist inclinations public and engage learners in a consideration of how to recognize and challenge these" (p. 90).

While we appreciated Brookfield's emphasis on going beyond simply sharing tips and techniques that can support antiracist pedagogy, we felt the need to modify his approach to narrative modeling. Importantly, it seems likely that adult educators and learners of color might not be included equally in this type of conversation. We desired to avoid promoting discussions that become a sort of White person's confessional, in which White adult educators unearth and share their racism while people of color are on the periphery or — worse — exposed to racist messaging and tasked with analyzing White people's racism for them.

Nonetheless, we find value in modeling vulnerability and honesty in this work. Therefore, we incorporate ideas from sources intended to promote dialogue in multicultural settings, including Deardorff's (2019) model of intercultural story circles, Kaplowitz et al.'s (2019) guide to facilitating conversations about race in educational spaces, and Singleton and Linton's (2006) guide to "courageous conversations" about race (p.1). From these sources, we include (1) emphasis on the importance of listening with curiosity to others' experiences, rather than critically reflecting only on one's own life (Deardorff) and (2) clarity about the need to expect and honor various racialized experiences rather than assuming everyone's experiences are similar to those of the privileged White group (Kaplowitz et al., 2019).

Furthermore, in conceptualizing guidelines for the practice of teacher transparency, we draw specifically upon Singleton and Linton's (2006) four agreements of courageous conversations about race (p. 58):

- Stay Engaged.
- Experience Discomfort
- Speak your Truth
- Expect and Accept Non-Closure.

Author 1 used these guidelines in past classes and found some more palatable to participants than others. Some students had difficulty with expecting and accepting non-closure — of remaining in disagreement. However, this approach is aligned closely with the focus on listening to others' experiences for understanding, being willing to share your own story honestly, and being open to discomfort as a learning opportunity. Teachers who model this form of transparency can open discussion to honest participation from a range of participants.

Thus, we envision teacher transparency as moments when educators model sharing challenges, fears, or uncertainties experienced in their quest to enact antiracist education. In this way,

teachers can make clear that no simple or pat ways exist to become an antiracist educator; and learning and development (and discomfort) are ongoing. We believe such modeling can make space for learners to express their questions, uncertainties, and challenges and open spaces more openly for meaningful and productive learning opportunities regarding antiracist pedagogy. Through storytelling, we next offer examples of our teacher transparency as models of our ongoing learning.

Author 1: Asynchronous Antiracism?

> *I am a middle-aged, White, cisgender woman assistant professor in an adult education master's program at a large Midwestern university. I teach two classes per semester, each usually with about 20 students. All our interactions are online and asynchronous. If you've ever taught an online class like this, you know that discussion can generate pages and pages and pages of comments, which can be extremely time-consuming to read closely and in a timely manner. Some days seem to be filled with nothing but reading online comments. In reality, I can't always read them all closely, and sometimes I can only get to them well after they have been posted.*
>
> *However, it has come to my attention that on two occasions, two Black women students in two different classes have had negative experiences in these conversations. One of these students never mentioned it to me directly, but in encountering their comments after the discussion was closed, it seemed clear they had been upset. I was worried about their negative experience, but I was uncertain about the degree to which I should intervene, especially since the discussion had taken place a couple of weeks before, and the class had since moved on to another topic. In the other case, a Black student confided that she had found some of the comments from another class member upsetting and borderline offensive. Again, this disclosure took place well after the discussion had taken place. And again, I was uncertain about what actions to take. Would intervening at that point be more disruptive? If I were to intervene, where would I start?*
>
> *In both cases, I wasn't sure what to do. I had the sense that reaching out directly to the students involved was important, but I was also concerned about how I construct asynchronous discussion spaces. I am interested in spaces where frank exchange is possible, AND students from marginalized groups do not get re-marginalized as part of participation. But how to do this in these asynchronous spaces, where conversation flows without a moderator? If I accept that it is not possible for me to monitor comments in the online discussion space as they happen, what parameters can I, should I, put into place to make these conversations more productive?*
>
> *How do I balance discussion as an opportunity for transformational learning for participants who may have been less exposed to critical thinking about racism and White supremacy with maintaining a positive learning environment for racially marginalized students?*

Author 2: To address or not to address and if so, how?

I am a late middle-aged, white, cisgender woman professor. In an asynchronous online Master's level course on adult learning during a week when the topic was "culture, context, and diversity in adult learning," students were assigned, as part of a weekly activity, to complete a personal identity pie chart (Merriam & Bierema, 2014). They were then to use this as a way to help them identify a time when culture and cultural identity had driven their behavior and influenced an interaction in an adult education setting. They were required to respond to at least one classmate with the goal of helping them see the situation from another perspective so that when confronted by a similar situation, their behaviors could be better informed by cultural awareness and critical analysis.

When one student identified a key aspect of their identity as white, another student (who identified as equal parts "American female, daughter/sister, patriot, Catholic, learner") questioned why anyone would pick whiteness as a defining aspect of identity. The questioning student stated that she found this "interesting," but that she would never include anything about skin color in a description of herself and ethnicity (which she omitted) would be far down her list. Her tone was somewhat ambiguous; it could have been interpreted as genuinely curious or downright derisive. Although at least one other student expressed concern that the questioning student's words could be potentially upsetting to others, I decided to let this sit.

Later that week, when I defined antiracism in a pre-recorded lecture, the same student reported that she stopped the lecture at that moment because "I don't pay tuition to adhere to 'woke' agendas and far left ideologies. My job as a member in society and educator is to treat all with courtesy and professionalism." She did not respond when I wrote in the comment box, "T, stopping listening to the lecture closes yourself off from the possibility of learning something new…What exactly bothers you so much about discussing a term or a concept that you don't agree with or think is important? By the way, I'm not asking you to subscribe to anything by listening to the lecture. You don't have to agree with me, absolutely not."

Several weeks later, when our weekly topic was "Critical perspectives in adult learning" and I knew that the topic of white privilege was going to be raised, I worried that her discussion responses might be problematic to many in the class and wrestled with how to balance her right to her own perspective and opinions with wanting to make the discussion open and comfortable for everyone participating. I felt strongly that I needed to meet with her ahead of the class activity going live, but I was worried that almost anything I said would lead to her saying I was telling her how she should think and feel and could easily be counterproductive.

Next Steps in the Journey

Teacher transparency means adult educators sharing our own stories and making our questions and concerns explicit. We suggest the following sample debriefing questions to spur discussion, learning, and further sharing in learning contexts where adult educators exercise teacher transparency:

- How does teacher transparency/storytelling sit with you?
- What stands out for you about the story? What curiosities do you have about it?
- What would you do and why?
- What would this be like in your context with your learners?
- What stories from your own practice does this evoke?
- In what ways can we support each other to be better teachers by sharing our stories?
- How might hearing this story help you better "do the work" of antiracist teaching?

Conclusion

When adult educators share stories about their challenges with antiracist teaching, they open spaces for learners to problem-solve and try a range of responses to complex instructional dynamics related to antiracist practices. By going first in exposing uncertainty and ambiguity, educators model that antiracist teaching is complicated and no one — not even the person teaching about the topic — has all the right answers or always knows what to do. Teacher transparency clarifies that the ongoing process of learning to be an antiracist educator can be strengthened by sharing stories and engaging in collaborative sense-making about challenges. Importantly, teacher transparency invites learners to share *their* stories; these discussions can give voice to more perspectives, creating greater potential for deeper understandings and possible solutions.

References

Brookfield, S. (2014). Teaching our own racism: Incorporating personal narratives of whiteness into anti-racist practice. *Adult Learning*, *25*(3), 89–95. https://doi.org/10.1177/1045159514534189

Brown University, The Harriet W. Sheridan Center for Teaching and Learning. (n.d.). *Effective teaching is anti-racist teaching.* Retrieved July 7, 2023 from https://www.brown.edu/sheridan/teaching-learning-resources/inclusive-teaching/effective-teaching-anti-racist-teaching

Deardorff, D. K. (2019). *Manual for developing intercultural competencies: Story circles*. Routledge.

Kaplowitz, D. R., Griffin, S. R., & Sheyka, S. (Eds.). (2019). *Race dialogues: A facilitator's guide to tackling the elephant in the classroom*. Teachers College Press.

Merriam, S. B., & Bierema, L. L. (2013). *Adult learning: Linking theory and practice*. John Wiley & Sons, Incorporated.

Singleton, G. E., & Linton, C. (2006). *Courageous conversations about race: A field guide for achieving equity in schools*. Corwin Press.

Yale University, Poorvu Center for Teaching and Learning. (n.d). *Considerations for Antiracist Teaching.* Retrieved July 7, 2023, from https://poorvucenter.yale.edu/Antiracist-Teaching-Considerations

Motivation to Study Abroad and Intercultural Adaptation of Chinese Doctoral Students in Italy

Ruoyi Qiu, Monica Fedeli
University of Padova

Abstract: The transitional and adaptive process of studying abroad for international students is challenging. This study explores the motivation to study abroad (MSA) and the intercultural adaptation (IA) of international Chinese doctoral students (ICDS) at an Italian university by conducting a narrative inquiry approach through semi-structured interviews. Findings included: firstly, MSA has seven selecting principles, including the cooperation policies; social support; personal goals, beliefs, and values; the attraction of Italy; the attraction of Italian university; the doctoral program; Chinese sociocultural and educational system. Secondly, ICDS spans two cultures and experiences cultural disequilibrium. IA's attitudes toward ICDS comprise ideal, involute, Buddhist, and lying flat. Last, this study summarizes a dynamic virtuous and vicious cycle model to explain the role of MSA on IA.

Keywords: motivation to study abroad, decision-making, intercultural adaptation, cultural disequilibrium, transition

Over the last two decades, research interest centered on the global education market (Buckner & Stein, 2020; Garwe & Thondhlana, 2021), which experienced phenomenal growth in demand for international education (Böhm et al., 2002). Moreover, a central component of international education is recruiting international students (IS) (Khorsandi, 2014). IS is growing relatively fast (Beine et al., 2014). In higher education, IS has grown dramatically from three-tenths of a million in 1963 to two million in 2000 to six million in 2019. However, this is just 2.6% of the world's student population (Sabzalieva et al., 2022).

The Global Student Mobility 2025 report (Böhm et al., 2002) predicted the demand for international education will increase to seven and two-tenths million in 2025. However, the annual report from the Italian Ministero dell' Istruzione [Ministry of Education] shows 876,801 students were not Italian citizens (10.3% of the total school-age population) in 2019/2020. Most importantly, in the 2010 to the 2020 decade, IS increased overall by 23.4% (+166,000 units) (Ministero dell' Istruzione, 2021, pp. 8-9). According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2023), in 2020, the enrollment of IS in Italy accounted for 2.9% of all territory students, whereas the OECD average stood at 10.1%, and in Europe, it was 8.2%. Therefore, the potential exists in the global market for the mobility of international students (MIS) in Europe, especially for non-English-dominant countries, such as Italy.

The COVID-19 pandemic affected the international program between China and Italy, and the number of Chinese students studying in Italy dropped. However, more than 3,000 Chinese students enrolled in Italian higher education institutions in 2020/21. According to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2019), China has the most significant number (1,061,511) of students studying abroad in any country worldwide. In the top five countries, Chinese students prefer

English-dominant countries over those where English is not dominant. Moreover, research shows that IS from Asian countries have more significant adjustment difficulties than non-Asian countries (Wu et al., 2015). IS from Asian countries encounter considerably more academic and social difficulties due to linguistic and cultural barriers (Leong, 2015; Wu et al.). Students from non-English-dominant countries who choose to study abroad in non-English-dominant countries face significant challenges. Graduate students are more motivated and mature than undergraduates (Hofinger & Feldmann, 2001) and have rich professional and personal experiences (Knowles, 1980). Thus, understanding international Chinese doctoral students' (ICDS) motivation to study abroad (MSA) and intercultural adaptation (IA) in Italy is crucial. This study aimed to explore the MSA and IA of ICDS in the Italian university and the role of MSA on IA. We conducted a narrative inquiry approach through semi-structured interviews to investigate ICDS' narratives of their transitional and intercultural learning experiences. Three questions led the research: What motivated ICDS to choose and decide to study abroad at an Italian university? How does ICDS adapt to the new environment in an Italian university? How do motivational dimensions affect the IA of ICDS?

Literature Review

Prior research found two primary motivations for studying abroad. One is learning motivation, which influences students' learning process and the motivational beliefs related to learning (Andrade, 2006). Some studies, for example, investigated the motivation effect on higher education's academic performance (Cho et al., 2021; Joe et al., 2017; Beachboard et al., 2011). Other studies showed intrinsic motivation is positively associated with academic success (Turner et al., 2009). Entrance motivation is another factor (Lauermann, 2012; Yan & Berliner, 2011); scholarship defines this motivation as any mechanism underlying the decision to pursue higher education abroad — that is, why students may choose to study abroad. Study abroad decisions are the first steps in students' educational transition to a new environment. We used the definition of entry motivation in this study to maintain consistency with research objectives and questions. Most publications explore the notions of college choice and decision-making (Mazzarol et al., 2001), but much less available literature explores these ideas in the context of IS seeking to study abroad (Pawlak et al, 2020). Li et al. (2013) observed that "minimal research on study abroad attention has been devoted to studying factors affecting students' intention and decision to study abroad" (p. 74). Thus, universities must understand IS's principles of choosing and making decisions by clarifying their MSA.

However, IS suffers from cultural disequilibrium, and transition and adaptation to university in the new environment challenges. Taylor (1994) pointed out that "cultural disequilibrium" is a "catalyst of the [intercultural] learning process," which "consists of periods of incongruency" that "challenge the participants' meaning perspective, pushing them to learn new ways to bring balance back into their lives" (p. 169). Reported research indicates that IS has a tough time (Wu & Hammond, 2011) during the initial transition to university (Wu & Hammond) and adapting to the new intercultural environment (Luo & Zhang, 2021). Recent studies show that IS often encounter problems with sociocultural adaptation (Khaway & Stallman, 2011), psychological adaptation (Chalungsoth & Schneller, 2011), and academic adaptation (Hayes & Lin, 1994). Moreover, the COVID-19 pandemic presented a vast challenge to education systems (Daniel, 2020; Odriozola-González et al., 2020). The pandemic influenced teaching and learning in

universities and caused significant psychological stress and mental health to IS (Daniel, 2020). IS must adapt to the new challenges an unfamiliar environment presents to transition successfully (Parker et al., 2005) and adapt to university.

Findings related to the relationship between MSA and IA show congruent themes in existing literature. First, some empirical studies reported that IS are strongly motivated to adapt and make significant efforts to do so (Amiot et al., 2010; Sheridan, 2011). MSA is a crucial factor influencing students' IA during the intercultural experience (Borodina, 2022; Pedersen et al., 2014; Chirkov et al., 2007, 2008; Ganotice et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2021). Second, there has been growing interest in exploring factors and complexities that impact IS adaptation (Gu et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2015).

However, MSA has yet to be incorporated into study abroad research as a potential factor influencing intercultural development (Anderson & Lawton, 2015). The literature shows inattention to the significance of students' self-determination, goals, and motivation in dynamic interactions with the environment (Volet & Jones, 2012). The preceding discussion underscores the need for more research exploring the transition and intercultural learning process of MSA and IA of IS. Thus, our study analyzed what motivated IS to study abroad and what challenges IS faces in adapting to the new intercultural environment — furthermore, we sought the role of MSA on IA.

Methodology

A qualitative design helps to produce complex, rich descriptions of an individual's experience on a given research issue (Yin, 2011). To explore the research questions, we framed our study as a qualitative design with a narrative inquiry approach through semi-structured interviews. We aimed to produce a more nuanced understanding of the MSA principles and IA process by investigating ICDS' narratives of their intercultural learning experience in an Italian university. This study used purposive and snowball sampling techniques (Creswell, 2007) to select a sample of IS from China, studying at a university in Northern Italy. Ten ICDS — seven males and three females (represented by the letters A to J) — participated in this study. They received different types of scholarships from the Chinese government (China Scholarship Council), Chinese universities (Joint-Cultivated Scholarship), and the Italian government or university scholarship. Regarding the way research data was collected and analyzed, this study conducted semi-structured interviews in Chinese with ten ICDS, either face-to-face or via Zoom, depending on the preferences and convenience of the participants. The interviews were carried out in Chinese, and the first author, who is a native Chinese speaker, transcribed the audio recordings of the interviews in Chinese. The first author, being fluent in both Chinese and English, personally translated the transcriptions from Chinese to English. During the translation process, the first author ensured accurate and faithful translation of the participants' responses while maintaining the original meaning. After the initial translation, the first author reviewed and cross-checked the translated content to ensure its accuracy and consistency. Any discrepancies or ambiguities in translation were resolved by the first author, drawing on their fluency in both languages and contextual understanding of the research. Additionally, the first author verified the accuracy of the interview content with the participants while coding. Moreover, the interview data was coded and analyzed using ATLAS.ti.

Findings

Choice and Decision Principles

ICDS's choice and decision principles for study abroad institutions are, to some extent, random — though often based on reality and opportunity considerations. Seven selection principles convinced ICDS to study abroad. These were (listed in no order here) the cooperation policies between Italian and Chinese governments or universities; social support; personal goals, beliefs, and values; the attraction of Italy; the attraction of Italian universities; the doctoral program; Chinese sociocultural and educational system.

Cultural Disequilibrium

ICDS are caught between two cultures — Chinese and Italian — and experience cultural disequilibrium. Some ICDS feel alone, anxious, stressed, or unhappy. For ICDS who were affected by the Covid-19 pandemic, the impact was more evident. For instance, as Participant B stated, *Especially in the first year, the whole country was in lockdown, and you could only stay in the dormitory to have classes, which was a terrible experience. It was only after a year there were some in-person academic or non-academic activities, courses and lectures. I realized that, 'Oh, this may be my ideal life of studying abroad*.

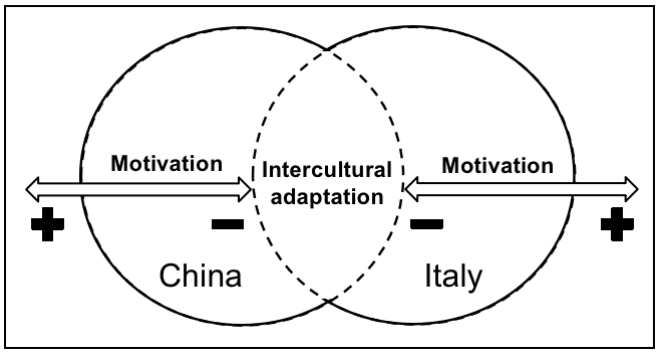
Moreover, ICDS face more complicated challenges than expected (e.g., language barriers, racial discrimination, and personality barriers). However, language barriers are the most critical and fundamental cause of low adaptability inside and outside an Italian university. Furthermore, ICDS' attitudes toward ICDS university adaptation descriptions include ideal, involute, Buddhist, and lying flat.

Cyclical Model

A single motivation can have positive or negative effects, and different types of motivation have different impacts on learning experiences and outcomes (Sze-Yeung Lai & Chi-leung Hui, 2021). Therefore, a dynamic virtuous, and vicious cycle model could explain the role of MSA on IA (see Figure 1). ICDS with personal goals, beliefs, and values, seems to adapt to the university more easily (positive effects). They know what they are doing and what they want after graduation. For instance, as Participant J clarified, *"I always had a voice inside of me that I wanted to be stronger and better, which drove me to study abroad in the first place. This is what kept me going despite the difficulties I encountered."*

However, ICDS face difficulties and challenges during the intercultural adaptation process. They have high expectations from inside or outside that bring them pressures or anxiety (negative effects). For instance, Participant E stated, *"I chose this university because of its academic research strength, but I was disappointed by the team's academic research capabilities and collaborative approach. I did not get a good experience and training."* Additionally, Participant A stated *"It is always better to have your goals for studying abroad. Because many international students are blind or purposeless and confused. Especially when they are wasting time without even knowing it. it is like 'headless flies cannot find the wall'. Just keep hitting the wall and not find a way out."* Therefore, a dynamic virtuous, and vicious cycle model of interaction between MSA and IA can help to explain this phenomenon.

Figure 1.
A dynamic virtuous and vicious cycle model of interaction between MSA and IA



Discussion

This section explores the findings based on the narrative experiences provided by the participants and the literature. This study mainly focused on the principles of selecting the study abroad program and the university in Italy, the difficulties and challenges for ICDS to react and adapt to the Italian university, and how MSA influences the IA of ICDS. In this study, we aimed to answer the following research questions: *Research question 1: What are the factors that motivate international students to study abroad? Research question 2: What are the challenges faced by international students in adapting to the new intercultural environment? Research question 3: What is the role of the MSA in IA?*

After conducting semi-structured interviews with ten ICDS, the first question was addressed by analyzing the participants' responses to identify the seven selection principles for studying abroad. As for the second question, this study analyzed the participants' experiences to identify the challenges and attitudes they encountered during their adaptation process. Furthermore, to address the third question, this study presented an explanation of the dynamic model that clarified the role of MSA on IA.

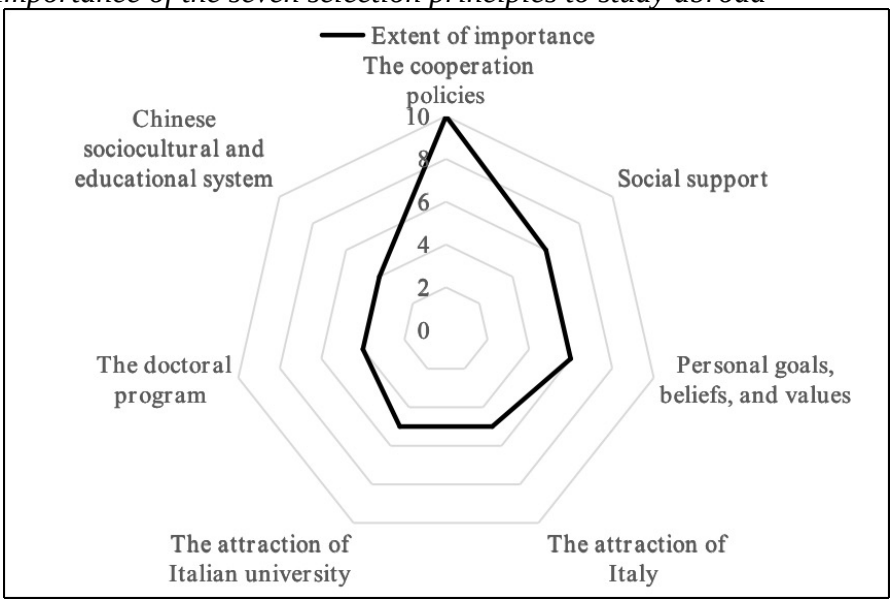
Seven Selection Principles To Study Abroad

ICDS have more than one study abroad motivation related to multiple personal realities. ICDS' choice and decision-making principles for study abroad programs and universities in non-English-dominant Italy are based on considerations of reality and opportunity and, to some extent, unexpected. Based on themes discovered in the narratives, our study concludes with seven main chosen principles. Additionally, the semi-structured interview data revealed the extent of importance of the selection principles, as depicted in Figure 2.

Principle One

The highest-regarded principle is the cooperation policies of the Italian and Chinese governments and universities (i.e., the joint-cultivate program between Italian and Chinese universities, the international program between the Italian university and the Chinese government, and scholarship from China and Italy). There were ten participants who mentioned this principle, and some ICDS believed it was a good chance, considering themselves fortunate.

Figure 2.
The extent of importance of the seven selection principles to study abroad



Principle Two
The second regarded principle is social support mentioned by six participants, which includes factors such as influence or encouragement by families, partners, or friends; and inspiration from Italian professors, master's supervisors, or other professors doing a similar research area.

Principle Three
The third principle comprises personal goals, beliefs, and values, as mentioned by six participants. ICDS wants to study abroad and experience the international multicultural environment to enlarge their worldview. They have enthusiasm for academic research, believe a doctoral degree or foreign diploma makes future job searches easier, and anticipate a higher salary. Specifically, they consider the principle's three components based on personal experiences and reality.

Principle Four
The fourth principle is Italian attraction, as mentioned by five participants. For instance, ICDS viewed Italy favorably as compared to the US's unsafety and Canada's cold weather. Italy has an excellent natural environment and climate, and the university's location city is small but quiet and comfortable for studying. Italy has a different culture and social structure than China, including a rich historical and cultural heritage.

Principle Five
The fifth principle is the attraction of an Italian university, as mentioned by five participants. In Italy, a three-year doctoral program typically lasts three years; in China, at least doctoral programs generally require four years. Italian high education quality, with enriched education resources, has a long history and high university and discipline ranking, multicultural learning environment, and academic freedom.

Principle Six

The sixth principle is the doctoral program. Italian doctoral programs have fewer requirements to apply and fewer challenges to gain entrance compared with universities from Northern European countries, the United Kingdom, the United States, or Canada. Most importantly, there is no requirement for an Italian language level.

Principle Seven

The seventh principle is deficiencies in the Chinese sociocultural and educational system, which is a direction-driving factor. With the rapid development of China's economy and technology, a competitive culture arose in society, and Chinese residents faced much pressure to survive. Moreover, because of the low cultural diversity and inclusiveness in the higher education system and society, there is less chance to study abroad, leading to a narrow field of view. Students face limited sharing and gaining global resources and a lack of academic resources in China.

Caught Between Two Cultures: Adaptation Challenges and Attitudes

Surprisingly, more than half of ICDS have not encountered short-term or long-term exchange or study abroad experiences, nor have they traveled abroad. ICDS is directly influenced by Chinese culture, including the ways of living, thinking, and learning approaches (Li et al, 2022). While analyzing the narratives, we observed some ICDS feel alone, anxious, stressed, or unhappy. The work of Chayinska & Mari (2014) supports our discovery. Indeed, ICDS participants struggled between the Italian and Chinese cultures and suffered from cultural disequilibrium.

ICDS face more complicated challenges than they expected—for instance, language barriers, racial discrimination, and personality barriers. Language barriers are the most critical and fundamental cause of low adaptability inside (e.g., courses held in Italian, difficulties of misunderstanding and communicating with colleagues and supervisors; not feeling involved or belonging in Italian-language activities) and outside (e.g., hard to integrate into the local community, feel excluded) the Italian university. Most importantly, more than five ICDS have anxiety, mainly in academic research: their difficulty communicating and interacting with supervisors is an important reason. However, ICDS believed supervisors play a virtual role in their doctoral program and adaptation to the university. Furthermore, the coping of COVID-19 pandemic represented a crucial influence on satisfaction with studying abroad. As Participant B mentioned, *"The overall feeling of the program was not as good as I expected. A big reason for that was the COVID-19 pandemic, which made it so different from what I thought."*

In addition, according to the narrative, the attitudes of ICDS toward adaptation challenges can be concluded as four aspects. First, *ideal*: some ICDS are optimistic about the intercultural learning experience and believe it is a basis for achieving life goals. For instance, participant B mentioned *"I believe that the current learning process is just a part of life's journey, and eventually, we need to move towards a more advanced stage. Yes, that's right."* Second, *Buddhists*: some ICDS have a no-desire attitude to life and enjoy their comfort zone. For instance, as Participant B mentioned, *"I am used to being in my comfort zone. It was like my own space, and I did not want to participate in activities, even after the COVID-19 pandemic."* Third, *involute*: some ICDS realized that social or academic resources could not be satisfied, and all people must compete, either in a vicious competition or be competed. For instance, as Participant C mentioned, *"Just*

like sitting in front of a bar, basking in the afternoon sun, drinking Spritz, and chatting…… I really want to enjoy this feeling, but I was tied up in research."
In the field of academic research, the ability to adapt and survive is closely tied to the quality and quantity of research results. This concept finds validation among numerous PhD students. Last, *lying flat*: some ICDS are frustrated with the social environment and mentioned that it is better to maintain a minimum survival standard rather than actively struggle. For instance, Participant H pointed *out "I am still not adjusting well to college. I am the calm water which is pretty but too calm……You can choose to be very relaxed and calm, and nervous. I prefer relaxed and calm."*

The Role of MSA on IA: A Dynamic Explained Model
ICDS are caught between Chinese and Italian cultural circles. The MSA plays a vital role in IA, including positive and negative effects. A dynamic virtuous and vicious cycle model as mentioned above can provide an explanation for the role of motivation to study abroad in intercultural adaptation. This model highlights the reciprocal relationship between motivation and intercultural adaptation, suggesting that they reinforce or weaken each other in a continuous cycle (see Figure 1).

The dynamic virtuous and vicious cycle model offers a framework to understand the influence of MSA on IA. This model suggests that MSA and IA are interconnected and mutually reinforcing. A strong motivation drives individuals to actively engage in intercultural experiences, leading to positive adaptation outcomes. Successful adaptation experiences, in turn, enhance individuals' motivation, creating a positive cycle of continuous growth and development. Conversely, challenges or reduced motivation can lead to a negative cycle, hindering IA. Understanding this dynamic cycle can assist researchers and practitioners in identifying strategies to enhance motivation and support the IA process for individuals studying abroad.

Implications and Future Research

This study provides implications for theory and practice and informs future research. In theory, the narrative inquiry approach helped us understand ICDS with specific cultural backgrounds. Based on the narrative inquiry data captured from ICDS, this study proposed the dynamic virtuous, and vicious cycle model of interaction between MSA and IA. The dynamic virtuous and vicious cycle model can aid in understanding and explaining the intercultural transition and adaptation of ICDS. Thus, narrative inquiry is appropriate for this study and other international adult education research.

In practice, our study's results help ICDS better adapt to a new environment and help Italian universities optimize international education. We present some recommendations for IS and Italian universities based on our findings:

For IS
Learning a language (Italian or English) could help improve communication competencies; being open-minded, trying to accept Italian culture and active social networks, and balancing work (e.g., academic research, courses) and life.

For the Italian University

Increasing frequency of English use as an intermediary language by students, faculty, and administrators to improve inclusion and sustainability; setting up a dedicated office or position that allows students to gain help directly or indirectly; for some doctoral programs, setting specific joint-cultivate plans; reforming curriculum to contain more English courses for IS; establishing the international community, organizing regular academic and non-academic activities.

For Future International Adult Education Research

More research is necessary to help universities organize international programs in this particular period and attract and maintain more IS. Suggestions for improved research perspectives include (1) further exploring the themes of transition and acculturation of ICDS; (2) enlarging the population to bachelor, master, and doctoral students from different countries; (3) comparing ICDS studying in other Italian universities or other English and non-English-dominant countries; conducting a mixed-method design — a longitudinal research design is ideal for exploring dynamic changes of intercultural adaptation.

References

Amiot, C. E., Terry, D. J., Wirawan, D., & Grice, T. A. (2010). Changes in social identities over time: The role of coping and adaptation processes. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 49, 803–826. https://doi.org/10.1348/014466609X480624

Andrade, M. S. (2006). International students in English-speaking universities: Adjustment factors. *Journal of Research in International education, 5*(2), 131-154. https://doi.org/10.1177/1475240906065589

Anderson, P. H., & Lawton, L. (2015). The MSA: An instrument for measuring motivation to study abroad. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad, 26*(1), 53-67. https://doi.org/10.36366/frontiers.v26i1.357

Beine, M., Noël, R., & Ragot, L. (2014). Determinants of the international mobility of students. *Economics of Education review, 41*, 40-54. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2014.03.003

Böhm, A., Davis, D., Meares, D., & Pearce, D. (2002). *Global student mobility 2025. Forecasts of the global demand for international higher education.* Sydney: IDP Education Australia.

Borodina, D. (2022). International students' motivation to study abroad —— "Why are you studying at a Hungarian university?". *Journal of Education in Black Sea Region*, 7(2), 24-40. https://doi.org/10.31578/jebs.v7i2.259

Buckner, E., & Stein, S. (2020). What counts as internationalization? Deconstructing the internationalization imperative. *Journal of Studies in International Education, 24*(2), 151-166. https://doi.org/10.1177/1028315319829878

Chalungsooth, P., & Schneller, G. R. (2011). Development of translation materials to assess international students' mental health concerns. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 39(3), 180-191. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1912.2011.tb00150.x

Chayinska, M., & Mari, S. (2014). Paying attention to international students in Italy. The role of acculturative stress in the affective evaluations of cross-cultural transition. *Psicologia sociale, 9*(2), 177.

Chirkov, V., Vansteenkiste, M., Tao, R., & Lynch, M. (2007). The role of self-determined motivation and goals for study abroad in the adaptation of international students. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 31*(2), 199-222. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2006.03.002

Chirkov, V. I., Safdar, S., de Guzman, D. J., & Playford, K. (2008). Further examining the role motivation to study abroad plays in the adaptation of international students in Canada. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 32*(5), 427-440. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2007.12.001

Cho, H. J., Levesque-Bristol, C., & Yough, M. (2021). International students' self-determined motivation, beliefs about classroom assessment, learning strategies, and academic adjustment in higher education. *Higher Education, 81*(6), 1215-1235.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed.). Sage.

Daniel, S. J. (2020). Education and the COVID-19 pandemic. *Prospects, 49*(1), 91-96.

Furnham, A. (2004). Foreign students: Education and culture shock. *The Psychologist, 17*(1), 16–19.

Ganotice Jr, F. A., Downing, K., Chan, B., & Yip, L. W. (2022). Motivation, goals for study abroad and adaptation of Mainland Chinese students in Hong Kong. *Educational Studies, 48*(2), 149-164. https://doi.org/10.1080/03055698.2020.1746240

Garwe, E.C. and Thondhlana, J. (2022), Making internationalization of higher education a national strategic focus, *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education, 14(*1), 521-538. https://doi.org/10.1108/JARHE-09-2020-0323

Gu, Q., Schweisfurth, M., & Day, C. (2010). Learning and growing in a 'foreign' context: Intercultural experiences of international students. *Compare, 40*(1), 7–23. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057920903115983

Hayes, R. L., & Lin, H. R. (1994). Coming to America: Developing social support systems for international students. *Journal of Multicultural counseling and Development, 22*(1), 7-16. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1912.1994.tb00238.x

Hofinger, Robert, & Lloyd Feldmann (2001). The role of the adult student in the classroom. In *2001 Annual Conference*, 6-1033. https://peer.asee.org/9754

Joe, H. K., Hiver, P., & Al-Hoorie, A. H. (2017). Classroom social climate, self-determined motivation, willingness to communicate, and achievement: A study of structural relationships in instructed second language settings. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 53, 133-144. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2016.11.005

Khawaja, N. G., & Stallman, H. M. (2011). Understanding the coping strategies of international students: A qualitative approach. *Journal of Psychologists and Counsellors in Schools, 21*(2), 203-224. https://doi.org/10.1375/ajgc.21.2.203

Khorsandi Taskoh, A. (2014). *A critical policy analysis of internationalization in postsecondary education: An Ontario case study* (Doctoral dissertation). https://ir.lib.uwo.ca/etd/1933/

Knowles, M. S. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: from pedagogy to andragogy*. The Adult Education Company.

Lauermann, F. (2012). To go or not to go: the decision to pursue higher education abroad. In *Transitions Across Schools and Cultures*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Bingley, 177-204. https://doi.org/10.1108/S0749-7423(2012)0000017010

Leong, P. (2015). Coming to America: Assessing the patterns of acculturation, friendship formation, and the academic experiences of international students at a U.S. college. *Journal of International Students, 5*(4), 459-474.

Li, B., Sjöström, J., Ding, B., & Eilks, I. (2022). Education for Sustainability Meets Confucianism in Science Education. *Science & Education*, 1-30.

Li, M., Olson, J. E., & Frieze, I. H. (2013). Students' Study Abroad Plans: The Influence of Motivational and Personality Factors. *Frontiers: The interdisciplinary journal of study abroad*, 23, 73-89.

Luo, M., & Zhang, X. (2021). Research status about influence factors of international students' cross-cultural adaptation with different models. *Open Journal of Social Sciences, 9*(6), 51-63. doi: 10.4236/jss.2021.96006.

Ministero dell' Istruzione (2021). *Gli alunni stranieri nel sistema scolastico italiano. A.s. 2019/2020*. Ministero dell'Istruzione - Ufficio Statistica e studi. Retrieved July 7, 2023, from https://rb.gy/509hc

Mazzarol, T., Soutar, G. N., & Thein, V. (2001), Critical success factors in the marketing of an educational institution: A comparison of institutional and student perspectives, *Journal of Marketing for Higher Education, 10*(2), 39-57. https://doi.org/10.1300/J050v10n02_04

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2023, July 7), *International student mobility (indicator)*. https://data.oecd.org/students/international-student-mobility.htm

Odriozola-González, P., Planchuelo-Gómez, Á., Irurtia, M. J., & de Luis-García, R. (2020). Psychological effects of the COVID-19 outbreak and lockdown among students and workers of a Spanish university. *Psychiatry research*, 290, 113108. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2020.113108

Parker, J., Duffy, J., Wood, L., Bond, B., & Hogan, M. (2005). Academic achievement and emotional intelligence: Predicting the successful transition from high school to university. *Journal of the first-year experience & students in transition, 17*(1), 67-78.

Pawlak, M., & Soto, A. (2020). Interrelationships of motivation, self-efficacy and self-regulatory strategy use: An investigation into study abroad experiences. *System, 93*, 102300. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2020.102300

Pedersen, E. R., Skidmore, J. R., & Aresi, G. (2014). Demographic and predeparture factors associated with drinking and alcohol-related consequences for college students completing study abroad experiences. *Journal of American College Health, 62*(4), 244–254. https://doi.org/10.1080/07448481.2014.887573

Beachboard, M. R., Beachboard, J. C., Li, W., & Adkison, S. R. (2011). Cohorts and relatedness: Self-determination theory as an explanation of how learning communities affect educational outcomes. *Research in Higher Education*, 52, 853-874.

Sabzalieva, E., Mutize, T., & Yerovi, C. (2022). Moving minds: Opportunities and challenges for virtual student mobility in a post-pandemic world. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, International Institute for Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean. Retrieved July 7, 2023, from https://www.iesalc.unesco.org/wp-content/uploads/2022/03/IESALC_220315_RE_VSM_EN.pdf

Taylor, E. W. (1994). Intercultural competency: A transformative learning process. *Adult education quarterly, 44*(3), 154-174. https://doi.org/10.1177/074171369404400303

Sheridan, V. (2011). A holistic approach to international students, institutional habitus and academic literacies in an Irish third level institution. *Higher Education*, 62, 129–140.

Sze-Yeung Lai, C., & Chi-leung Hui, P. (2021). Service-learning: Impacts of learning motivation and learning experience on extended social/civic engagement. *Higher Education Research & Development, 40*(2), 400-415. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360.2020.1756748

Turner, E. A., Chandler, M., & Heffer, R. W. (2009). The influence of parenting styles, achievement motivation, and self-efficacy on academic performance in college students. *Journal of College Student Development, 50*(3), 337–346. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.0.0073

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization Institute for Statistics. (2019). *SDG 4 data book. Global education indicators 2019*. Retrieved July 7, 2023, from https://uis.unesco.org/sites/default/files/documents/sdg4-databook-global-ed-indicators-2019-en.pdf

Volet, S., & Jones, C. (2012). Cultural transitions in higher education: Individual adaptation, transformation and engagement. In *Transitions across schools and cultures* (pp. 241-284). Emerald Group Publishing Limited. https://doi.org/10.1108/S0749-7423(2012)0000017012

Wang, H., Xu, M., Xie, X., Dong, Y., & Wang, W. (2021). Relationships between achievement goal orientations, learning engagement, and academic adjustment in freshmen: Variable-centered and person-centered approaches. *Frontiers in psychology*, 12, 767886. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.767886

Wu, H. P., Garza, E., & Guzman, N. (2015). International student's challenge and adjustment to college. *Education Research International*, 2015, 1–9. https://doi.org/10.1155/2015/202753

Wu, W., & Hammond, M. (2011). Challenges of university adjustment in the UK: a study of East Asian Master's degree students. *Journal of Further and Higher Education, 35*(3), 423-438. https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2011.569016

Yan, K., & Berliner, D. C. (2011). Chinese international students in the United States: Demographic trends, motivations, acculturation features and adjustment challenges. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 12*(2), 173-184.

Yin, R. K. (2015). *Qualitative research from start to finish*. Guilford publications.

Yue, Y., & Lu, J. (2022). International students' motivation to study abroad: an empirical study based on expectancy-value theory and self-determination theory. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, 841122. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.841122

Using Learning Science Strategies to Enhance Teaching Practices and Empower Adult Learners

Kimberly M. Rehak and Jacqueline M. McGinty
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Abstract: By leveraging research-backed strategies from the learning sciences, adult educators can help learners develop effective study habits that lead to deeper learning. This paper will discuss the harm in perpetuating neuromyths and how doing so can lead to negative outcomes for learners. Then, six strategies will be shared to help adult educators build and implement evidence-backed research practices in their classrooms. The strategies should lead to better study habits, more knowledge retention, and quicker retrieval speeds. Additionally, employing these techniques can lead to adult learners' building self-efficacy and confidence, which are essential to learner success.

Keywords: knowledge retention; learning sciences; learning strategies; memory; neuromyths

Research insights from the learning sciences — a catchall name for disciplines investigating the neurological processes of learning (e.g., cognitive psychology; neuroscience) — should be used to inform teaching and learning design. Cognitive scientists have conducted myriad empirical studies into memory and learning, lending insights into how learning happens. These evidence-based insights into how learners transfer and retain knowledge should inform teaching practices. Nevertheless, a long-standing disconnect between educational research and practice remains, perpetuating beliefs and practices with little to no evidence of their effectiveness.

Educators can plan for student learning using six strategies from the learning sciences (Sumeracki, 2019). These strategies are 1) retrieval practice, 2) interleaving, 3) spaced practice, 4) elaboration, 5) dual coding, and 6) using concrete examples. By employing teaching strategies and designing learning experiences that incorporate these techniques, adult educators can demonstrate research-backed study methods for their classrooms. Using these techniques is more likely to result in effective learning. Further, the practices should allow for quicker information retrieval, which, in turn, can enable learners to gain confidence in their learning capacity and capabilities.

The purpose of this paper is to discuss how and why adult educators can utilize these six study strategies. Following a brief introduction of past and current theories of learning and the brain, we will explain the danger of neuromyths and argue to support the need for evidence-based strategies in adult learning. Afterward, we will provide an overview of the suggested strategies and ways to apply them in practice. The paper will conclude with a discussion of how employing learning science strategies can empower adult learners.

Background

Research suggests even though information on the internet is readily available, cognitive processes, such as memorization and retrieval, are essential skills educators should help learners develop and practice (Fusco et al., 2020; Immordino-Yang, 2016). Helping learners master effective strategies for studying and employing techniques supported by cognitive science research can lead to greater knowledge retention.

How learning scientists conceptualize memory and neurological processing has developed over time. In the late 1800s, Ebbinghaus first theorized learning was created by "building associations among elements" (Roedinger & Yamashiro, 2019, p. 168). Nearly a century later, the metaphor of the mind as a computer entered the field — exemplified by Shiffrin and Atkinson's "three-box model" (Miller, 2022, p. 57), with the three boxes being sensory, short-term, and long-term memory. Short- and long-term memory are no longer viewed as separate processes (Richardson, 2007), and studies show information is received and transferred from working memory to long-term memory through various distinct subsystems. Additionally, long-term memory has various parts (e.g., semantic, episodic, and procedural) instead of a single box (Miller, 2022).

Although experimentation on the processes of learning and knowledge transfer continues, "[c]ontemporary theories do continue to portray memory as involving three distinct core processes: encoding, storage, and retrieval" (Miller, 2022, p. 83). Furthermore, Craik and Lockhart (1972)'s model of processing levels, from shallow to deep, is also generally accepted in the field. Experiments testing Craik and Lockhart (1972)'s theory show deeper processing correlates to stronger connection in long-term memory and quicker retrieval (McLeod, 2007). The learning and knowledge transfer process is more complicated than this review addresses; however, understanding fundamental theories of memory, information retrieval, and learning helps relate to techniques recommended and discussed in the rest of this paper.

Neuromyths: What They Are and How They Are Harmful

Unless research advances are translated and disseminated to inform practitioners, ongoing work in the field can become ineffective and, at worst, harmful. Neuromyths — misconceptions of how learning and teaching work — are created when brain research is misunderstood or misinterpreted and subsequently applied to teaching and learning.

Torrijos-Muelas, González-Víllora, and Bodoque-Osma's, (2021) systematic review of the "neuroeducation" (p. 1) literature reveals the most prevalent neuromyth is learners learn best via their preferred learning style. Despite evidence to the contrary, many instructors and teacher-trainer programs continue the practice of accommodating various learning styles. Learners' preference for a specific learning modality does not mean they will retain information or later access it from long-term memory.

Not only do neuromyths lead educators to utilize ineffective strategies, but they can also negatively affect student outcomes. For instance, if a student thinks they are an auditory learner, they may get easily frustrated and quickly give up reading a difficult text, believing their struggle is caused by their not being a visual learner. The problem lies not in the modality through which learners receive information, but in the fact that learners need to employ effective study strategies, such as note-taking and retrieval practice. For learners to transfer knowledge and

retain course content, they need to use study strategies that lead to quicker retrieval and stronger mental connections. Teacher training and professional development programs should emphasize evidence-based practices instead of putting time and resources into unproven methods.

Strategies from The Learning Scientists

The Learning Scientists (https://www.learningscientists.org/) identified six strategies for knowledge development backed by cognitive science research. We will discuss each strategy and its relation to the neurological processes of learning. Table 1 shows how adult educators can apply various learning techniques.

Table 1.
Ways for Adult Educators to Apply Learning Strategies

Learning Strategy	Explanation	Example Applications
Retrieval practice	Quizzing learners on content to assist with memorization and quicker access to stored information	Demonstrate how to study vocabulary by providing several different types of exercises (e.g., matching, crossword puzzles, fill-in-the-blank sentences)
Interleaving	Studying multiple topics instead of "chunking" learning in sequence	Organize several lessons around a common theme and jump from topic to topic; help learners organize a study schedule for several classes over time
Spaced practice	Studying topics multiple times and over an extended period; revisiting topics over many lessons	Designate a student notetaker for each class and then have them quiz learners on the topics in a later lesson
Elaboration	Discussing the how or why of topics to gain a deeper understanding	Have learners share examples of how they can apply a concept to their daily life (e.g., how photosynthesis is like getting energy after eating breakfast)
Dual coding	Using words and visual representations to learn and study a topic	Get learners to draw out their understanding of a concept or process, then explain it to a partner in their own words
Concrete examples	Relating abstract topics to real-world experiences of learners	Ask learners to find examples to pretend to explain a topic to a kindergartener or their grandmother

Discussion

Retrieval Practice

In short, retrieval practice facilitates memorizing information. Educators tend to focus more on higher-level thinking skills and, in doing so, fail to facilitate learners' mastery of foundational knowledge. Learners need clear understanding of a topic before they explore it more deeply. In *Make it Stick: The Science of Successful Learning*, Brown, et al (2014) explained how retrieval practice builds strong neural pathways: "[R]ecalling what you have learned causes your brain to reconsolidate the memory, which strengthens its connections to what you already know and makes it easier for you to recall in the future" (p. 20). Showing learners how to study using retrieval practice promotes curiosity that may facilitate higher-level thinking and better problem-solving. Once learners have a firm understanding of the basics, they struggle less with recall and, thus, have the mental energy to explore ideas and concepts more deeply.

Interleaving

Studying several topics at once is known as interleaving or varied practice. In contrast, learners who use a blocking technique led to less knowledge transfer, especially over time. Blocking is when learners study a single topic in its entirety over a "block" of time before shifting focus to another topic (Fröhlich & Rogers, 2022). Meta-analysis (Firth, Rivers, & Boyle, 2021) of 26 interleaving studies provided evidence for the benefits of interleaving as a study strategy for new and previously studied information. Interleaving "aids in the ability to *discriminate* related concepts and that awareness of those discriminating features contributes to a richer understanding of what is being learned" (Fröhlich & Rogers, 2022, p. 263). Despite evidence of interleaving's effectiveness as a study strategy, learners often dislike and avoid this study technique because it takes longer to implement, and learning happens more slowly. Such resistance could be one reason most interleaving research occurs in laboratories instead of classroom environments (Firth et al., 2021).

Spaced Practice

When learners study material repeatedly over time, they use the technique known as spaced practice. Spaced practice leads to long-lasting effects on long-term memory through a process known as consolidation. Brown et al. (2014) explained repetitive information retrieval, with intermittent breaks to allow time for consolidation to occur, strengthens "memory traces (the brain's representations of … new learning)" (p. 49). Fröhlich and Rogers (2022) further detailed that learners will continue to process and consolidate learning gains even when they are not actively paying attention or thinking about what they have just learned!

Elaboration

Kirschner and Hendrick (2020) attributed Charles Reigeluth (1979) as the developer of elaboration theory, whereby learning a new concept occurs by comparing it with a known concept using an analogy or some other type of connection between the two. Fröhlich and Rogers (2022) specified elaboration works only when the new concept is "connected to pre-existing knowledge" (p. 267) because elaboration has learners connect new knowledge to old; when old knowledge is retrieved, the new knowledge "sticks." Elaboration as a learning strategy should work well with adult learners, especially if instructors can get learners to relate novel topics to their lived experiences and, by extension, their prior knowledge.

Dual Coding

Dual coding refers to the technique in which learning occurs through both verbal and visual representations. While this strategy may seem like another way of saying "learning styles," the difference is dual coding requires learners to study and learn content for both representations (Sumeracki, 2019). Clark and Paivio's (1991) dual coding theory "consists of hypothetical networks of verbal and nonverbal representations and descriptions of the mediating patterns of activation (i.e., states of the network) that intervene between stimulus and response events" (p. 157). In other words, learners can connect and form associations between verbal and visual systems to learn more deeply (Kirschner & Hendrick, 2020).

Concrete Examples

In the strategy known as *concrete examples,* learners are instructed to relate applied uses or real-world examples to new course material. This study technique works particularly well with learning abstract concepts. "Learning is stronger when it matters, when the abstract is made concrete and personal" (Brown et al., 2014, p. 11). Adult student populations should expect their instructors to relate classroom content to their lived experiences, which is one of the first four assumptions Knowles (1980) proposed to distinguish andragogy from pedagogy.

The six presented study techniques particularly benefit adult learners because the strategies incorporate many foundational qualities attributed to andragogy, such as including reflections and real-world experiences in course content and having students take ownership of their learning. One way in which adult educators help their students own their learning is by explaining how learning happens. Providing information and instruction on metacognitive and research-backed techniques, like interleaving, will help learners build effective study habits beyond any single classroom.

Educators should also design learning experiences with research-backed study strategies built into them. For example, spaced practice is implemented by repeating material presented differently across several lessons. Including both verbal and visual content representations could benefit student learning by modeling the dual coding learning technique. Additionally, repeated retrieval practice will help learners form strong connections in their foundational knowledge. Learners can access prior knowledge more quickly and effectively when they form indelible mental connections. Easier recall allows learners to have confidence in their understanding (Cogliano et al., 2019, p. 127), which should result in the learners feeling less stress and having more time to explore topics in depth. Lower anxiety levels can promote curiosity for learning, which, in turn, can result in higher levels of engagement that may lead to an endless cycle of discovery and learning. Adult educators need to abandon neuromyths and teach more than disciplinary content knowledge. Learner empowerment can occur when instructors teach how to study and learn, explain how study strategies lead to learning gains, and model how to sustain curiosity for learning.

References

Brown, P., Roediger, H., & McDaniel, M. (2014). *Make it stick: The science of successful learning*. Belknap Press.

Clark, J. M., & Paivio, A. (1991). Dual coding theory and education. *Educational Psychology Review, 3*(3), 149–210. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01320076

Cogliano, M., Kardash, C., & Bernacki, M. (2019). The effects of retrieval practice and prior topic knowledge on test performance and confidence judgments. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 56*, 117–129. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2018.12.001

Craik, F. I. M. & Lockhart, R. S. (1972). Levels of processing: A framework for memory research. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, 11*(6), 671-684.

Eyler, J. R. (2018). *How humans learn: The science and stories behind effective college teaching.* West Virginia University Press.

Firth, J., Rivers, I., & Boyle, J. (2021). A systematic review of interleaving as a concept learning strategy. *Review of Education, 9*(2), 642–684. https://doi.org/10.1002/rev3.3266

Fröhlich, A., & Rogers, E. B. (2022). Four keys to unlocking equitable learning: Retrieval, spacing, interleaving, and elaborative encoding. In Parson, L., & Ozaki, C.C. (Eds.), *Teaching and learning for social justice and equity in higher education.* Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-88608-0_10

Fusco, J., Roschelle, J., & Ruiz, P. (2020). What is learning sciences and why does it matter? *Digital Promise Blog.* https://digitalpromise.org/2020/03/10/what-is-learning-sciences-and-why-does-it-matter/

Immordino-Yang, M. H. (2016). *Emotions, learning, and the brain: Exploring the educational implications of affective neuroscience.* W. W. Norton & Company.

Kirschner, P., & Hendrick, C. (2020). *How learning happens: Seminal works in educational psychology and what they mean in practice.* Routledge.

Knowles, M. S. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy.* (2nd ed.). Jossey-Bass.

McLeod, S. A. (2007, December 14). *Levels of processing.* Simply Psychology. https://www.simplypsychology.org/levelsofprocessing.html

Miller, M. (2022). *Remembering and forgetting in the age of technology: Teaching, learning and the science of memory in a wired world*. West Virginia University Press.

Pekrun, R. (2014). Emotions and learning. UNESCO International Bureau of Education. https://unesdoc.unesco.org/ark:/48223/pf0000227679

Richardson, J. (2007). Measures of short-term memory: A historical review. *Cortex, 43*(5), 635–650.

Roedinger, H., & Yamashiro, J. (2019). Memory. In R. J. Sternberg & W. E. Pickren (Eds.) *The Cambridge handbook of the intellectual history of psychology* (pp. 165-215). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108290876.008

Sumeracki, M. (2019). Six strategies for effective learning: A summary for teachers. *The Learning Scientists*. https://www.learningscientists.org/blog/2019/11/28-1

Torrijos-Muelas, M., González-Víllora, S., & Bodoque-Osma, A.R. (2021). The persistence of neuromyths in the educational settings: A systematic review. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *11*, 1-10. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.591923

Valcke, M., Sang, G., Rots, I., & Hermans, R. (2010). Taking prospective teachers' beliefs into account in teacher education. In P. Peterson, E. Baker & B. McGaw, (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of education* (pp. 622–628). Elsevier.

Academic Journal Success and the Anonymous Peer Review Process

Carol Rogers-Shaw[1], Lilian H. Hill[2] and Davin Carr-Chellman[3]
University of Dayton, USA[1, 3]
University of Southern Mississippi[2]

Abstract: Scholarly journals shape adult education research, disseminate knowledge, and serve readers worldwide. Journals' success depends on peer reviewers, yet editors face challenges securing reviewers. We discuss the galvanizing role of journals and issues contributing to reviewer reluctance. We explore strategies to encourage participation in the adult education community.

Keywords: peer review, adult education journals

Today, academic journals worldwide face significant problems as they experience reviewer reluctance and inability to obtain sufficient participation in the peer review process (Flaherty, 2022; Goodman, 2022). Academic journals' current needs, coupled with necessity of an effective peer review process, reflect a challenge to supporting dissemination of vital research in the adult education field. Journals' existence and continuing success depend on contributions of peer reviewers, most of whom are faculty members encountering new burdens on their time and intellectual bandwidth. It is essential that universities support faculty who are pursuing future opportunities by becoming effective peer reviewers.

Peer Review Challenges Facing Today's Academic Journals

As co-editors of *Adult Learning*, we have noticed we are working hard to recruit qualified individuals to review manuscripts; conversations with editors of other journals reveal they are experiencing similar difficulties. Publishers and editorial boards should address several issues underlying the diminishing pool of peer reviewers to maintain academic journals' effectiveness in sharing knowledge generated within the field (Flaherty, 2022; Goodman, 2022). Issues include reviewer reluctance due to additional career burdens, changing expectations within universities and the broader community, aging faculty, effects of the pandemic, increasing pressure to meet new and varied job demands, and departure of many scholars from the academy. The result is article review and, ultimately, publication may be delayed. Therefore, dissemination of knowledge creation is impeded (Flaherty, 2022).

The Burnout Factor & Aging Faculty

Higher education faculty frequently serve as volunteer peer reviewers (Goodman, 2022). Faculty are less likely to participate in peer review as they experience increased workload and burnout (Gewin, 2021; Jaremka et al., 2020). Academics experience burnout (Jaremka et al.) when they face challenges such as increased stress and manifest physical and emotional symptoms, including "energy depletion or exhaustion; increased mental distance from and feelings of negativity or cynicism towards one's job; and a reduced ability to do one's job … burnout is caused by work that demands continuous, long-term physical, cognitive or emotional effort" (Gewin, p. 489). A scholar suffering from burnout is unlikely to volunteer to review journal articles when the additional cognitive effort becomes too difficult.

Academic institutions' trend toward hiring more teaching-track and adjunct faculty (Ashcraft et al., 2021; El Haddad et al., 2022; Stein, 2022; Stone & Austin, 2021) limits the number of scholars available for peer review. Changes in workloads afford less time for non-teaching activities. Because institutions expect them to allot a significant portion of their time to conducting and publishing research, tenure-track professors have lighter course loads than teaching professors and adjuncts. Teaching and clinical professors have a higher teaching load with less time available for peer review. Adjuncts' position is precarious; their attempts to cobble together enough part-time work to produce full-time income leave even less time for peer review (Stein). The increase in teaching track and adjunct positions leads to more instructors with little time to devote to other scholarly activities, such as journal peer review, after completing course preparation, teaching, and grading student assessments.

Aging tenure-track and tenured faculty may detract from success of the peer review process (El Haddad et al., 2022; Paganelli & Cangemi, 2019). Long-term tenure-track professors across the nation are aging (McChesney & Bichsel, 2020), as are those who join the academy later in life. Many adult educators discover the field as a second career (Schwartz, 2018). Older tenured faculty may begin facing health problems. Some older instructors "working further into their careers have stalled the potential of new faculty, which includes women and minorities" (Paganelli & Cangemi, p. 151) who would be valuable new participants in peer review. As they plan for retirement, aging faculty may have less interest in maintaining expertise in new theories, pedagogies, technology, and teaching practices; thus, they are less effective reviewers (Paganelli & Cangemi). Workload increases and job pressures can cause stress and dissatisfaction among aging faculty members. They may leave academia to pursue retirement and outside opportunities, taking with them expertise that would be valuable in peer review. Recently — and projected into the future — up to two-thirds of the academic workforce may leave "due to retirement, career burnout, or job dissatisfaction" (Heffernan & Heffernan, 2018, p. 1). Such significant departure will result in a massive loss of intellectual contributions.

Changing Expectations & Increased Pressure

Institutions ask present-day faculty to do much more today than in the past. Expectations include more committee and administrative work, participation in student recruitment and support activities, and writing grants to bring in revenue. In the past, when they could accomplish peer reviews during work hours, professors valued their access to new articles and considered their review work a contribution to the field (Goodman, 2022).

Additional stress for scholars evolved not only from increasing university workloads that limited time for peer review but also the increased number of academic journals in the wake of an evaluation concentration on publishing and lack of reliable reviewers led to more and more invitations to review (Goodman, 2022). This kind of pressure means faculty have less time to support and mentor their students, write recommendation letters, engage students in research and publication, and respond kindly to common student crises. As a consequence of neoliberal policies' influencing higher education (Torrance, 2017), academics have substantially less time for requests from outside their institutions, such as journal invitations to review. "[T]he pillars that once sustained the liberal universities (critical thought, reflection and service to the

community) are now being threatened by the interests of market forces, competitiveness and a performative society" (Mula-Falcón et al., 2021, p. 130).

Changing expectations in academia (El Haddad et al., 2022) that bring higher stress levels include the "move to emphasise metricised research outputs …. [and] increasingly precarious employment conditions in many universities as sessional or casualised employment is growing" (Heffernan & Heffernan, 2018, p. 1). Faculty who are particularly likely to look for employment opportunities outside their institutions lack professional development opportunities, mentoring, adequate time and compensation to manage the workload, and funding for research and conference attendance (Heffernan & Heffernan).

Despite increased demands on faculty, a reduction in requirements for publication productivity for faculty appears non-existent. The recent change in focus of performance evaluations for instructors "that measure the quality of their professional output through quantification and promotion . . . linked to production" (Mula-Falcón et al., 2021, 121) is damaging to the peer review process. The commodification of education is a multi-faceted phenomenon that drastically changes faculty expectations.

Public pressure aims to increase teaching loads and reduce the number of course releases for research and other activities. Institutions ask many faculty to teach courses for which they feel unqualified, thus requiring time-consuming preparation. At the same time, requirements for assessing and documenting faculty accomplishments have become more rigid and laborious. Universities are shifting away from "an autonomous, reflexive, free and universalist institution at the service of society, whose purpose is to create scientific knowledge and nurture critical citizens and competent professionals" (Mula-Falcón et al., 2021, p. 130). Research has become a singular overarching criterion for job security and promotion; nonetheless, pressure to produce greater numbers of high-impact publications leads to narrowing contributions scholars can make to the field. "[T]he fact that research is a priority among all the duties of academics has relegated other professional activities (management or teaching) [and peer review] to positions of secondary importance" (Mula-Falcón et al., pp. 118-119). Additional pressure to prioritize output is one example of changing expectations in higher education as calls for standardized quality measurements persist (Mula-Falcón et al.).

Effects of the COVID-19 Pandemic

With rapid pivots in instructional formats, the COVID-19 pandemic increased family responsibilities and isolation due to technologically mediated communication (Gabster, 2020; Gewin, 2021; Squazzoni, 2021) and diminished faculty members' pre-pandemic connection to peer reviewer rewards. COVID-19 meant university professors, including adult educators, had to move back and forth between online instruction and face-to-face teaching. Meanwhile, instructors received contradictory messages about hybrid, online, or face-to-face formats for instruction. The uncertainty and requirements for fast and repeated turnarounds caused fatigue; for some, it was debilitating and left many "seriously considering changing their career or retiring early" (Gewin, p. 489). Higher education saw a rise in the number of faculty members who felt stressed, unsure about job security, exhausted, and angry as their workload due to shifting to online instruction increased, and faculty support decreased (Gewin). The pandemic exacerbated academic inequalities, especially in terms of increased burnout, anxiety, and

depression among minoritized individuals (Gewin). Journals often have difficulty finding peer reviewers with expertise in topics related to marginalized groups' experiences.

Teaching from home changed faculty members' family dynamics. Often, mothers shouldered the larger share of the burden in childcare (Petts et al., 2021). Some faculty parents also taught school-age children to supplement online education their children faced (Gewin, 2021). While it became clear that "during the early months of the COVID-19 pandemic, there was an unusually high submission rate of scholarly articles, the majority of submissions were from men. Given that most academics were forced to work from home, the competing demands for familial duties may have penalized the scientific productivity of women" (Squazzoni, 2021, p. 1). Women and people of color published less due to pandemic responsibilities (Gabster et al., 2020; Goodman, 2022), "leading to loss of women's scientific expertise from the public realm" (Gabster et al., p. 1968) and diminished their contributions to journals as both authors and reviewers. Research showed the gender differences related to journal publication and review; ironically, while women "submitted proportionally fewer manuscripts than men…., the rate of the peer-review invitation acceptance showed a less pronounced gender pattern with women taking on a greater service responsibility for journals… [revealing] that the first wave of the pandemic has created potentially cumulative advantages for men" (Squazzoni, p. 1). In other words, the more things change, the more they stay the same for women.

Conclusion

Academic salaries are flat, and inequities based on gender and ethnicity persist. Alleviating salary compression is difficult due to budget problems. Talented people are securing other employment, especially where hours are shorter, and compensation is higher. Unsupportive working conditions mean those eligible to retire may choose to do so sooner than in the past, thus increasing the workload for those remaining and reducing institutional knowledge. Editors reference "Another line in your CV. A positive reputation among your peers. Good rapport with influential editors. A place in the broader academic community" (Goodman, 2022, para. 32) as the essential benefits of engaging in peer review. Nevertheless, benefits could be enhanced if universities supported the peer review process: for example, by making peer review participation part of job descriptions for faculty, then recognizing this work as an element in tenure and promotion (Goodman).

The factors discussed here result in a terrible prediction—a squeeze on peer-reviewed publications that rely on the free labor of tenure-track or tenured faculty members. The reduction will happen gradually as faculty members retire and focus on other interests. Journal editors and professional association publication committees should be cognizant of these trends and take action to mitigate future problems. We suggest editors make a concerted effort to (1) cultivate and educate reviewers who are not university faculty, (2) provide detailed guidance for reviewers, (3) offer incentives such as free journal content and recognition, (4) inform reviewers about the fate of manuscript reviewed, (5) acknowledge reviewers in the article publication, and (6) provide public recognition of reviewers (Goodman, 2022).

References

Ashcraft, A., Andersen, J. S., Rogge, M. M., Song, H., & Opton, L. (2021). Academic tenure: Perceptual variations among tenured, tenure-seeking and non-tenure faculty. *Journal of Professional Nursing*, *37*(3), 578–587. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.profnurs.2021.03.002

El Haddad, C., Sofian, S. M., Andujo, E., Davies, D., Ferguson, L., Lee, C., Maddox, A., Manos, M., McCarthy, T. J., Nash, P., Patel, P., Patel, T., Warford, E., & Clark, G. (2022). *The Joint Provost/Academic Senate Committee on teaching and learning: Final report and recommendations*. University of Southern California.

Flaherty, C. (2022, June 13). The peer-review crisis. *Inside Higher Education*. https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2022/06/13/peer-review-crisis-creates-problems-journals-and-scholars

Gabster, B. P., van Daalen, K., Dhatt, R., & Barry, M. (2020). Challenges for the female academic during the COVID-19 pandemic. *The Lancet*, *395*(10242), 1968–1970. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)31412-4

Gewin, V. (2021). Pandemic burnout is rampant in academia. *Nature*, *591*(7850), 489–492. http://dx.doi.org/10.1038/d41586-021-00663-2

Goodman, S. (2022, December 1). Is it time to pay peer reviewers? *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. https://www.chronicle.com/article/is-it-time-to-pay-peer-reviewers

Heffernan, T. A., & Heffernan, A. (2018). The academic exodus: The role of institutional support in academics leaving universities and the academy. *Professional Development in Education*, *45*(1), 102–113. https://doi.org/10.1080/19415257.2018.1474491

Jaremka, L. M., Ackerman, J. M., Gawronski, B., Rule, N. O., Sweeny, K., Tropp, L. R., Metz, M. A., Molina, L., Ryan, W. S. & Vick, S. B. (2020). Common academic experiences no one talks about: Repeated rejection, impostor syndrome, and burnout. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *15*(3), 519–543. https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691619898848

McChesney, J., & Bichsel, J. (2020). *The aging of tenure-track faculty in higher education: Implications for succession and diversity*. College and University Professional Association for Human Resources.

Mula, J., Caballero, K., & Segovia, J. D. (2021). Exploring academics' identities in today's universities: A systematic review. *Quality Assurance in Education, 30*(1), 118–134. https://doi.org/10.1108/QAE-09-2021-0152

Petts, R. J., Carlson, D. L., & Pepin, J. R. (2021). A gendered pandemic: Childcare, homeschooling, and parents' employment during COVID-19. *Gender, Work & Organization*, *28*, 515–534. https://doi.org/10.1111/gwao.12614

Paganelli, A., & Cangemi, J. E. D. (2019). Effects of aging faculty. *Education*, *139*(3), 151–157. https://www.ingentaconnect.com/content/prin/ed/2019/00000139/00000003/art00006#expand/collapse

Schwartz, E. (2020). How the knowledge I gained in my first career enriches my teaching at a community college. *Journal of Political Science Education, 16*(1), 120-122. https://doi.org/10.1080/15512169.2019.1639516

Squazzoni, F., Bravo, G., Grimaldo, F., García-Costa, D., Farjam, M., & Mehmani, B. (2021). Gender gap in journal submissions and peer review during the first wave of the COVID-19 pandemic. A study on 2329 Elsevier journals. *PLOS ONE*, *16*(10), e0257919. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0257919

Stein, M. (2022, April 25). The end of faculty tenure. *Inside Higher Education*. https://www.insidehighered.com/views/2022/04/25/declining-tenure-density-alarming-opinion

Stone, E. M., & Austin, S. E. (2021). Contingent faculty in the gig economy. In J. Edwards, M. McGuire & R. Sanchez (Eds.), *Speaking up, speaking out: Lived experiences of non-tenure-track faculty in writing studies* (pp. 42–58). University Press of Colorado.

Torrance, H. (2017). Blaming the victim: Assessment, examinations, and the responsibilization of students and teachers in neoliberal governance. *Discourse: Studies in the Cultural Politics of Education, 83*(1), 38–96. https://doi.org/10.1080/01596306.2015.1104854

Overcoming Imposter Syndrome by Creating Intentionally Inclusive Cultures in Online Doctoral Classrooms

Carol Rogers-Shaw, Corinne Brion, Kara Czepiel, Colissa Jordan & Megan Burden-Cousins
University of Dayton (USA)

Abstract: Establishing an online class community that promotes belonging through open, honest communication and collaboration can alleviate doctoral student Imposter Syndrome.

Keywords: imposter syndrome, online doctoral study, community, class culture

Creating intentionally inclusive cultures in online doctoral classrooms requires accepting, fostering, and promoting cultural differences that reduce othering, alleviate learners' anxiety, and diminish Imposter Syndrome (IS). Online educators play a key role in boosting students' morale by establishing socially just spaces that lessen marginalization of students who question if they belong (Askew et al., 2012; Colbert, 2010). As adult students begin their online doctoral study, a culture clash can develop due to some students' moving from professional life back to school and becoming part of diverse online programs. Online doctoral program directors, department chairs, instructors, and students all have a role in building class and program communities that recognize and value individual cultural identities, address mental health difficulties, respond to the social justice aims of adult education, and substitute IS with strength-based self-images that can increase academic success.

This conceptual paper aims to suggest ways to mitigate the effects of IS on doctoral students pursuing an online degree. Developing program and class cultures that use effective collaboration and communication can foster inclusion and generate belonging (Palvia et al., 2018; Trespalacios & Perkins, 2016; Trespalacios et al., 2021). This approach is timely, innovative, and essential as the internet has transformed the educational landscape (Bozkurt et al., 2015; Fraenza, 2016). The growth of online academic programs (Palvia et al.) attests to the "paradigm shift in attitudes toward online education. Online learning is no longer peripheral or supplementary, yet an integral part of mainstream society" (Bozkurt et al., p. 331). Existing empirical studies demonstrate graduate students are highly susceptible to impostor feelings (Parkman, 2016); however, fewer have sought to understand IS among online doctoral students (Garcia & Yao, 2019). In one study, researchers show that IS is associated with anxiety, characterized by perfectionism and fear of failure that lead to over-preparation. This same study found that individuals in physical classrooms experienced heightened levels of social influence and pressure, whereas those in online classrooms did not (Fraenza, 2016).

Imposter Syndrome Experiences of Online Doctoral Students

People experiencing IS attribute their success to luck or the mistakes of others and fear being perceived as less intelligent or competent than others believe them to be (Clance & Imes, 1978; Clance & O'Toole, 1988). Even when these individuals are successful, their fear of never being good enough and feeling like a fraud pushes them to set extremely high standards for themselves,

resulting in high-level stress, anxiety, or other psychological disorders (Fraenza, 2016). Institutions of higher education are often high-stakes and competitive environments because a person's success often is assessed by the quantity and quality of their research (Cutri et al., 2021). Many doctoral students do not graduate, and symptoms of IS contribute to those low graduation rates (Baum & Steele, 2017; Cassuto, 2013). The consequences of IS can be educational, physical, emotional, familial, and psychological. Students may experience illness and debilitating emotional trauma; those affected by IS may lack confidence or energy and suffer from insomnia and migraines (Steinberg, 1987).

Students in online doctoral programs can feel like outsiders due to professional, academic, and ethnic othering based on differences in work and family responsibilities, learning engagement, and ethnicity. Instructors can help build more inclusive communities (Askew et al., 2012; Colbert, 2010) by facilitating interaction across these differences and limiting a focus on particular group norms (Phirangee & Malec, 2017). Students arrive in class with established ideas of how to learn based on their professional, academic, and ethnic backgrounds. For example, "the cultural background of students influences both how they prioritize the benefits they have gained from their online study, and how they view the challenges it posed" (Hewling, 2005, p. 338). Those in the minority due to these backgrounds may "silence themselves or take actions to make their differences invisible" (Dennen & Bong, 2018, p. 390), increasing the feeling of IS.

Understanding how culture affects building inclusive online communities in doctoral courses is critical to addressing IS (Askew et al., 2012; Colbert, 2010). The significance of diverse professional experiences and family responsibilities adult learners bring to their doctoral study must be considered when building inclusive class communities that counteract cultural othering and address the presence of IS. In online education, class culture plays a significant role. IS occurs when individuals cannot believe in their success or acknowledge they legitimately earned their achievements due to their knowledge, efforts, or skills. Enhancing the class community can offer learning opportunities to limit fear and help students succeed. When they feel a part of the community, students are more likely to believe they can achieve academically (Berry, 2017, 2019; Rovai, 2001; Rovai & Wighting, 2005).

Imposter Syndrome Mitigation Practices

Online programs enable instructors and learners to meet and communicate synchronously and asynchronously in separate spaces. Adult learners with career and family responsibilities demanding time and attention recognize the potential of online learning to create a supportive educational environment and offer unique opportunities to enhance education and build community. However, social cues, such as body language that may influence individuals, often go unnoticed in online settings. Adult learner traits include self-direction, application of previous experience to new educational settings, and strong motivation to solve specific problems (Ross-Gordon, 2003). However, Brookfield (1995) argued, in "learning across the lifespan the variables of culture, ethnicity, personality and political ethos assume far greater significance in explaining how learning occurs and is experienced than does the variable of chronological age" (para. 2). This understanding is crucial in terms of IS since factors such as culture, ethnicity, personality, and politics affect whether an individual feels like a valuable member of the doctoral community

or believes they do not have the right kind of capital to fit in and contribute. Doctoral students studying in online courses where the instructor's role is to facilitate student-driven learning discover "through a collaborative process of sharing and balancing control between teacher and student, the appropriate balance between educational norms and personal choice [are] ensured" (Garrison, 2003, p. 165). In collaborative online learning, peers also play an important role in supporting each other. Students from different backgrounds may feel pressured to adopt hegemonic ideas as self-directed learning is inseparable from culture.

Doctoral study can provide a means for "[d]eveloping in adults a sense of their personal power and self-worth" (Brookfield, 1985, p. 47), yet those with IS struggle with this process. A significant piece of this development is the student's aptitude for critical reflection, where they think deeply about their values, perspectives, and culturally derived positionality. Even though focusing inward on one's competencies can lead to IS, Brookfield's (1995) critical reflection framework provides an IS mitigation technique as individuals examine their learning in relation to others. Students experiencing IS can feel validated when they recognize similar values, beliefs, skill levels, and practices in the situations and responses of others as well as in the literature. Self-reflection can bring a greater degree of self-awareness and an understanding of what one can control personally and what evolves from intuitional structures and culture (Gillaspy, 2020), allowing the student to focus on their path to learning and success.

When learners practice critical reflection, they consider their assumptions and gain knowledge about themselves, others, and their environments. Reflection can provide a clearer image of the way forward in an academic or professional setting. Reflective learners may take more calculated risks in facing obstacles because they may be able to place themselves more clearly in juxtaposition to others and find more similarities, which is essential to diminishing IS. Individuals may avoid critical reflection when they fear what they might find; yet, students must recognize the presence of IS and acknowledge it is a common phenomenon. If students can share their IS feelings IS with receptive peers, they may discover IS is more widespread within their community than they realized and may be able to decrease its effects through peer support. Institutional culture can contribute to the occurrence of IS (Bowman & Palmer, 2017; Zorn, 2005), so cultivating a strong, welcoming, and inclusive community can be one way to mitigate feelings of inadequacy among students. Being part of a community where others validate one's abilities allows individuals to internalize more feelings of confidence and competence (Bowman & Palmer).

McMillan and Chavis' (1986) definition of community — "a feeling that members have of belonging, a feeling that members matter to one another and to the group, and a shared faith that members' needs will be met through their commitment to be together" (p. 9) — has been widely applied in research on educational programs and classrooms **(**Berry, 2017, 2019; McElrath & McDowell, 2008; Rovai 2001, 2002; Rovai & Wighting, 2005; Trespalacios & Perkins, 2016; Trespalacios et al., 2021). These community elements are closely connected to IS because students with feelings of inadequacy often believe they do not belong or matter to peers; likewise, they doubt the group will help them become proficient and meet their needs. While a community can be defined geographically, community can also be based on relationships rather than a specific place.

Perceptions of community boundaries can be problematic for students with IS. Boundaries define people who belong and those who do not and are established by groups to increase feelings of safety; however, students outside those norms can feel rejected and isolated when boundaries are based on group norms. When lacking identification with others in the group, it is more difficult to become invested in the group; without this investment, students will not feel that they have earned a place in the community and will not find membership valuable (McMillan & Chavis, 1986; Vesely et al., 2007). To mitigate IS, inclusive class communities can focus on establishing strong emotional connections by spending time together, building commitment to group goals, and creating a shared history through similar experiences within the same space. Communities maintain cohesiveness through frequent interaction. The more time individuals spend together, the more likely they will become close. Similarly, the more positive experiences individuals share, the greater their bonds will be (McMillan & Chavis).

The significance of communal interaction is clear for IS because students judge themselves in relation to others. Students who view themselves as outsiders in some ways have difficulty trusting other group members. Collaborative activities can increase learning and provide support, bringing more students into the group as learners recognize "the need to have more social interaction, relating it to emotional support and learning. [When meeting] only online, it can be challenging to achieve the level of trust required to make the most of the opportunities group work offers" (Jaber & Kennedy, 2017, p. 20).

Instructors can incorporate several techniques into course design to enhance community building and mitigate IS. Collaborative learning through interactive undertakings, where student endeavors support socially constructed meaning, is important. Resource sharing and expressing encouragement, not only on the part of the instructor but also among peers, strengthen group cohesion. Student bonding increases through communication activities such as introductions, discussion forums, and whole class or small group dialogue that shares personal experiences and knowledge (McElrath & McDowell, 2008; Trespalacios & Perkins, 2016). The academic community has unique characteristics. Within doctoral programs, students find distinct sub-communities such as the cohort, the class and its small groups, the friend circle, and the study group (Berry, 2017). Each of these groups has ways for program and course designers and instructors to use IS mitigation practices, such as building inclusive communities and including self-reflection in the curriculum. The result will be academic achievement and improved online doctoral students' physical, psychological, and emotional well-being.

References

Askew, K., Beverly, M. G., & Jay, M. L. (2012). Aligning collaborative and culturally responsive evaluation approaches. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 35*(4), 552–557. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2011.12.011

Baum, S., & Steele, P. (2017). Who goes to graduate school and who succeeds? *AccessLex Institute Research Paper*, (17–01). http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2898458

Berry, S. (2017). Building community in online doctoral classrooms: Instructor practices that support community. *Online Learning*, *21*(2), n2. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1149348

Berry, S. (2019). Teaching to connect: Community-building strategies for the virtual classroom. *Online Learning*, *23*(1), 164–183. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1210946

Bowman, L., & Palmer, G. A. (2017, June 8-11). Confronting the "Imposter Syndrome" in the adult learning classroom. [Paper presentation]. Adult Education Research Conference, Norman, OK, United States. https://newprairiepress.org/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=3935&context=aerc

Bozkurt, A., Akgun-Ozbek, E., Yilmazel, S., Erdogdu, E., Ucar, H., Guler, E., Sezgin, S., Karadeniz, A., Sen-Ersoy, N., Goksel-Canbek, N., Dincer, G. D., Ari, C. H., & Aydin, C. H. (2015). Trends in distance education research: A content analysis of journals 2009-2013. *International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, *16*(1), 330–363. https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v16i1.1953

Brookfield, S. (1985). A critical definition of adult education. *Adult Education Quarterly, 36*(1), 44–49. https://doi.org/10.1177/0001848185036001005?

_____. (1995). Adult learning: An overview. In A. Tuinjman (Ed.), *International encyclopedia of education*, *10* (pp. 375–380). Pergamon Press. https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/document?repid=rep1&type=pdf&doi=0e6eec8d5d7efe3f9a5d0c1d3430d33fefcfa128

Bozkurt, A., Akgun-Ozbek, E., Yilmazel, S., Erdogdu, E., Ucar, H., Guler, E., Sezgin, S., Karadeniz, A., Sen-Ersoy, N., Goksel-Canbek, N., Dincer, G. D., Ari, S., & Aydin, C. H. (2015). Trends in distance education research: A content analysis of journals 2009-2013. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, *16*(1), 330–363. https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v16i1.1953

Cassuto, L. (2013, June 1). Ph.D. attrition: How much is too much? *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. https://www.chronicle.com/article/ph-d-attrition-how-much-is-too-much/

Clance, P. R. & Imes, S.A. (1978). The imposter phenomenon in high achieving women: Dynamics and therapeutic intervention. *Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice*, *15*(3), 241–247. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0086006

Clance, P. R., & O'Toole, M. A. (1988). The imposter phenomenon: An internal barrier to empowerment and achievement. *Women & Therapy*, *6*(3), 51–64. https://www.taylorfrancis.com/chapters/edit/10.4324/9781315798653-5/imposter-phenomenon-internal-barrier-empowerment-achievement-pauline-rose-clance-maureen-ann-toole

Colbert, P. J. (2010). Developing a culturally responsive classroom collaborative of faculty, students, and institution. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, *3*(9), 17–26. https://doi.org/10.19030/cier.v3i9.231

Cutri, J., Freya, A., Karlina, Y., Patel, S. V., Moharami, M., Zeng, S. , Manzari, E., & Pretorius, L. (2021). Academic integrity at doctoral level: the influence of the imposter phenomenon and cultural differences on academic writing. *International Journal for Educational Integrity*, *17*(1), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40979-021-00074-w

Dennen, V. P., & Bong, J. (2018). Cross-cultural dialogues in an open online course: Navigating national and organizational cultural differences. *TechTrends*, *62*(4), 383–392. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11528-018-0276-7

Fraenza, C. B. (2016). The role of social influence in anxiety and the imposter phenomenon. *Online Learning*, *20*(2), 230–243. https://eric.ed.gov/?id=EJ1105971

Garcia, C. E., & Yao, C. W. (2019). The role of an online first-year seminar in higher education doctoral students' scholarly development. *The Internet and Higher Education*, *42*, 44–52. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2019.04.002

Garrison, D. R. (2003). Self-directed learning and distance education. In M. G. Moore (Ed.), *Handbook of distance education* (pp. 161–168). Routledge.

Gillaspy, E. (2020.) Developing the congruent academic through an integrated coaching approach. *International Journal for Academic Development, 25*(3), 285–289. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360144X.2019.1593175

Hewling, A. (2005). Culture in the online class: Using message analysis to look beyond nationality-based frames of reference. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, *11*(1), 337–356. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1083-6101.2006.tb00316.x

Jaber, R., & Kennedy, E. (2017). 'Not the same person anymore': Groupwork, identity and social learning online. *Distance Education*, *38*(2), 216–229. https://www.taylorfrancis.com/chapters/edit/10.4324/9780429294235-6/person-anymore-groupwork-identity-social-learning-online-rowaida-jaber-eileen-kennedy

McMillan, D. W., & Chavis, D. M. (1986). Sense of community: A definition and theory. *Journal of Community Psychology, 14*(1), 6–23. https://doi.org/10.1002/1520-6629(198601)14:1<6::AID-JCOP2290140103>3.0.CO;2-I

McElrath, E., & McDowell, K. (2008). Pedagogical strategies for building community in graduate level distance education courses. *MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching*, *4*(1), 117–127. https://jolt.merlot.org/vol4no1/mcelrath0308.pdf

Palvia, S., Aeron, P., Gupta, P., Mahapatra, D., Parida, R., Rosner, R., & Sindhi, S. (2018). Online education: Worldwide status, challenges, trends, and implications. *Journal of Global Information Technology Management, 21(*4), 233–241. https://doi.org/10.1080/1097198X.2018.1542262

Parkman, A. (2016). The imposter phenomenon in higher education: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Higher Education Theory and Practice*, *16*(1), 51–60. http://www.m.www.na-businesspress.com/JHETP/ParkmanA_Web16_1_.pdf

Phirangee, K., & Malec, A. (2017). Othering in online learning: An examination of social presence, identity, and sense of community. *Distance Education*, *38*(2), 160–172. https://www.taylorfrancis.com/chapters/edit/10.4324/9780429294235-3/othering-online-learning-examination-social-presence-identity-sense-community-krystle-phirangee-alesia-malec

Ross-Gordon, J. M. (2003). Adult learners in the classroom. *New Directions for Student Services*, *2003*(102), 43–52. http://www.robert-vroman.com/resources/Adult%20Learners%20in%20the%20Classroom.pdf

Rovai, A. P. (2001). Building classroom community at a distance: A case study. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, *49*(4), 33–48. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02504946

Rovai, A. P., & Wighting, M. J. (2005). Feelings of alienation and community among higher education students in a virtual classroom. *The Internet and Higher Education*, *8*(2), 97–110. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2005.03.001

Steinberg, J.A. (1987). Clinical interventions with women experiencing the Impostor Phenomenon. *Women & Therapy 5*(4), 19–26. https://doi.org/10.1300/J015V05N04_04

Trespalacios, J., & Perkins, R. (2016). Sense of community, perceived learning, and achievement relationships in an online graduate course. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, *17*(3), 31-49. https://doi.org/10.17718/tojde.12984

Trespalacios, J., Snelson, C., Lowenthal, P. R., Uribe-Flórez, L., & Perkins, R. (2021). Community and connectedness in online higher education: A scoping review of the literature. *Distance Education*, *42*(1), 5–21. https://doi.org/10.1080/01587919.2020.1869524

Vesely, P., Bloom, L., & Sherlock, J. (2007). Key elements of building an online community: Comparing faculty and student perceptions. *MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching*, *3*(3), 234–246. https://jolt.merlot.org/vol3no3/vesely.pdf

Zorn, D. (2005, August). Academic culture feeds the imposter phenomenon. *Academic Leader*, *21*, p. 1–8.

Leading Your Way to Success: Turning Your Leads Into Participants in Your Adult Degree Completion Program

Tina M. Root
University of Arkansas-Fort Smith

Abstract: In the United States, there is a significant need for higher education institutions to provide adult degree completion programs (ADCP) to help students complete their degrees. According to the National Student Clearing House Research Center, as of July 2021, there are 41 million students with some college, no credentials (SCNC), in the United States (Causey, et al., 2022). The purpose of this article is to discuss a Northwest Arkansas regional university's adult degree completion program, which successfully guides students from initial lead generation to facilitating students' progression to graduation. The following research provides a guide to best practices, including program development, program requirements, lead generation, marketing, nontraditional credit, onboarding, retention, and program success, for higher education institutions.

Keywords: adult degree completion programs, student retention, credit for prior learning (CPL), prior learning assessment (PLA), and non-traditional students.

As of July 2021, there are 41 million students in the United States who have completed some college but left postsecondary educational institutions without earning a credential such as a college degree. These students are known as having some college, no credential (SCNC) (Causey, et al., 2022). In the State of Arkansas, only 23% of Arkansans have achieved a bachelor's degree or higher, as compared to 37.9% of Americans (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020). In Sebastian County, Arkansas, where this adult degree completion program originated, only 19.69% have achieved a bachelor's degree or higher (Sebastian County Arkansas Population, 2020).

The characteristics of college students have changed dramatically over the last several years. Lumina Foundation (2019) reported that 64% of college students work, and of those students, 40% are working full-time (2019). In addition, 37% of college students are 25 years or older, and 46% of those students are attending college for the first time (Lumina Foundation, 2019). Adult Learners have been defined as those over 24, with responsibilities such as work and family (U.S. Department of Education, 2018). According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2021), adults 25 years and older who have a bachelor's degree earn $1,334 in median weekly earnings as compared to $809 in median weekly earnings for those with only a high school diploma. Unemployment rates are also higher for those with only a high school diploma (6.2%) as compared to adults with a bachelor's degree (3.5%) (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021).
In response to the rapidly increasing number of students with an SCNC status, the university in Northwest Arkansas started the adult degree completion program (ADCP). The university is a regional comprehensive with an enrollment of just under 6,300 (University of Arkansas-Fort Smith, 2023). In 2019, the university created an adult degree completion program for adult students ages 25 or older, who have previously completed 30 college credit hours, and who have five years of work experience.

Best Practices

This research discusses the development of a successful adult degree completion program at a Northwest Arkansas University. Best practices for this program include topics such as program development, program requirements, lead generation, marketing, non-traditional credit, onboarding, retention, and program success.

Program Development

The program was developed in the fall of 2019 to fill the need for degree completion for adult learners in the nation. Students apply for a Bachelor of General Studies degree or a Bachelor of Science, in Organizational Leadership degree. The initial program started with an in-person inaugural portfolio course to learn about credit for prior learning. Subsequently, the portfolio course is now online, allowing students to complete the Bachelor of Science in Organization Leadership degree, fully online.

The organizational leadership classes are held in an eight-week format and are taught by professors who are versed in the principles of andragogy. Students typically register for 12 credits per 16-week semester and six credits in the summer term. In addition, these students write a portfolio to be assessed, earning on average 3-15 credits toward their selected degree.

Program Requirements

Program requirements include participants who must be over the age of 25, have 30 college credits, five years of work experience, and documented learning to complete a portfolio.

Lead Generation

Ideas for lead generation include event planning and attendance of Chamber events, the purchase of marketing documents and creatives, referrals, and collaboration with area community colleges. The adult degree completion program partners with the university's communications department to purchase marketing such as billboards, data analytics, and social media advertisements. In addition, each semester, the adult degree completion program requests Family Educational Rights and Privacy Act (FERPA) allowable directory information (U. S. Department of Education, 2021) listing graduates from two-year colleges in the area. This information provides the name, date of graduation, and degree conferred. Some institutions provide the student's email address.

Prospects from the lead generation conducted by the adult degree completion program, are invited to an open house. Open houses are held at least once per term and are available both virtually and on campus. The open house events are advertised on the University's website, social media, and through the Chamber of Commerce.

The Chamber of Commerce offers additional ways for meeting potential students for the ADCP. The Chamber has a Leadership Program that team members can join and become very involved in the community. The Chamber provides opportunities for ambassadorships, and the ability to attend ribbon cuttings for new businesses, and hosts expos. Many new students are obtained through marketing and Chamber events.

New students for the adult degree completion program are also referred to the university by the businesses in the Chamber, Alumni, and current students. Many of the university students provide our email and webpage to friends, family, and co-workers. The university strives to set up a virtual or in-person meeting within 24 hours of a request for information regarding the program.

Marketing

Marketing tools include the use of pull-up banners, handouts with information about the program, and register to win gift baskets. The gift baskets are used at open houses and educational expos. In addition, the program staff purchases giveaways such as bookmarks, pens, and notepads to hand out. The adult degree completion program logo is affixed to each item. Photographs of the adult degree completion students are featured on the marketing tools, such as a pull-up banner with student graphics, which has a permanent location at the local community college.

Non-Traditional Credit and Transfer Credit

The adult degree completion program helps students earn credits through several non-traditional methods. Credit for prior learning (CPL), also known as prior learning assessment (PLA), includes the following assessments; DANTES Subject Standardized Tests (DSST), exams administered by Prometric, College Level Examination Program (CLEP) administered by College Board, and Advanced Placement Credits, (AP) a process where high-school students are taught college-level content and can take an exam to earn college credit (CAEL, 2017; Soria, 2023; Warne, 2017).

Furthermore, the program will review joint transcripts, which is a collaborative program that translates military schooling and work history into the civilian sector of education, and the assessment of prior learning through the portfolio process (Ryu, 2013). Participants in the adult degree completion program have life or work-learning experiences that they can use to fulfill course objectives through a portfolio process of credit for CPL and PLA (CAEL, 2017). This process is initiated by the student taking a three-credit course on how to document their prior learning through a written narration and exhibits (e.g., formal work samples) based on a specific syllabus. The portfolio is assessed by a five-person committee and if approved, course credit is granted for the portfolio.

In addition to non-traditional credit hours, the university reviews transcripts for transfer credits, approved course substitutions, and military credits transferred from the regionally accredited Community College of the Air Force. There are a maximum of 30 non-traditional credit hours that may be applied at the university.

Onboarding

Student leads come to the adult degree completion program through email, the universities website, open house documents, phone, and referrals from the admissions team. The initial appointment (most often virtual) with potential students is immediate or set for within 24 hours if possible. During this appointment, the Advising Coordinator discusses the adult degree completion program, the admissions process, and program registration.

The initial appointment is followed up by the advising coordinator with an email. The advisor provides links to the University's application, financial aid, scholarships, and registrar's office, for transcript review. In addition, the applicant is provided with the contact information for their financial aid advisor. Once admitted to the university, degree plans are reviewed along with advising, and course registration.

Retention

There are several retention techniques used by the university to ensure the matriculation of students. These techniques include providing one program advisor from lead to graduation, assigning a dedicated financial aid advisor to each student, and hiring faculty that are well-versed in andragogy practices.

Classes are held online and in an eight-week format. This allows adult degree completion program students to have the flexibility to complete coursework on their schedule; thus removing barriers for returning students to complete their degrees.

Program Success

The success of the adult degree completion program continues to provide opportunities for students to complete their credentials as working adults. Since the fall of 2019, the university has had 61 students fulfill the requirements of the ADCP and obtain a Bachelor's Degree in General Studies, a Bachelor of Science Degree in Organizational Leadership, or an Associate's Degree in General Studies along the way. The program continues to admit new students and has over 100 advisees. Over 60 portfolios have been assessed for credit, saving students both time and money and providing a positive return on investment for the university. This program provides a path for students to close the gap between adult learners having some credit, and no credentials and completing their credentials using credit for prior learning.

References

Arkansas Education Data. (2020). *Towncharts*. https://www.towncharts.com/Arkansas/Arkansasstate-Education-data.html

CAEL (2017) *Credit & Placement*. https://apstudent.collegeboard.org/creditandplacement

CAEL. (n.d.). *Why credit for Prior Learning (CPL) or Prior Learning Assessment (PLA) matters*. https://www.cael.org/lp/cpl-pla

Causey, J., Gardner, A., Pevitz, A., Ryu, M., & Shapiro, D. (2023). Some College, No Credential Student Outcomes: Annual Progress Report--Academic Year 2021/22. Fourth in the Series" Some College, No Credential". *National Student Clearinghouse*.

Lumina Foundation (2019). *Facts about Today's Students*. https://www.luminafoundation.org/resources/todays-student

Lumina Foundation. (n.d.) *Today's Students*. https://www.luminafoundation.org/campaign/todays-student/

National Center for Educational Statistics (2019). *Nontraditional Undergraduates / Definitions and Data*. https://nces.ed.gov/pubs/web/97578e.asp

Ryu, M. (2013). Credit for prior learning. *Washington, DC: ACE Center for Policy*.

Sebastian County Arkansas Population. (2020). Sebastian County, Arkansas population 2020. *World Population Review*. https://worldpopulationreview.com/us-counties/ar/sebastiancounty-population

Soria, G. (2023). *What's the difference between CLEP and DSST Credit?* https://study.com/academy/popular/whats-the-difference-between-clep-and-dsst-credit.html

University of Arkansas-Fort Smith. (2023). *Census data*. https://uafs.edu/about/institutional-effectiveness/_documents/enrollment-profile.pdf

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2022). Education pays 2021. Career outlook, US Bureau of Labor Statistics. *Bureau of Labor Statistics*. https://www.bls.gov/careeroutlook/2022/data-on-display/education-pays.htm

U.S. Census Bureau. (2022). *Census Bureau Releases New Educational Attainment Data.* https://www.census.gov/newsroom/press-releases/2022/educational-attainment.html

U.S. Department of Education. (2021). *Family educational rights and privacy act (FERPA).* https://www2.ed.gov/policy/gen/guid/fpco/ferpa/index.html

U.S. Department of Education. (2018). Nontraditional Undergraduates / Definitions and Data. *National Center for Educational Statistics.* https://nces.ed.gov/pubs/web/97578e.asp

Warne, R. T. (2017). Research on the academic benefits of the Advanced Placement program: Taking stock and looking forward. *SAGE*, *7*(1), 2158244016682996.

Impact of International Office's Role in Teaching English in an ESL/EFL Context

Martina Schiavo
Ball State University

Abstract: The purpose of this study was evaluating international office services at the university level considering potential improvement for English proficiency and assimilation in the American community for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL) students. Programs provided by these offices target different cultural experiences in an American university, such as involvement in the community, engagement with peers, and exposure to campus life. Students shared their viewpoints on activities' crucial effects for language proficiency and integration into the American community. The methodology consisted of online surveys given to 12 graduate international students selected through purposive sampling. The surveys were analyzed through thematic coding. The findings demonstrate relevance of including programs organized by the international office as part of the English language program curriculum to promote academic and social growth outside the classroom.

Keywords: international students, cultural adjustment, us institution, language proficiency, international office

This paper explores the roles of different educators surrounding international students such as the international office and the faculty who understand their experiences as well as students' viewpoints. International students provide their perspectives to in-person and online cultural events organized by the international office. Research expands from Second Language Acquisition theories (Brown, 2000) to Sociocultural Theories (Donado, 2000; Kozulin, 2003). Second language learning needs opportunities for students to actively get involved with campus and community to practice the foreign language beyond their English based classes in the English language program part of the university. Therefore, students transition smoothly into the academic classes as both intercultural and social dimensions strengthen. Study abroad theories explore how international students navigate different phases as they adjust (Gaines, 2015), and they affect positive cultural adjustment on mental, psychological, and social well-being (Gaines, 2014). Given all these reasons, the collaboration between the international office and the English language program needs to be strengthened. A weak collaboration does not promote students' linguistic interaction in cultural events.

Beyond classroom interaction, students need to interact not only with international peers but also American peers. As the limited exposure to American peers and social environment persists, a partnership between the international office and English language program can assist with expanding the social context. Faculty from the English language program can include participation in cultural events as part of their learning objectives and assessments. This paper delves into the following categories drawn by peer-reviewed literature: international students' integration and culture shock, students' personal engagement, the role of language proficiency, international office as social and mental support, and faculty as academic support. Researchers

suggest a call for more English practice in social networks outside the classroom (Johnson et al., 2018; Marijuan & Sanz, 2018). Other educators emphasize exposure to authentic language, students' involvement, syllabus' internationalization, and prominence of listening and speaking skills (Carter, 2013; Glass et al., 2018; Halic et al., 2009; McFaul, 2016; Sheppard et al., 2015). The international office is the primary reference in students' assistance in the adjustment process (Briggs et al., 2017). The office also develops "buddy connections" programs between American and international students (Nilsson, 2019). Faculty should also guide international students to the American teaching style (Wilson-Forsberg, 2018). Given this precedent, the current project assists in investigating students' viewpoints toward the partnership between the international office and the English language program. By analyzing international students' experiences with programs, the paper aims to acknowledge students' experience in learning English and their engagement in cultural events to enrich linguistic and intercultural literature regarding international students.

The study explores the following questions: How do in-person versus online activities at the international office assist international students with practicing English linguistic skills in terms of listening, speaking, reading, and writing? How do in-person versus online activities at the international office assist international students with integrating into the American community in terms of culture, sociability, well-being, and professionalism?

Literature Review

A review of the literature included Second Language Acquisition (Brown, 2000); Zone of Proximal Development, (ZPD; Donado, 2000); and mediation (Kozulin, 2003) as they are essential to students' learning development. Considering Study Abroad theories, social networks are important in international students' learning process (Gaines, 2015; Marijuan & Sanz, 2018) as well as tutors' assistance (Gaines, 2014). Discussing culture shock, the condition in which students lose their familiar cultural references in a different place (Oberg, 1960), helps students to understand its roots. Students' biggest limitations to cultural and academic integration are language barriers (Johnson et al., 2018). The events at the international office constitute a community of practice where active linguistic skills are promoted as working towards improving students' culture shock and integration. Student organization involvement and exposure to authentic American language (Glass et al., 2018) raise personal engagement, motivation (Brown, 2000), and exposure to informal language (Carter, 2013). The attendance of social events at the international office may strengthen connections outside the classroom even if friendship still grows in the classroom (McFaul, 2016).

To increase English proficiency, listening and speaking skills should be prioritized (Sheppard et al., 2015). Language proficiency molds identity development (Halic et al., 2009), requires autonomy (Taylor, 1983), and emotional intelligence influences speaking skills (Alghorbany & Hamzah, 2020). Activities such as teletandem (online conversational program) boost communicative skills as demonstrated by Sekimoto (2019). Also, the international office embodies a place of both linguistic and communicative development (Briggs et al., 2017). Within students' matching programs in teletandem, the presence of a supervisor overseeing these programs has positive implications (Nilsson, 2019). Other times, research showed the presence of a facilitator failed to recreate authentic connections (Wilson-Forsberg, 2018). Other modalities

include the ESA system (Khoshsima & Shokri, 2016) and the cognitive method (Mohammadipour & Rashid, 2015) in deconstructing and recreating language. Informal presentations of countries may be one activity outside the classroom.

Methodology

The study aimed to evaluate the international students' perspectives, specifically how attendance at cultural events in an international office can improve language and cultural adjustment among English second language learners. The international office in which this study occurs is located in a medium size, public university in the Midwest. The following cultural events were sponsored by the university's international student's office: Culture Exchange, Sip & Chat, Language Night, Game Night, Cooking Night, Friendship Family and Cultural Connextions.

Participants were 12 graduate international students enrolled at the university for at least three months. The participants are English-proficient with diverse cultural backgrounds. English was learned either as in EFL or ESL contexts. Most of the participants participated in cultural events by the international office and they commented on them and on a future collaboration between the international office and the English language program. They were surveyed online with short closed and open-ended questions in English. The analysis was conducted through thematic coding (Saldana, 2009).

Findings

The results highlighted how speaking, writing, and listening were the most challenging skills while reading was not mentioned in the surveys. The survey indicated most participants found attending online and in-person events had a positive impact on language skills as they practice the language in communicative contexts. Integration in the American community is articulated through the following categories: learning American culture, reduction of culture shock, cross-cultural competence, personal adjustment, and authentic communication through thematic coding. Data indicated that most of the respondents acknowledged that the cultural programs in-person were beneficial to their peer and community engagement.

A few patterns emerged that reflected the beneficial effects of in-person and online events on participants' integration into the American community. The main trend highlights how learning about American culture occurs through certain events more than others. For example, the Friendship Family program, which matches an American family with an international student, strengthens familiarity with American culture more than other events such as Culture Exchange (presentation of one's country) or Cooking Night (preparing an international recipe). Based on the data analysis, respondent international students minimized culture shock when students attend such cultural events. These events also contribute to enhancement of cross-cultural competence (see for instance Moule, 2012) and personal adjustment to US, in turn contributing to developing global competence (see for instance Grotlüschen, 2018). When examining the participants' descriptions of the online events in the survey, they encountered a less engaging environment than with the in-person events.

Data indicated that students found the Culture Exchange event was the least helpful in terms of language acquisition and integration into the American community. Participants considered the Friendship Family Program as the most helpful both for language acquisition and fostering integration into the American community. Students also provided their perspectives on other cultural events included in the survey. The data showed that events that were the least attended were the Cultural Connextions program (matching an international student with an American peer), and the Sip & Chat event (immersion in the culture through music, beverages, videos, dances, and games). Participants did not strongly advocate for these two events enhancing language acquisition and integration into the American community.

Most respondents strongly agreed ESL/EFL classes should include similar cultural activities. Data suggested that more participatory engagement is encouraged: the American community should participate to more local events as well as ESL students should engage in off campus events. Other suggestions provided by the students included promoting events to the broader community in which the campus is located. A few participants stated that creating events specifically targeting international graduate students would be more relevant to their growth as suggested by thematic coding analysis. Participants' other recommendations included gradually raising the level of communication in everyday life from basic verbal exchanges to reading short stories by American authors.

Discussion

Confirming topics in the literature, participants indicated listening and speaking are simultaneously the most practiced and most challenging linguistic skills on international students' paths to assimilation into the American culture (Johnson et al., 2018). Listening and speaking simultaneously were found to be the most effective strategies for assimilation. The study results indicated participants consider in-person events more helpful than online events. In-person events boost personal confidence and self-reliance, while online meetings create mixed feelings. According to the findings, some participants think they lack active participation and reduce personal confidence; other participants believe they improved concentration. Halic et al. (2009) argue that confidence positively shapes students' identity, and the more students interact, the higher the possibility to build confidence in their communities of interaction. Surveyed students expressed international events and in-person events contribute to self-reliance. Enhancing linguistic skills outside the classroom has been explained by Sheppard et al. (2015); they identify listening as a key skill that needs to be developed while transitioning from English language program classes to daily basis communicative contexts.

Regarding the second research question, participants diverged in their opinion regarding the relevance of international events to cultivating international students' integration into the American community. According to the analytical findings, in-person events fostered integration into the American community more than online events. Based on the data, the finding illustrated that social relations and mental well-being, subsets of integration into the American community, are more effectively developed by exposure to international events. Nilsson (2019) demonstrated how the Buddy Programme (BP) improved students' overall well-being. Similarly, this study's survey findings highlighted how connection to local culture through interactions with a local family promotes mental well-being. Because the Friendship Family program evidently has a

strong impact, more efforts should be put toward expanding this program. Regarding the online version of the events to promote integration into the American community, most students would not participate in these events. Alternatively, literature highlighted the role of teletandem as an undemanding environment for international students to converse freely with American peers (Watkins, 2019). The collaboration with the English language program would include programs with mainly in-person and some limited online events.

Another concept that emerged is how sharing cultural and national identity in the events is fundamental for the integration process. From the survey, students also determined that they develop their cross-cultural skills by becoming more globalized or knowledgeable of different countries. However, this does not necessarily lead to integration into the American community according to the survey's responses. The potential project coordinated with the English language program for improving integration into the American community for international students highlights cultural understanding and global competency.

The last section of the survey elicited students' feedback related to international office events. Students suggested increasing opportunities for interaction with the local community, more international staff, and more English-based activities such as book clubs. Integrating events within the class syllabus of an English language program course was widely suggested. The study confirms McFaul's (2016) argument regarding the internationalization process of the syllabus by creating increased exposure to various cultures.

Implications for Future Research

The conclusion of this project highlights how in-person events are more beneficial than online events for enhancing linguistic skills and facilitating assimilation into the American community. The project identified how Friendship Family program provided the most opportunity for advancing participants' growth in language skills and assimilation. Future research could include exploring specific cultures within the broader international student population. This would strengthen the understanding of enhancing linguistic skills and facilitating integration into the American community by culture-specific norms, languages, and artifacts. Further research could also include a cultural-historical approach that would seek to understand how contradictions between various cultures play out in the students' learning. Moreover, a deeper ethnographical approach would also be beneficial exploring the congruities and disparities for assimilating into the American culture to better position international students for academic success.
In addition to this, a research study can also be conducted with the directors and administrators of the international office to ascertain their perspectives on the role of cultural integration and its impact on linguistic skills' success. By examining the directors and administrators' perspectives, insights could be sought regarding the programs' development, policy creation, and program adjudication.

References

Alghorbany, A., & Hamzah, H. (2020). The interplay between emotional intelligence, oral communication skills and second language speaking anxiety: A structural equation modeling approach. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, *26*(1), 44–59. 10.17576/3L-2020-2601-04

Briggs, P., & Ammigan, R. (2017). A collaborative programming and outreach model for international student support offices. *Journal of International Students, 7*(4), 1080–1095. https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v7i4.193
Brown, H.D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). Longman.
Carter, P. M. (2013). Poststructuralist theory and sociolinguistics: Mapping the linguistic turn in social theory. *Language and Linguistics Compass, 11*(7), 580–596. https://doi.org/10.1111/lnc3.12051
Donado, R. (2000). Sociocultural contributions to understanding the foreign and second language classroom. In J. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 27–50). Oxford University Press.
Gaines, I. (2014). Using in-class tutor practice to facilitate language use outside the ESL classroom. *ORTESOL Journal*, *31*, 47–48.
Gaines, I. (2015). Increasing confidence and English use outside the ESL/IEP classroom for lower-level learners. *ORTESOL Journal*, *32*, 56–67.
Glass, C. R., & Gesing, P. (2018). The development of social capital through international students' involvement in campus organizations. *Journal of International Students*, *8*(3), 1274–1292. https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v8i3.52
Grotlüschen, A. (2018). Global Competence – Does the new OECD competence domain ignore the global South?. *Studies in the education of adults*, *50*(2). 185–205. 10.1080/02660830.2018.1523100
Halic, O., Greenberg, K., & Paulus, T. (2009). Language and academic identity: A study of the experiences of non-native English speaking international students. *International Education*, *38*(2). 73–93.
Johnson, L. R., Seifen-Adkins, T., Singh Sandhu, D., Arbles, N., & Makino, H. (2018). Developing culturally responsive programs to promote international student adjustment: A participatory approach. *Journal of International Students*, *8*(4), 1865–1878. https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v8i4.235
Khoshsima, H., & Shokri, H. (2016). The effects of ESA elements on speaking ability of intermediate EFL learners: A task-based approach. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *6*(5), 1085–1095. 10.17507/tpls.0605.24
Kozulin, A. (2003). *Psychological tools and mediated learning*. In A. Kozulin, B. Gindis, V.S. Ageyev, & S.M. Miller (Eds.), *Vygotsky's educational theory in cultural contexts* (pp. 15–38). 10.4236/ce.2013.410A009
Marijuan, S., & Sanz, C. (2018). Expanding boundaries: Current and new directions in study abroad research and practice. *Foreign Language Annals*, *51*(1), 185–204. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/flan.12323
McFaul, S. (2016). International students' social network: Network mapping to gauge friendship formation and student engagement on campus. *Journal of International Students*, *6*(1), 1–13. https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v6i1.393
Mohammadipour, M., & Rashid, S. M. (2015). The impact of task-based instruction program on fostering ESL learners' speaking ability: A cognitive approach. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *6*(2), 113–126
Moule, J. (2012). Cultural Competence: A primer for educators (2nd ed.). CENGAGE Learning.
Nilsson, P. A. (2019). The Buddy Programme - Integration and social support for international students. *Journal of Comparative and International Higher Education*, *11*, 36–43. https://doi.org/10.32674/jcihe.v11iWinter.1095
Oberg, K. (1960). Culture shock: Adjustment to new cultural environments. *Practical Anthropology*, *7*, 177–182.
Saldana, J. (2009). The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.
Sekimoto, S., Oyama, G., Hatano, T., Sasaki, F., Nakamura, R., Jo, T., Shimo, Y., & Hattori, N. (2019). A randomized crossover pilot study of telemedicine delivered via ipads in Parkinson's Disease. *Parkinson's Disease*, *2019*, 9403295–9403297. https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/9403295
Sheppard, B., Rice, J., Rice, K., DeCoster, B., Drummond-Sardell, R., & Soelberg, N. (2015). Re-evaluating the speaking and listening demands of university classes for novice international students. *ORTESOL Journal*, *32*, 1–12.
Taylor, B. (1983). Teaching ESL: Incorporating a communicative, student-centered component. *TESOL Quarterly*, *17*(1), 69–88. https://doi.org/10.2307/3586425
Watkins, S. (2019). Learners' perceptions of benefits in a self-directed teletandem course: An approach to encourage EFL learners to use English outside the classroom. *Asian EFL Journal*, *23*(4), 4–29.
Wilson-Forsberg, S. C.; Power, P., Kilgour, V., & Darling, S. (2018). From class assignment to friendship: Enhancing the intercultural competence of domestic and international students through experiential learning. *Comparative and International Education / Éducation Comparée et Internationale*, *47*(1). 1–19. https://doi.org/10.5206/cie-eci.v47i1.9322

From Classroom to Career: Preparing Students for the Workplace in Dynamic Times

Jennifer Warrner
Ball State University

Abstract: New hires must prepare to make an immediate impact in a fluctuating and dynamic job market. Teaching career readiness and employability skills helps prepare college students for a job search and, ultimately, success in their careers. This paper discusses how an academic program at a university adapted to prepare students for the workplace during a global pandemic and fluctuating job market. Highlighted virtual initiatives include a career fair, career counseling, internship and job search programming, and interview preparation.

Keywords: career readiness, career development initiatives, college-to-career transition, employability skills

"You're hired!" Those are the magic words candidates seeking employment opportunities want to hear. However, training, certifications, and degrees do not guarantee hiring for a candidate. Employers want candidates with a solid combination of soft and technical skills. In a fluctuating and dynamic job market, new hires must prepare to make immediate impacts in their positions.

Background

In today's workplace, employers have two concerns: finding quality employees and training them to be effective workers. The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) reports that employers have a challenging time finding candidates with the hard and soft skills needed to be successful in industry (Wilkie, 2019). Research by Farner and Brown (2008) found employers reported college graduates' skills are not at the level needed to complete tasks required in the professional world. Tulgan (2015) interviewed tens of thousands of workers over two decades. He found that young hires are more likely to have significant weaknesses in key skills including professionalism, critical thinking, and followership. Individuals who enter the professional workforce without employability skills are unprepared for the world of work. Yorke's (2006) employability definition, commonly used in higher education, is "a set of skills, knowledge and personal attributes that make an individual more likely to secure and be successful in their chosen occupation(s) to the benefit of themselves, the workforce, the community and the economy" (p. 8). Overtoom (2000) defines employability skills as "transferable core skill groups that represent essential functional and enabling knowledge, skills, and attitudes required by the 21st century workplace" (p. 2). According to Helyer et. al (2014), employability skills can refer to interview skills, job search skills, to soft skills such as teamwork and communication to personal attributes such as punctuality and self-confidence to industry specific skills. Essentially, "employability" relates to skills graduates need for professional workplace success. In every industry, employers want candidates with well-developed employability skills.

Each year, the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) conducts research and publishes a list of the top attributes employers want in candidates seeking employment. The

NACE *Outlook 2022* reported employers sought the following top attributes: leadership, ability to work in a team, written communication skills, problem-solving skills, verbal communication skills, strong work ethic, initiative, analytical and quantitative skills, flexibility and adaptability, and technical skills. Consider what the workforce would look like if everyone lacked these skills: People who cannot communicate, cannot work well with others, and cannot solve problems sharing workspaces and workflows. The professional workforce would not function smoothly.

One strategy to help prepare students to make an immediate workplace impact is incorporating career readiness strategies and employability skills — such as soft skills training, career counseling, internship and job search programming, and interview preparation — into an academic curriculum. Educational institutions prepare students to enter the workforce. Cruzvergara et al. (2018) found that due to increased attention on college students' career development, higher education institutions see career readiness as an institutional priority. Stebleton et al. (2020) noted that career readiness and education must begin early in the undergraduate experience and should continue until graduation. Teaching these skills has greater importance in a fluctuating and dynamic job market when employers expect new hires to be prepared and make an immediate impact in a position. Teaching career readiness and employability skills helps prepare students for a job search and, ultimately, career success.

Methodology

This research study used a case study approach. According to Merriam (1998), "A case study is an examination of a specific phenomenon such as a program, an event, a person, a process, an institution, or a social group" (p. 9). Case studies are one methodology that can be utilized to systematically study a phenomenon. The focus of research in a case study is on one bounded unit of analysis (Merriam, 1998). The unit of analysis, also referred to as the case, can be a person, a program, an organization, a group, an event, or even a concept (Patton, 1980). For this research study, the unit of analysis was the career development initiatives developed by one academic program at a higher education institution.

Example of Career Development Initiatives

Initiatives highlighted in this paper were developed specifically for undergraduate students majoring in construction management at a four-year institution, Ball State University, located in Muncie, Indiana. The content of each initiative was tailored to students at all class levels in the construction management discipline. Programs offered to students included a career fair, career counseling, internship and job search programming, and interview preparation.

The baccalaureate construction management program at Ball State University has hosted a major, industry-specific career fair since 2007. This annual event is open only to construction management majors at the university. Employer participation at the event has grown steadily from 10 employers in 2007 to 63 companies in 2022. The construction management program's faculty internship coordinator planned and managed this event, which included all aspects of employer registration and preparing students for attendance (Warrner & Jones, 2017).

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the 2020 Construction Management Career Fair was held virtually instead of in person. The Career Center at Ball State University was instrumental in the virtual Career Fair's success. The Career Center provided the virtual platform to facilitate the

event, assistance with employer and student registration, and technical support throughout the event. Construction continued during the pandemic, and companies still had a strong need for new employees. Though the virtual Career Fair was successful, there were challenges. Both employer registration and student participation decreased significantly from previous years. The Construction Management Career Fair was able to transition back to an in-person format in 2021 with some safety guidelines in place, such as required face masks. In 2022, the event occurred with no restrictions. The 2022 Career Fair saw record attendance from both companies and students. The Construction Management Career Fair will continue to be an annual event for the foreseeable future.

The construction management program offered multiple workshops and programs to help students prepare to attend the Construction Management Career Fair. An initial workshop was offered beginning in 2010. Since 2010, the workshops have increased in number and in scope (Warrner & Jones, 2017). Workshop topics included résumé development, how to work a career fair, networking, and interviewing skills. Workshops were offered in a variety of formats, in-person and virtually, at various times throughout the day to reach the most students. In addition to these workshops, students could attend an annual résumé-critique clinic where they received immediate feedback on their résumés. Students unable to attend these events could arrange an appointment with the faculty internship coordinator for individual questions or to review their résumés. Specific career counseling also was available to construction management students that was tailored to their career interests in the construction industry. The internship coordinator for the construction management program met with students throughout the year to address questions about internship and job search skills, career exploration within the construction industry, interview skills, resume development, and salary negotiation. Students could arrange these meetings either in-person or virtually. Individual appointments allowed students to obtain information and advice specific to their career questions and needs.

Though the Career Fair and related workshops were available to all construction management majors, students were not required to attend these events. Example reasons for not attending include accepting an internship or full-time position prior to these events, having scheduling conflicts, or having interest in employers who were not in attendance. To ensure that all students majoring in construction management were introduced to career development and employability skills, these skills were included in the curriculum of a required course. Feedback from the program's industry advisory board steered development of the required course, CM 222: Technical Presentation for Construction Managers. The industry advisory board was established in 2007. Advisory board members include representatives from general contractors, subcontractors, and suppliers in the construction industry. The Technical Presentation for Construction Managers course focused on written and verbal communication skills necessary to be successful in the construction industry. In addition to communication skills, this required course's curriculum included career development and employability skills to ensure all students majoring in construction management learned the essentials. Throughout the semester, all students learned about résumé development, interviewing skills, professional networking, professional image and etiquette, and internship and job search skills. Information about employability skills — including communication, teamwork, and organization — was also included in the course's curriculum. Required curriculum inclusion ensured all students received

this information. Because this course typically was completed at the sophomore level, students learned these essential skills early in their academic careers.

Lessons Learned

The importance of partnerships was the primary lesson learned from the measures implemented by Ball State University within the construction management baccalaureate program. Partnership with the program's industry advisory board were imperative for including career readiness and employability skills in a required course in the program's academic curriculum. That course was the primary method for ensuring all majoring students learned those skills. Other industry partnerships, made through construction-related professional organizations, program alumni, and networking events, were also crucial in the success of these initiatives. These partnerships helped increase the number of employers attending the Construction Management Career Fair, which increased student employment opportunities. In addition to industry partnerships, partnership with the Career Center at Ball State University was instrumental in the success of transitioning to the virtual Career Fair in 2020. The construction management program already had a positive relationship with the Career Center, which helped coordinate and plan the event. Partnerships on and off campus were essential to help connect students to employers for internships and full-time employment opportunities.

An additional lesson learned was the importance of having a faculty internship coordinator manage all of the initiatives. The current faculty internship coordinator has been with the construction management program since 2007. This faculty member received assigned time during the fall and spring semesters to work with internships, plan the annual career fair, and manage career development programs and initiatives. In addition to overseeing the internship program, the internship coordinator managed all employer relations, worked with the industry advisory board, and taught the required course CM 222: Technical Presentation for Construction Managers. Having one person responsible for all these tasks ensured continuity for the academic program's career development initiatives. Both employers and students connected with the internship coordinator for assistance with any events and initiatives.

The final lesson learned was the importance of adaptability, which is imperative when planning any programming for students. Though no one could have predicted the COVID-19 global pandemic, other factors — such as recessions, changes in workforce demographics, and technology — can all have an impact on hiring needs and employment opportunities. Adapting to accommodate a changing and fluctuating job market is critical to ensure programs prepare students for career success.

Plans for the Future

In the future, all established initiatives highlighted in this paper will continue, including the Construction Management Career Fair, career development workshops and programs, and résumé-critique clinic. Plans for the future include increasing industry partners' involvement in these events. One strategy to increase involvement is to include human resources professionals from industry to participate in a résumé-critique clinic on campus. This would allow students to receive critical feedback on their resumes from professionals working in the industry. Another strategy to increase involvement is to include industry partners in a mock interview program.

This future initiative will partner current students with a working professional in the construction industry for a practice interview. Not only will this program allow students the opportunity to practice interview skills, but it also will help students increase their professional networks through meeting with an industry professional. Another future initiative is a series of transitioning from college to career programs. These programs will include alumni presentations about budgeting, developing a professional network, work-life balance, and navigating workplace culture. These programs will allow current students to understand further the transition from college to career and help prepare them for life after college.

Conclusion

The initiatives shared in this paper are selected examples of strategies an academic program can implement to help students develop career readiness and employability skills. These initiatives have proven successful as tools to help prepare students for their careers. Since employers want new graduates to make immediate impacts in the workplace, higher education institutions' imperative is developing strategies to teach career readiness and employability skills with the goal of preparing students for successful careers.

References

Cruzvergara, C. Y., Testani, J. A., & Smith, K. K. (2018). Leadership competency expectations of employers and the expanding mission of career centers. *New Directions for Student Leadership, 2018*(157), 27-37. https://doi.org/10.1002/yd.20277

Farner, S. M., & Brown, E. E. (2008). College students and the work world. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 45*, 106–114. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1920.2008.tb00050.x

Helyer, R., & Lee, D. (2014). The role of work experience in the future employability of higher education graduates. *Higher Education Quarterly, 68*(3), 348–372. https://doi-org.proxy.bsu.edu/10.1111/hequ.12055

Merriam, S. B. (1998). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

NACE. (2022). Job outlook 2022. Retrieved August 8, 2023 from https:/www.naceweb.org/20222-full-report

Overtoom, C. (2000). Employability skills: An update. ED445236 2000-10-00. ERIC. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED445236.pdf

Patton, M. Q. (1980). *Qualitative evaluation methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Stebleton, Kaler, L. S., Diamond, K. K., & Lee, C. (2020). Examining career readiness in a liberal arts undergraduate career planning course. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 57*(1), 14-26. https://doi.org/10.1002/joec.12135

Tulgan, B. (2015). *Bridging the soft skills gap*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Warrner, J. A., & Jones, J. W. (2017). It's elementary: Promoting the construction industry to children. *Association for Engineering Education - Engineering Library Division Papers.*

Wilkie, D. (2019). Employers say students aren't learning soft skills in college. Retrieved August 8, 2023 from https://www.shrm.org/resourcesandtools/hr-topics/employee-relations/pages/employers-say-students-arent-learning-soft-skills-in-college.aspx#:~:text=Yet%20nearly%203%20in%204,soft%20skills%20their%20companies%20need.

Yorke, M. (2006). Learning & employability series one. Retrieved January 30, 2023 from http://www.employability.ed.ac.uk/documents/Staff/HEA-Employability_in_HE(Is,IsNot).pdf

Interprofessional Education (IPE) for Healthcare Students: How Does Teamwork Develop?

Dana H. Washburn, Caitlyn Anderson, and Stephanie Schrader
University of Wisconsin - Milwaukee

Abstract: A recent interest in the improvement of teamwork in the healthcare industry has occurred as well as a realization that medical errors are often related to poorly functioning interprofessional teams. This interest is triggering changes in pre-professional accreditation standards for allied health programs which require the use of interprofessional education (IPE). A mixed-methods study using an experiential learning framework is underway to assess the effects of IPE clinical simulations on the development of teamwork skills and the extent to which this improves the understanding of teamwork among allied health students.

Keywords: teamwork, interprofessional education, experiential learning theory, allied health students, clinical simulation

The delivery of healthcare today is complex and multifaceted. No single discipline can deliver the best care, and interprofessional teams have been established in recent years as the best way to render quality care for patients (Zajac et al., 2021). There is an increasing realization that the nature of healthcare delivery has significant effects on medical outcomes and can even prevent or contribute to medical errors (Rosen et al., 2018). Specifically, the effectiveness of healthcare teamwork is associated with the quality of healthcare delivery (Rosen et al., 2018). Better teamwork is associated with lower patient morbidity and mortality, as well as lower staff turnover and increased patient satisfaction (Zajac et al., 2021). Similarly, poor teamwork and healthcare coordination between disciplines can result in medical errors and poor patient outcomes (Rosen et al., 2018; Schmutz et al., 2019). There are many theories as to the causes of poor teamwork in healthcare and why it persists; however, the strong hierarchy of medical practice (Green et al., 2017; Rosen et al., 2018) and a pre-professional emphasis on a siloed identity (Thomson et al., 2015) are among those most often cited. The Interprofessional Education Collaborative (IPEC) has highlighted important aspects of interprofessional teams and includes teamwork as one of four competencies that are crucially important to working with other professionals (IPEC, 2016). In a recent systematic review of the healthcare team literature, it was found that teamwork has a medium-sized effect on clinical performance (Schmutz et al., 2019). The current state of teamwork in the healthcare industry is inconsistent and fraught with challenges and has been cited as a significant contributor to medical errors (Rosen et al., 2018; Zajac et al., 2021). Recent research has recommended that teamwork should be promoted through training and implementation related to treatment guidelines and policies (Schmutz et al., 2019). For the purposes of this study, teamwork will be defined as, “a process that describes interactions among team members who combine collective resources to resolve task demands” (Schmutz et al., 2019, p. 2).

Problem Statement

Considering the problematic nature of teamwork in the healthcare field today and its association with medical errors, questions naturally surface about education and skills development in this area for healthcare professionals. What education is provided at the pre-professional level regarding teamwork skills and how to work with professionals outside of the student practitioner's field, and is it enough to promote collaborative medical practice? The recent interest in the improvement of teamwork in healthcare industry and a realization that medical errors are related to poor interprofessional teams (Rosen et al., 2018) have triggered pre-professional changes. Accreditation standards for pre-professional health professions students have been added in recent years to include interprofessional work, an acknowledgement that teamwork is a skill that must be developed beginning with pre-professional experience (ACOTE, 2018; CAPTE, 2020). Despite the push to do more interprofessional pre-professional education from accrediting bodies, barriers exist such as inflexible university structures and constraints related to curricula and specific courses which make such coursework difficult (Brewer & Flavell, 2018). Generally, medical and allied health fields complete their education within siloed programs, learning with others who are preparing for the same profession (Ketcherside et al., 2017). As a result, many pre-professional healthcare students' experience working with other health professionals (or student health professionals) tends to be very limited. This can lead to profession-centrism (Ketcherside et al., 2017) which can lead to poor collaboration in the field (Schmutz et al., 2019). The literature does not explicitly offer many perspectives regarding the depth of preparation provided for interprofessional healthcare practice at the pre-professional level, but it does suggest that it is difficult to translate teamwork skills into professional practice at current levels (Ketcherside et al., 2017).

Purpose of This Paper

Considering the current issues in healthcare surrounding teamwork and their correlation with medical errors there is room for improvement which could facilitate a higher quality of care. To learn more about how university IPE influences learning it seems logical to examine the nature of pre-professional education of health professionals and the student experience as they prepare to enter the field. This paper will explore current literature related to IPE and propose a methodology to answer the research question: How do interprofessional experiences affect the professional development of the healthcare student?

Literature Review

Interprofessional Teamwork in Healthcare

In any industry, and especially one as vital as healthcare, teamwork can be argued as essential to daily operations completed in multiple settings. Recently there has been a realization that poor coordination of healthcare between disciplines is problematic and could be related to poor teamwork skills in the field (Rosen et al., 2018). Healthcare delivery is by nature interdependent; no single professional within the medical team can ensure that a patient receives the highest level of care or prevent them from coming to harm because of treatments that are poorly applied. Teams within healthcare are naturally interprofessional. Despite this risk of patient harm, healthcare as a field has not been heavily invested in processes to manage interprofessional teams and coordinate care (Rosen et al., 2018). There is a need to examine interprofessional team dynamics within healthcare settings to improve the quality of care (Thomson et al., 2015).

Previous research shows us that quality teamwork can improve patient care and safety, organizational effectiveness, and can increase job satisfaction; conversely, a lack of adequate teamwork can increase the likelihood of patients experiencing complications of surgery (Rydenfält et al., 2017) as well as medical errors (Green et al., 2017); Rosen et al., 2018; Shrader et al., 2013), and increased morbidity and mortality (Zajac et al., 2021). In fact, delivery of healthcare today is considered fragmented, and the multidisciplinary services required for patients are poorly coordinated (Rosen et al., 2018). Interprofessional healthcare team dynamics are often problematic due to many reasons, including a tendency of these professionals to take too much of an individual professional identity approach causing a clash in cultures in the clinical setting (Thomson et al., 2015). Improvements in teamwork and collaborative practice within the healthcare field are needed (Thomson et al., 2015; Rosen et al., 2018); indeed, they are "crucial if we are to improve patient care" (Green et al, 2017, p. 450).

Research linking teamwork quality and healthcare performance has been conducted to examine the linkage between the two phenomena. It has been theorized that quality teamwork is essential to improving healthcare delivery due to its ability to utilize the expertise of team members to maintain safety and optimal outcomes for patients (Schmutz et al., 2019). However, a recent systematic review and meta-analysis reveals that study results are mixed regarding the relationship between teamwork and clinical performance in healthcare (Schmutz et al., 2019). These inconsistencies may be due to several reasons, including variations in conceptualization of teamwork due to research being spread across disciplines; small sample sizes in teamwork research; and problems with ignoring important contextual variables of teams within existing research such as team characteristics, task type, team familiarity and performance measures used (Schmutz et al., 2019). Zajac et al. (2021) assert that the healthcare field lacks an evidence-based, comprehensive framework to better understand what facilitates and detracts from multidisciplinary teamwork.

Findings of various studies give insight into the relationship of teamwork to clinical performance. In a study by Shrader et al. (2013), a positive relationship was found between effective teamwork and positive clinical outcomes in a pre-professional simulated environment; when teamwork was evaluated as good, clinical outcomes tended to be more positive as evaluated by trained faculty members. Based on the research of Thomson et al. (2015) it is theorized that increasing socialization between professions and strengthening connections between professionals within healthcare settings can improve individual practitioners' identification with their team, thereby increasing teamwork ability. Team identity was also found to be important to performance (Thomson et al., 2015). In addition, a systematic literature review and meta-analysis by Schmutz et al. (2019) found that teamwork has a medium-sized effect on healthcare performance. Collectively, this research suggests that healthcare organizations should, as Schmutz et al. (2019) suggest, "recognize the value of teamwork and emphasize approaches that maintain and improve teamwork for the benefit of their patients" (p. 1).

Experiential Learning Cycle and IPE

Experiential learning theory (ELT) can be used as a framework with which to consider the process of interprofessional education. ELT originally was conceptualized as a cognitive process largely contained within the individual. William James, considered one of the foundational

scholars of experiential learning, believed that the duality of the mind versus the physical world is brought together simultaneously because both are experienced, albeit in different ways (Kolb et al., 2014). It is from the work of James and others that the experiential learning cycle evolved, and David Kolb first articulated the ELT and its associated cycle as having four different stages: concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation (Kolb 1984; Kolb et al., 2014). This cycle is the most widely recognized concept in ELT (Kolb 2015; Peterson & Kolb, 2017).

In his work, David Kolb articulates his belief that learning creates knowledge which results from the processing of 'pure experience,' the nature of which violates the expectations of previous understanding and convictions the learner has had enough to trigger reflection (Peterson & Kolb, 2017). Kolb's learning cycle described how learning occurs (Merriam & Bierema, 2014). According to Kolb, the "effective learner" utilizes four different abilities which form the four stages of the experiential learning cycle: concrete experience abilities (CE), reflective observation abilities (RO), abstract conceptualizing abilities (AC), and active experimentation abilities (AE) (Merriam & Bierema, 2014). The learning cycle describes two ways of grasping experience, which encompasses interpretation of experience as well as action based on this process. Learners engage in concrete activities which they observe and reflect upon, processing these experiences (Kolb et al., 2014). Their reflections are then processed, yielding abstract concepts to add to the learner's knowledge. The learner can then take this new knowledge to assist them into experimenting further in new experiences (Kolb et al., 2014). During full cycle learning the learner progresses through all stages via a recursive process (Kolb et al., 2014).

Teamwork and Experiential Learning Theory

Teamwork has effects on learning and can be conceptualized or situated in an experiential learning framework. As working in teams becomes more common in both education and work settings, more emphasis is placed on team members' ability to work in teams and learn effectively within this process (Kayes et al., 2005). While teamwork can enhance learning in academic and other settings, working in teams is not always a positive experience for all, due to negative team patterns and factors. An intention for learning can minimize negative effects and foster the learning process. Kayes et al. (2005) describe six aspects of team development which can help or hinder the learning involved in teams: purpose, membership, role leadership, context, process, and action. These aspects relate well to experiential learning and team functioning. Kayes et al. (2005) recommend several strategies to enhance group functioning and maximize team learning and outcomes. The first recommendation is that members must create and foster a conversational space that allows reflection on the team's experiences together and facilitates group feedback on its own processes. This reflective space must provide psychological safety and ideally be centered around an acceptance of each other's differences (Kayes et al., 2005). This conversational space also must facilitate honest reflection of team members on team processes and help to foster problem-solving about ways to grow and improve these processes (Kayes et al., 2005). Without the availability of this neutral space teams will have difficulty maturing and evolving into groups that learn well and ultimately meet their goals.

Applying experiential learning to pre-professional IPE, the challenge is to create university experiences that give students new perspectives and facilitate both cooperation and teamwork with students from other healthcare fields.

Research Design

Saldana (2011) states that mixed methods research utilizes both quantitative and qualitative data collection analysis to strategically take advantage of the methodological advantages of each. Using both types of inquiry can allow the researcher to uncover many dimensions of the findings. This type of research can result in robust findings in some cases, whereas contradictory data can result in others (Saldana, 2011). Mixed methods research can give multi-dimensional depth that may be lacking when using a single method of research inquiry. Therefore, a mixed methods research design is being used to extract rich data for analysis regarding the effect of IPE events on teamwork skills and conceptualization of teamwork among pre-professional healthcare students.

The research questions addressed by this study include: 1. How do interprofessional experiences affect the professional development of the healthcare student? 2. How do students conceptualize teamwork skills needed for working in healthcare? 3. Can allied health students build teamwork skills by working together in a simulated clinical setting?

This study is being conducted by an interprofessional team of occupational and physical therapy university professors as these professions often work together in the field. The team is studying the effects of an IPE activity on graduate-level occupational therapy and physical therapy students in terms of team skills and conceptualization of teamwork. For each IPE event, the students are assigned to mixed-disciplinary teams and complete a two-part clinical simulation where they must assess and treat a standardized patient (a faculty/staff member who has been trained to portray the patient). Students receive a pre-brief and debrief related to the simulation. The research methods include: (1) pre- and post-simulation completion of the IPEC Competency Self-Assessment Tool v.3 (focuses on teamwork constructs and skills; NCIPPE, 2016) and (2) completion of open-ended questions regarding teamwork after completion of each IPE event. Both types of data are collected for each IPE event using anonymous Qualtrics surveys and events are held biannually. Quantitative data analysis (for change in scores from pre-test- to post-test) will occur using statistical analysis such as t-tests, estimated Cohen's d and r^2 to determine effect size for the IPE activity. Thematic analysis will be used to detect patterns and themes in qualitative data from post-test open-ended questions. This research design was approved through University of Wisconsin – Milwaukee's IRB (Study 23.071) in November 2022 and the study is currently underway. Findings will be published after data has been collected and analyzed from multiple IPE events.

References

Accreditation Council for Occupational Therapy Education (ACOTE®), (2018), *Standards and Interpretive Guide*, https://acoteonline.org/accreditation-explained/standards/

Brewer, M., & Flavell, H. (2018). Facilitating Collaborative Capabilities for Future Work: What Can Be Learnt from Interprofessional Fieldwork in Health. *International Journal of Work-Integrated Learning, 19*(2), 169-180.

Commission on Accreditation in Physical Therapy Education (CAPTE), (2020). *Standards and Required Elements for Accreditation of Physical Therapist Education Programs*, https://www.capteonline.org/globalassets/capte-docs/capte-pt-standards-required-elements.pdf

Green, B., Oeppen, R. S., Smith, D. W., & Brennan, P. A. (2017). Challenging hierarchy in healthcare teams–ways

to flatten gradients to improve teamwork and patient care. *British Journal of Oral and Maxillofacial Surgery*, 55(5), 449-453.

Interprofessional Education Collaborative (IPEC), (2016). Core competencies for interprofessional collaborative practice: 2016 update. Washington, DC: Interprofessional Education Collaborative.

Kayes, A. B., Kayes, D. C., & Kolb, D. A. (2005). Experiential learning in teams. *Simulation & Gaming, 36*(3), 330-354.

Ketcherside, M., Rhodes, D., Powelson, S., Cox, C., & Parker, J. (2017). Translating interprofessional theory to interprofessional practice. Journal of Professional Nursing, 33(5), 370-377.

Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Prentice-Hall.

Kolb, A. Y., Kolb, D. A., Passarelli, A., & Sharma, G. (2014). On Becoming an Experiential Educator: The Educator Role Profile. *Simulation & Gaming*, *45*(2), 204–234. https://doi.org/10.1177/1046878114534383

Kolb, D. A. (2015). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development* (2nd ed.). Pearson Education, Inc.

Merriam, S. B., & Bierema, L. L. (2014). *Adult learning: Linking theory and practice*. Jossey-Bass.

National Center for Interprofessional Practice and Education (NCIPPE), (2016). IPEC Competency Self-Assessment Tool, v.3. Retrieved October 10, 2022, from https://nexusipe.org/advancing/assessment-evaluation/ipec-competency-self-assessment-tool

Peterson, K., & Kolb, D. A. (2017). *How you learn is how you live: using nine ways of learning to transform your life* (1st ed.). Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Rosen, M. A., DiazGranados, D., Dietz, A. S., Benishek, L. E., Thompson, D., Pronovost, P. J., & Weaver, S. J. (2018). Teamwork in healthcare: Key discoveries enabling safer, high-quality care. *American Psychologist*, *73*(4), 433.

Rydenfält, C., Odenrick, P., & Larsson, P. A. (2017). Organizing for teamwork in healthcare: an alternative to team training? *Journal of Health Organization and Management, 31*(3), 347-362. https://doi.org/10.1108/JHOM-12-2016-0233

Saldana, J. (2011). *Fundamentals of qualitative research*. Oxford university press.

Schmutz, J. B., Meier, L. L., & Manser, T. (2019). How effective is teamwork really? The relationship between teamwork and performance in healthcare teams: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ open*, *9*(9), e028280.

Shrader, S., Kern, D., Zoller, J., & Blue, A. (2013). Interprofessional teamwork skills as predictors of clinical outcomes in a simulated healthcare setting. *Journal of Allied Health, 42*(1), 1E-6E.

Thomson, K., Outram, S., Gilligan, C., & Levett-Jones, T. (2015). Interprofessional experiences of recent healthcare graduates: A social psychology perspective on the barriers to effective communication, teamwork, and patient-centred care. *Journal of Interprofessional Care*, *29*(6), 634-640.

Zajac, S., Woods, A., Tannenbaum, S., Salas, E., & Holladay, C. L. (2021). Overcoming challenges to teamwork in healthcare: a team effectiveness framework and evidence-based guidance. *Frontiers in Communication*, *6*, 606445.

Continuous Improvement: A Best Practice for Online Teaching and Learning

Janet M. Williams, M.S., M.Ed.[1] and Laurie Pulido[2]
[1]North Orange Continuing Education
[2]Ease Learning

Abstract: During the COVID-19 pandemic, an adult noncredit program in the California Community College system partnered with Ease Learning to help convert face-to-face courses to an online modality. Subsequent data revealed a misalignment in the courses' Student Learning Outcomes and Instructional Objectives which became a barrier to student success. Wile's External Tangibility (E-T) Model of Human Performance provided the framework for analyzing the quantitative data presented to the program in the Skillways Continuous Improvement Analytics reports and helped identify potential internal and external causes of performance gaps. This process allowed the program to develop best practices and prioritize the remaining gaps in the curriculum development and approval processes as part of continuous improvement efforts to create a student-centered culture.

Keywords: continuous improvement, student equity, diversity, equity, inclusion

The problem being researched is a misalignment of Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs) and Instructional Objectives (IOs) and their impact on the curricula development and course design processes. This paper will discuss the relevant literature, the research approach, and the major themes identified.

Relevant Literature Review

The National Research Center for Distance Education and Technological Advancements (DETA) and the Western Cooperative for Educational Telecommunications (WCET) noted the positive correlation between student experience in online courses and learning outcomes (DETA & WCET, 2021). This understanding led the adult noncredit program to partner with Ease Learning to support mathematics faculty in converting face-to-face course content to an online modality during the pandemic. However, subsequent data revealed a misalignment in the courses' Student Learning Outcomes and Instructional Objectives and gaps within internal curricula development and approval processes.

This section reviews the relevant research and examines similar analysis findings related to the identified problem to determine its significance within the higher education system.

Continuous Improvement

Continuous improvement (CI), or "the ongoing improvement of products, services or processes through incremental and breakthrough improvements" (ASQ, n.d., para. 1), provides the first step to creating a student-centered culture by establishing a framework to set goals and create systems to measure, assess, and provide feedback on progress (Bush-Mecenas, 2022; Major & Major, 2011). However, implementing CI may present challenges, such as the need for a shared vision, key measures to assess progress, and a system to provide actionable feedback (Bush-

Mecenas, 2022; Maxwell & Person, 2016). Despite the potential complexities, higher education institutions that wish to embrace diversity, equity, anti-racism, and accessibility efforts may consider CI as a systematic way to close student achievement gaps.

Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, Anti-Racism, and Accessibility (DEIAA)

The California Community College Chancellor's Office (CCCCO) acknowledges the systemic gaps which create barriers for many students and has adopted measures to address these needs, such as working toward faculty diversity and collaboration across the state to advance diversity, equity, inclusion, anti-racism, and accessibility (DEIAA) and promote a student-centered culture (CCCCO, 2023). Several studies have connected instructional design and student success, particularly in an online learning environment. Gillingham and Molinari (2012) noted the connection of instructional design with regular and substantive interaction. DETA and WCET's research review further validates the importance of instructional design, observing that students "identifying with traditionally underrepresented racial and ethnic groups are successful with blended and online courses but have even greater success when the courses are well structured" (DETA & WCET, 2021, p. 12). This link between student equity and instructional design gives higher education another avenue to support DEIAA efforts.

Instructional Design

The field of instructional design has existed for decades; however, it went largely unnoticed by postsecondary instructors until the COVID-19 pandemic. The Association for Talent Development (ATD) defines instructional design as a "systems approach to analyzing, designing, developing, implementing any instructional experience" (ATD, n.d., para. 1). This means that basic instructional design principles apply to all learning modalities, content areas, and age groups. Instructional design can support improved student outcomes by ensuring that all courses have measurable SLOs aligned with institutional outcomes and allowing faculty to assess the efficacy of instructional programs (Jordan et al., 2022; Maki, 2004; Savoy & Carr-Chellman, 2014). Curriculum mapping offers a methodical approach to aligning skills and programs, yielding actionable student learning data and providing stakeholders with a visual representation of the alignment. Schutte et al. (2019) advocate for integrating assessment alignment and curriculum mapping at the postsecondary level to add a layer of transparency for students, resulting in increased engagement which may eliminate barriers experienced by first-generation college students. When viewed through a student equity and success lens, instructional design and curriculum mapping are DEIAA initiatives.

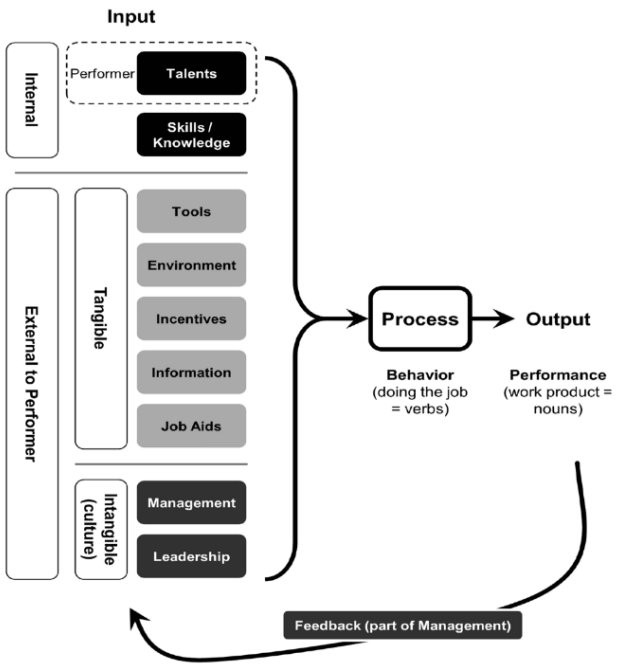
Examination of Findings. The review of relevant research demonstrated that the misalignment between the program's SLOs and IOs and its impact on the curricula development and course design processes is not unique but rather a systemic issue warranting additional examination.

Research Approach

The External Tangibility (E-T) Model of Human Performance provided the framework for analyzing quantitative data generated by curriculum mapping in Ease Learning's Skillways platform (*Skillways*, 2023). Developed in 1996 by David Wile, the E-T Model of Human Performance combined the work of Human Performance Technology's major contributors by

"presenting two separate domains and paths of analysis to use when examining human performance" (Wilmoth et al., 2014).

Figure 1
External-Tangibility Model of Human Performance Technology



(Wile, 2014, p. 15)

A crosswalk of the Course Outlines of Record (CORs), the California Mathematics framework, and the CASAS Math Competencies determined that most course outcomes aligned with kindergarten through eighth-grade competencies.

Discussion

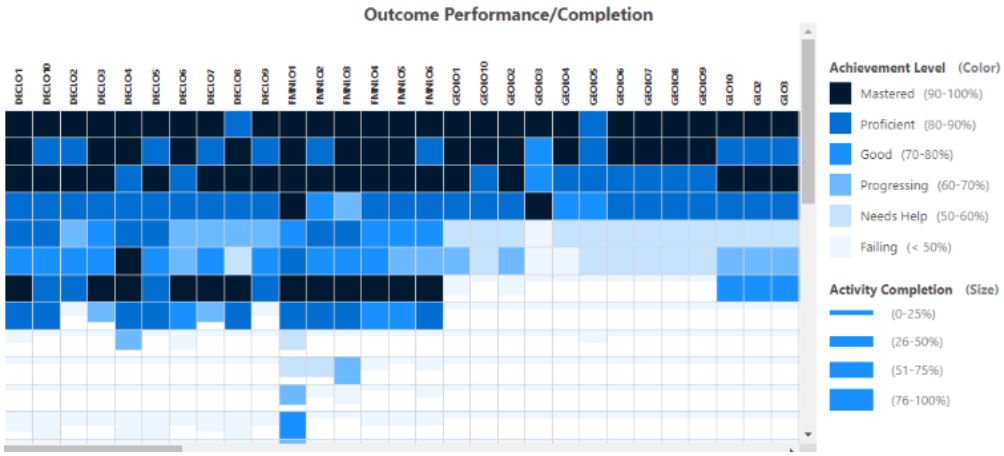
The outcomes crosswalk prompted the adult noncredit program to redevelop the content into micro-courses in alignment with CASAS competencies, focused on developing basic math skills. These insights also helped the program determine that the lack of processes to ensure alignment between course, program, and institutional outcomes hindered student learning.

Analyzing aggregate data generated by Ease Learning's Skillways course mapping resulted in three key insights. Learner Performance Completion reports (Figure 2) showed a consistent drop in student engagement after the first instructional module. The students who remained engaged in the courses mastered the content at approximately 80% or higher. However, the individual unit-level reporting (Figure 3) indicated an inconsistent mastery of outcomes (Ease Learning, 2022).

Figure 2
Learner Performance Completion

(Ease Learning, 2022, p. 6)

Figure 3
Skillways Outcome Heatmap



(Ease Learning, 2022, p. 8)

Wile's E-T Model helped identify potential internal and external factors impacting processes and outcomes, such as faculty understanding of outcome alignment. While faculty are discipline experts, the CCCCO (2022) does not require formal training in andragogy or instructional design as part of its minimum qualifications. Therefore, the faculty members who developed and approved the CORs and converted the courses' content to an online modality may not have had the skills to align the SLOs and IOs or map the outcomes with assessments and instructional materials. Additionally, the courses were converted during the pandemic as faculty served students despite having no prior experience in online instruction or creating online course content. These circumstances combined create a sub-optimal environment for developing this course content. This underlying issue also prompts discussion about academic freedom within online courses. While some faculty may argue that academic freedom is absolute, the Academic Senate for California Community Colleges (ASCCC) defines academic freedom as "the privilege and responsibility" guaranteeing faculty freedom to discuss their discipline in the classroom, conduct research and publish the results, as well as freedom from being censored or disciplined

due to "their extramural speech" (Donahue et al., 2020, p. 1). This definition implies that academic freedom is not absolute; therefore, higher education institutions wishing to develop a student-centered culture must work to balance student success with academic freedom.

The program's Distance Education Faculty Coordinator previously received formal training in andragogy and instructional design, so as an immediate measure, they reviewed the CORs for subsequent courses developed in partnership with Ease Learning to ensure the alignment of SLOs and IOs with the program and institutional outcomes before online content development began. This step expedited the course-build process but did not address the underlying gaps in the curricula development and approval processes. Ascertaining all faculty members' knowledge of andragogy and instructional design will help identify additional interventions, best practices, and processes to ensure all SLOs, IOs, assessments, and instructional materials align with institutional outcomes.

Implementing a CI framework may offer higher education institutions a systematic approach for identifying process gaps as they align course and institutional outcomes and support faculty in creating equitable learning opportunities for students across all instructional modalities. Implications for practice include determining the existing level of andragogy and instructional design knowledge of all faculty and using that information to develop, implement, and evaluate appropriate interventions, such as defining the roles of instructional design and curriculum mapping in the curricula development and approval processes as part of a CI cycle (Bush-Mecenas, 2022; Maxwell & Person, 2016; Savoy & Carr-Chellman, 2014). Institutions wishing to implement a COR review as a best practice may consider involving their instructional designer in the curriculum development process.

An emphasis on student success allows practitioners to shift from teaching to learning, grow professionally, and embody lifelong learning as a model for our students (Tagg & Barr, 1995). Maintaining a student-centered focus when creating new or converting existing courses from face-to-face to online requires intentionality. Continuous improvement can provide a framework for the institution to develop processes that result in a culture focused on student equity and learning. However, these institutions must also continue to nurture and support this culture by developing and maintaining systems to support the alignment of outcomes, consistent data review, and data-driven curricular decisions with diversity, equity, inclusion, anti-racism, and accessibility at the forefront of each step.

References

ATD. (n.d.). *What is Instructional Design?* Association for Talent Development. Retrieved June 16, 2023, from https://www.td.org/talent-development-glossary-terms/what-is-instructional-design

Bush-Mecenas, S. (2022). "The Business of Teaching and Learning": Institutionalizing Equity in Educational Organizations Through Continuous Improvement. *American Educational Research Journal, 59*(3), 461–499. https://doi.org/10.3102/00028312221074404

California Community Colleges Chancellors Office. (2022, June). *Minimum qualifications for faculty and administrators in California Community Colleges*. California Community Colleges. https://www.cccco.edu/About-Us/Chancellors-Office/Divisions/Educational-Services-and-Support/What-we-do/Educational-Programs-and-Professional-Development/Minimum-Qualifications

CCCCO. (2023). *Diversity, Equity, Inclusion, and Accessibility (DEIA)*. California Community Colleges. https://www.cccco.edu/About-Us/Vision-for-Success/diversity-equity-inclusion

DETA, & WCET. (2021). *Research review: Educational Technologies and their impact on student success for racial and ethnic groups of interest*. The National Center for Distance Education and Technological Advancements; WICHE Cooperative for Educational Technologies.

Donahue, N., Curry, S., Brill-Wynkoop, W., Bruno, J., Echeverri, A., & Vélez, M. (2020). *Protecting the Future of Academic Freedom During a Time of Significant Change [position paper]* (p. 1). ASCCC. https://www.asccc.org/sites/default/files/Academic_Freedom_F20.pdf

Ease Learning. (2022). *Needs Assessment Presentation*.

Gillingham, M., & Molinari, C. (2012). Online courses: Student preferences survey. *Internet Learning*. https://doi.org/10.18278/il.1.1.4

Jordan, M. C., Gomez, M., & Marshall, J. (2022). Identifying or Designing Tasks to assess the Dimensions of Learning. *Diverse Issues in Higher Education*, *38*(20).

Major, D. L., & Major, H. (2011). A Systems Approach to Improving Community College Courses. *The Community College Enterprise*, *Spring*, 51–58.

Maki, P. (2004). Developing a collective institutional commitment. In *Assessing for learning: Building a sustainable commitment across the institution* (pp. 1–30). Stylus.

Maxwell, N. L., & Person, A. E. (2016). Using data for continuous program improvement. *New Directions for Community Colleges*, *2016*(176), 89–97. https://doi.org/10.1002/cc.20226

Savoy, M. R., & Carr-Chellman, A. A. (2014). Change Agency in Learning, Instruction, and Performance. In J. M. Spector, M. D. Merrill, J. Elen, & M. J. Bishop (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Educational Communications and Technology* (pp. 617–626). Springer New York. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-3185-5_49

Schutte, K., Line, D., & McCullick, C. (2019). Using curriculum mapping and visualization to maximize effective change. *Administrative Issues Journal Education Practice and Research*, *8*(2), 81–93. https://doi.org/10.5929/2019.1.14.6

Skillways. (2023, July 13). Ease Learning. https://easelearning.com/skillways/

Tagg, R., & Barr, J. (1995). From teaching to learning: A new paradigm for undergraduate education. *Change*, *November/December*, 12–23.

Wile, D. E. (2014). Why doers do- Part 1: Internal elements of human performance. *Performance Improvement Advisor, 53*(2), 14–20. https://doi.org/10.1002/pfi.21394

Wilmoth, F. S., Prigmore, C., & Bray, M. (2014). HPT models: An overview of the major models in the field. *Performance Improvement Advisor*, *53*(9), 31–42. https://doi.org/10.1002/pfi.21440

Cognitive-Psychological Resistance in Adult Learners Learning English as a Second Language

Yuan Zhang and Jonathan E. Taylor
Auburn University

Abstract: Whether an adult is motivated or unmotivated to learn depends on the actual learning experience. To further our understanding of English as a second language (ESL) learners and their language learning experience, this paper delves into the intricate realm of learning resistance. Ultimately, we seek to provide a comprehensive perspective on motivation and resistance within the complex landscape of adult ESL learning. By shedding light on the multifaceted nature of learning resistance and its impact on learners' motivation, the paper aims to contribute to the development of effective pedagogical strategies and enhance the ongoing dialogue between researchers and practitioners in the field of adult ESL education

Keywords: cognitive-psychological resistance, motivation, English as a second language (ESL), adult learning

Understanding and addressing resistance in the realm of learning is a complex endeavor that involves the intertwining of multiple factors, as highlighted by Brookfield (2015). To cultivate learner motivation and enhance their positive learning experiences, it becomes imperative to delve into the various catalysts behind resistance to learning. This paper aims to explore cognitive-psychological resistance among adult learners engaged in English as a Second Language (ESL) acquisition within the United States. By extracting concepts from Illeris' (2007, 2017) learning theories, this research examines the phenomenon of learning resistance specifically in the context of foreign language acquisition, employing a cognitive-psychological lens. The cognitive-psychological perspective on learning resistance emphasizes the role of cognitive processes and psychological factors in shaping individuals' responses to the learning experience. This perspective underscores that resistance can stem from cognitive and psychological influences, encompassing beliefs, attitudes, fear of failure, prior negative experiences, lack of interest, cognitive overload, motivation gaps, and mismatches in learning styles.

In second language acquisition, where individuals experience “the process of learning a second language other than a speaker’s first language” (Brown, 2000, p. 26), the focus shifts to internal processes (Izadpanah, 2010). The inherent limitations of imperfectly mastering a second language learning process are likely “the threat to an individual’s self-concept caused by the inherent limitations of communication in an imperfectly mastered second language” (Saito et al., 1999, p. 202), which could “lead to reticence, self-consciousness, fear, or even panic” (Tsui, 1996, p. 156). These challenges are particularly pronounced in adult learners, who often grapple with language ego – a fear of mistakes that hinders proper language acquisition (Akhter & Abdullah, 2015).

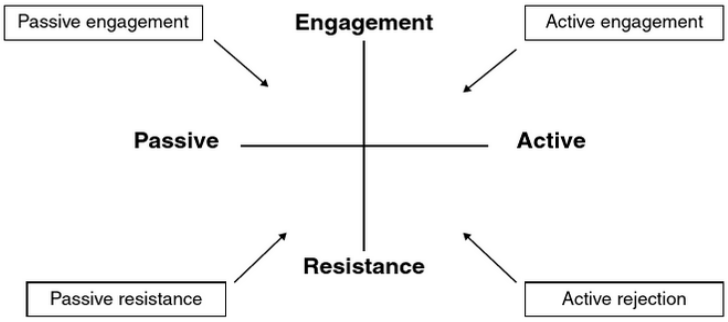
The adult demographic learning English as a second or foreign language is marked by its diversity, originating from various countries and cultural backgrounds (Floyd, 2022), highlighting the multifaceted linguistic landscape (Esterline & Batalova, 2022). Moreover, challenges like limited literacy skills, financial constraints, and immigration experiences further complicate the learning journey for these adults (Jaros-White, 2017). Consequently, tailored ESL programs are imperative to effectively address the diverse learning needs of this demographic.

Drawing on Taylor's conceptualization of learning resistance as a state of non-receptivity within specific educational contexts and Caplin's emphasis on delving into the fundamental causes of resistance, this paper acknowledges the multidimensional nature of resistance and underscores the urgency of developing a robust ESL curriculum. We encourage researchers to explore the complexities of resistance, devise targeted interventions, and enhance learner motivation and engagement in ESL language learning endeavors.

Literature Review

The literature on cognitive-psychological learning resistance and motivation in the context of learning English as a Second Language (ESL) highlights the intricate interplay between internal factors, such as cognitive processes and psychological aspects, and their impact on language acquisition. Various scholars have investigated the dynamic relationship between these factors, shedding light on the challenges learners face and strategies to enhance motivation.

Figure 1
Learner resistance and learner engagement



The concept of learning resistance has been explored across various contexts, as noted by Wells et al. (2014). Taylor (2014) conducted an extensive analysis of scholarly perspectives on resistance, encompassing both positive and negative aspects, to propose a more comprehensive understanding of its significance. Taylor's perspective suggests that "Learning resistance can be considered a state in which a learner is not open to learning in a specific learning situation as demonstrated through either active rejection or passive disengagement" (p. 60). This viewpoint positions learner resistance in direct contrast to learner engagement, as depicted in Figure 1 (Taylor, 2014, p. 58). Undoubtedly, Taylor's elucidation introduces a diverse array of expressions of resistance, prompting a deeper exploration of the multifaceted nature of this phenomenon.

As early as a half-century ago, Caplin (1969) argued that "an adequate understanding of resistance demands careful analysis of causes" (p.37). Following a comprehensive examination of distinct paradigms, Taylor (2022) organized four broad and potentially overlapping categories in learning resistance: *environmental resistance*, which is triggered by specific learning events; *cognitive-psychological resistance*, mainly triggered by internal factors like anxiety; *sociocultural resistance*, arising from social or cultural dynamics such as issues related to marginalization; and *epistemological resistance*, triggered by a disconnection between the learner's and teacher's conceptions. By classifying resistance into these distinct categories, scholars are better equipped to analyze and address the underlying causes and manifestations of resistance in educational contexts.

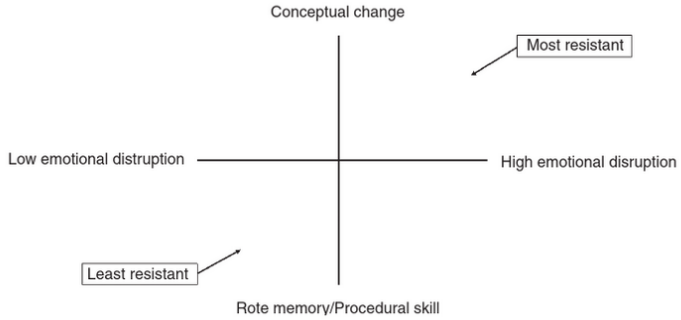
Language learning resistance extends to the model of language non-acquisition, explained by Schumann (1978), focusing on social and psychological factors. Social factors encompass learners' interactions with peers, teachers, and the community, while psychological factors involve cognitive mechanisms and emotional states. Both categories contribute to learners' motivation and resistance to ESL learning. Adult ESL learners' diminished self-efficacy, elevated anxiety levels, and vulnerability tendencies (Ma, 2022) and the interplay of social and psychological factors significantly influence their resistance and motivation.

Conceptual Framework

"Understanding student resistance… provides a framework for developing strategies more likely to help students succeed" (White et al., 2010, p. 127). Taylor (2022) asserted that cognitive-psychological resistance involves "the psychological and emotional ability to be open to learning" (p. 23). Drawing from Gold's (2005) discussion on learning resistance and his description of states that are "emotionally disrupted" (p. 380), Taylor (2022) conceptualized an explanatory two-dimensional plot, as illustrated in Figure 2 (p. 27, adapted from Gold 2005). This visual representation aids in comprehending the interplay between resistance and engagement within the intricated relationship between learners and the learning process. Figure 2 highlights the connection between a learner's emotional disruption and the corresponding level of learning resistance: heightened emotional disruption leads to reduced learner motivation. This dimension of resistance and engagement underscores contextual elements that could contribute to resistance, focusing on the continuous ebb and flow of learners' commitment between the decision "to learn or not to learn" throughout their learning journey.

Figure 2

Range and strength of learning resistance



To explore pedagogical strategies for addressing challenges posed by the dimensions of interaction and acquisition in foreign language learning, we centered our investigation on Illeris's (2017) learning triangle, encompassing three core dimensions: content, incentive, and interaction. Content is defined as the subject matter that cultivates abilities, insight, and understanding, while incentive pertains to the mental energy necessary for learning, fostering sensitivity towards learners and the learning environment. The dimension of interaction involves individuals' active engagement within the learning environment. Furthermore, Illeris framed this learning triangle within the social context where learning occurs.

Instructional Inspirations

Considering the complexity of foreign language acquisition and adult learners' characteristics, we propose implementing the following instructional practices will contribute to positive adult ESL language learning experiences:

Create a Safe Learning Environment

Learning carries emotional significance as Taylor (2022) highlighted the essential connection: "Learners do not learn without feeling" (p. 34). Brockett (2015) emphasized that "Effective teachers pay close attention to the learning environment" (p. 99). Stevick's (1980) insight from four decades ago remains astute, underling how classroom success often "depends less on materials, techniques, and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom" (p. 4). In the realm of adult ESL education, establishing a secure and nurturing learning environment is imperative. This environment allows students to feel comfortable and supported (Soo & Goh, 2013; Tsui, 1996).

Center Learner in Content

Adult ESL learners bring a wealth of diverse experience. Adult ESL teachers should create an environment where each individual is empowered to "bring their needs to the table and participate in understanding the curriculum of their lives" (McMahon & Portelli, 2004, p. 70). In conjunction with honoring adult learners' communicative aspirations and the context of their daily lives, ESL instructors should also recognize and embrace their students' cultural backgrounds and native language (Calderon et al., 2011). This involves incorporating students' cultures into the learning process (Fishkin, 2010) and devising conversation focused approaches that are student-centered and open (Larotta, 2007).

Begin Interaction with the Connection

Numerous researchers in the field of second-language acquisition have emphasized the significance of interactional and social aspects in the process of language acquisition (Canale & Swain, 1980; Habermas, 1970; Halliday, 1973; Hymes, 1968, 1972; Vygotsky, 1978). Taylor (2022) aptly captured the essence, stating that "teaching an individual human being is about fellowshipping with an individual human being" (pp. 183-184). To foster cooperation and collaboration, ESL programs should invest the necessary time to cultivate connections between teachers and learners, as well as among learners themselves, both within the classroom and the broader community. Considering this, we encourage adult ESL educators to create additional opportunities for adult learners to use the language both inside and outside the classroom. One

approach could involve participating in social activities within the community (e.g., attending community events).

Discussion

In the realm of adult education, Knowles (1980) aligned with Maslow's concept of self-actualization as the ultimate goal, advocating that the learning process should encompass the entirety of an individual's emotional, psychological, and intellectual dimensions. Motivation stands as a significant determinant influencing the success of second/foreign language learning (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Gardner, 1985; Krashen, 1980). This intrinsic drive cannot be comprehended without considering the language learning experience in conjunction with an individual's broader life context. When considering language learners, it's crucial to adopt a holistic perspective that recognizes their entire identity beyond just being language learners. Embracing this approach empowers educators with a broader comprehension of motivation, enabling the development of more impactful pedagogical strategies. In the context of instructing adult ESL learners, educators should take into account not only their language needs but also the distinct challenges they encounter as they engage with their experiences within the socially and culturally dynamic realm of adult ESL learning.

References

Akhter, J., & Abdullah, S. (2015). Ego is a hurdle in second language learning: A contrastive study between adults and children. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *6*(6), 170-173

Brockett, R. G. (2015*). Teaching adults: A practical guide for new teachers*. Jossey-Bass.

Brookfield, S. D. (2015). Understanding Students' Resistance to Learning. In S. D. Brookfield, *The skillful teacher – On techniques, trust, and responsiveness in the classroom* (pp. 213–225). Jossey-Bass.

Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (4th ed.). Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

Calderon, M., Slavin, R., & Sanchez, M. (2011). Effective instruction for English learners. *The Future of Children*, *21*(1), 103–127. https://doi.org/10.1353/foc.2011.0007

Canale, M. & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, *1*(1), 1–47. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/I.1.1

Caplin, M. D. (1969). Resistance to learning. *Peabody Journal of Education*, *47*(1), 36–39.

Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning*, *41*(4), 469–512. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1991.tb00690.x

Esterline, C., & Batalova, J. (2022). Frequently requested statistics on immigrants and immigration in the United States. http://www.migrationpolicy.org/article/frequently-requested-statistics-immigrants-and-immigration-united-states/#Workforce

Fishkin, O. (2010). Effective primary literacy strategies for English language learners. *Illinois Reading Council Journal*, *38*(4), 14–19.

Floyd, J. (2022). A critical pedagogy approach for teaching adult English language learners. *New Directions for Adult and Continuing Education*, *2022* (175/176), 9–18. https://doi.org/10.1002/ace.20464

Gardner, R.C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation.* E. Arnold.

Gold, H. E. (2005). Engaging the adult learner: Creating effective library instruction. *Portal: Libraries and the Academy*, *5*(4), 467–481. https://doi.org/10.1353/pla.2005.0051

Habermas, J. (1970). Towards a theory of communicative competence. In H. Dreitzel (Ed.). *Recent sociology No. 2: Patterns of communicative behavior* (pp. 115–148). Macmillan.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1 973). *Explorations in the functions of language*. Edward Arnold.

Hymes, D. (1968). The ethnography of speaking. In J. Fishman (Ed.), *Readings in the Sociology of Language* (pp. 99-138). Mouton.

Hymes, D. (1972). Models of the interactions of language and social life. In J. J. Gumperz & D. Hymes (Eds.). *Directions in Sociolinguistics: The Ethnography of Communication* (pp. 35–71). Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Illeris, K. (2007). *How we learn: Learning and non-learning in school and beyond*. Routledge.

Illeris, K. (2017). *How we learn: Learning and non-learning in school and beyond* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Izadpanah, S. (2010). A study on task-based language teaching: From theory to practice. *US-China Foreign Language*, *8*(3), 47–56.

Jaros-White, G. (2017). *English Literacy and Immigration*. Pearson.

Knowles, M. S. (1980). *The modern practice of adult education: From pedagogy to andragogy* (2nd ed.). Cambridge Books.

Krashen, S. (1980). The input hypothesis. In J. E. Alatis (Ed.) *Current Issues in Bilingual Education: Georgetown University Round Table on Language and Linguistics* (pp. 168-180). Georgetown University Press.

Larotta, C. (2007). Inquiry in the Adult Classroom: An ESL Literacy Experience. *Adult Learning*, 18, 25–29.

Lee, J. S. (2020). The role of informal digital learning of English and a high-stakes English test on perceptions of English as an international language. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 36(2), 155–168. https://doi.org/10.14742/ajet.5319

Ma, Y. (2022). The triarchy of L2 learners' emotion, cognition, and language performance: Anxiety, self-efficacy, and speaking skill in lights of the emerging theories in SLA. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, 1002492.

McMahon, B., & Portelli, J. P. (2004). Engagement for What? Beyond Popular Discourses of Student Engagement. *Leadership & Policy in Schools*, *3*(1), 59–76.

Saito, Y., Garza, T. J., & Horwitz, E. K. (1999). Foreign language reading anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, *83*(2), 202–242.

Schumann, J. H. (1978). Social and psychological factors in second language acquisition. In Richards, J. C. (Ed.). *Understanding second and foreign language learning* (pp. 147-164). Newbury House.

Soo, R.S. & Goh, H.S. (2013). Reticent students in the ESL classroom. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *4*(2), 65–73.

Stevick, E. W. (1980). *Teaching languages: A way and ways*. Newbury House.

Taylor, J.E. (2014). Starting with the learner: Designing learner engagement into the curriculum. In V. C. X. Wang & V. C. Brayan (Eds.), *Andragogical and pedagogical methods for curriculum and program development* (pp. 55–80). IGI Global. https://doi.org/10.4018/978-1-4666-5872-1.ch004

Taylor, J. E. (2017). Following the drum: Motivation to engage and resist. In V. C. X. Wang (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Program Development and Assessment Methodologies in K-20 Education* (pp. 244–274). IGI Global. https://doi.org.10.4018/978-1-5225-3131-6.ch012

Taylor, J. E. (2022). *Motivational immediacy: fostering engagement in adult learners*. Stylus Publishing, LLC.

Tsui, A. (1996). Reticence and anxiety in second language learning. In Bailey, K. & Nunan D. (Eds.). *Voices from the language classroom: Qualitative research in second language education* (pp. 145–167). Cambridge University Press.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.

Wells, H., Jones, A., & Jones, S.C. (2014). Teaching reluctant students: Using the principles and techniques of motivational interviewing to foster better student-teacher interaction. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, *51*(2), 175-184. https://doi.org/10.1080/14703297.2013.778066

White, J., Pinnegar, S., & Esplin, P. (2010). When Learning and Change Collide: Examining Student Claims to Have "Learned Nothing." *JGE: The Journal of General Education*, *59*(2), 124–140. https://doi.org/10.1353/jge.2010.0007

Text in Context & Action in Interaction: Genre-Based Pedagogical Practice in Teaching Chinese as a Foreign Language in the U.S.

Yuan Zhang
Auburn University

Abstract*:* This paper investigates optimal practices for teaching Chinese as a foreign language, situated within the context of adult learning theories, with a specific focus on adopting Vygotsky's sociocultural perspective. The examination delves into the theory of genre and its role in constructing meaning within cultural and social contexts, exploring its impact on language acquisition. The paper underscores the pivotal role of learner-centered teaching and the potential efficacy of genre-based pedagogy in enhancing the Chinese language learning experience for adult learners, particularly those with limited linguistic and cultural backgrounds in a foreign language. Through this exploration, a contribution is made to the understanding of effective teaching strategies tailored to this distinct group of language learners.

Keywords: genre-based pedagogy, foreign language learning, instructional effectiveness

Genre-based pedagogy considers language a meaning-making resource and refers to how "the linguistic characteristics of specific genres serve this communicative goal" (Hermansson et al., 2019, p. 483). This paper aims to bring attention to adult learners with limited or no linguistic or cultural background in the Chinese language and difficulties they experience when learning Chinese as a foreign language. We investigate the application of genre-based pedagogy in language teaching, discuss related adult learning theory, and explore best practices. We focus on practices that display learners' significant role by incorporating existing knowledge to create an interactive and collaborative learning environment. Implementing best practices helps instructional designers create fresh, rewarding, and immersive learning experiences for adults.

Literature Review and Background

According to Modern Language Association (1991) statistics, Asian languages recorded high enrollment growth rates in U.S. colleges. Significantly, enrollment in Chinese language studies increased by 72 percent from 1980 to 1990. Despite increasing popularity of Chinese language study, "Chinese topped the U.S. Foreign Service Institute's list of the languages most difficult for anglophones to master" (Stevens, 2006, p. 99). Many factors, such as grammar, aural reception, words, oral production, pronunciation, and recall, cause challenges in learning Chinese (Hu, 2010).

Genre involves the continual construction of meanings, which embody cultural social practices (Rose, 2012). Scholars have characterized it as "a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity" (Martin, 1984, p.25). Each genre showcases a specific structure, stages, and grammatical forms. Genres intertwine texts with their application in social settings along with associated textual conventions (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Rose & Martin, 2012).

Genre-based pedagogy views language as a resource for constructing meaning (Shum & Mickan, 2018; Traga Philippakos, 2020). It involves understanding how" the linguistic characteristics of specific genres serve this communicative goal" (Hermansson et al., 2019, p. 483). Effective communication in a specific language necessitates a comprehension of what, when, and why to use particular linguistic elements. Furthermore, one must be mindful of the intended audience and acknowledge that both the audience and the purpose of communication are subject to change.

Drawing inspiration from Halliday's (1994, 1978) systemic functional theory, the genre-based approach emerged in the mid-1980s. After its initial development in Austria, educators worldwide tested the effectiveness of genre-based pedagogy for teaching writing in both first and second-language education (Derewianka & Jones, 2016; Hood, 2010; Rose & Martin, 2012; Rothery, 1996). Numerous studies have provided compelling evidence of the efficacy of genre-based pedagogy in enhancing students' proficiency in academic writing in English (Almacıoğlu & Okan, 2018; Ariyanfar & Mitchell, 2020; Burgos, 2017; Correa & Echeverri, 2016; Nagao, 2018; Ueasiriphan & Tangkiengsirisin, 2018; Uzun & Topkaya, 2018; Yang, 2016). Similarly, genre-based pedagogy has proven beneficial for learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) (Aunurrahman et al., 2020; Dong & Lu, 2020; Emilia & Hamied, 2015; Gill & Janjua, 2020; Kessler, 2020; Mitsikopoulou, 2020; Wu, 2017). A substantial body of literature underscores the broad applicability of genre-based pedagogy in research related to teaching strategies (Hyon, 2018), the outcomes of genre-based instruction (Cheng, 2008; Yasuda, 2011), and the significance of metacognition (Negretti & McGrath, 2018). However, the investigation of applying the genre-based approach to teaching Chinese as a foreign language is a relatively recent development.

Approach to Practice

Genre-based pedagogy comprises a three-stage teaching and learning cycle, each encompassing a distinct type of interaction (Hyland, 2004). According to Dirgeyasa (2016), these stages include modeling, joint negotiation of text, and independent text construction. This instructional cycle underscores the social nature of learning and development, rooted in Lev Vygotsky's (1996) sociocultural theories and the concept of instructional scaffolding (Bruner, 1975a, 1975b). Social learning theory explains human behavior by emphasizing the ongoing reciprocal interplay between cognitive, behavioral, and environmental factors. According to Vygotsky (1996), cognitive development arises from socially guided learning interactions. Through scaffolded engagement, learners can attain higher levels of performance by initially collaborating and supporting each other, and subsequently working independently (Donato, 2000). Chinese learners at the beginner level heavily rely on rule-based structures for acquiring new skills (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 2005). Therefore, Vygotsky's sociocultural approach establishes the groundwork for examining and interpreting the teaching and learning of Chinese as a foreign language in adult education.

Drawing upon the characteristics of adult learners at the beginner level in Chinese language acquisition, such as their limited or absent linguistic and cultural background, and considering the distinct attributes of adult learners, including their self-directed and life-oriented nature, we

formulate the following two approaches to steer our practice in teaching and learning the Chinese language:

Unveiling Language in Context

In this section, the term "text" encompasses an array of instructional materials and learning content. Following the principles of genre-based pedagogy, language choices are profoundly influenced by cultural and situational contexts. Each distinct genre establishes a unique environment, interwoven with culture-specific interactions. This prompts the development of purposefully tailored language learning activities. These activities are designed to assist learners in comprehending the specific genre they are engaging with, understanding their target audience, and grasping the prevailing context. Consequently, this approach encourages educators to curate learning materials that not only highlight the functional aspects of the language but also illuminate its contextual application.

Fostering Interactive Engagement

Interaction holds significant importance in fostering proficient language acquisition (Jia & Aaronson, 2003). Within the framework of genre-based learning, action indicates engaging activities that actively involve students. Scholars such as Crandall (1999) has contended that group interaction empowers learners to negotiate for more coherent input and adapt their output to enhance its comprehensibility for others. Central to this approach is the emphasis on interaction, prompting learners at every stage of the genre-based teaching-learning cycle to delve into the cultural and social context of the text, the textual content and structure, and the distinctive linguistic attributes characterizing the text (Hyland, 2004).

Best Practices

The genre-based pedagogy framework empowers individuals to orient themselves toward and interpret communication events. Familiarity with genre-based pedagogy assists teachers in making strategic decisions regarding what and how to teach (Derewianka & Jones, 2016; de Silva Joyce & Feez, 2012). The implications of genre-based pedagogy for teaching and learning Chinese can be outlined as follows:

Organizing Learning through Genres

Using genre systematically as an organizational tool facilitates the provision of comprehensible input. Genre serves as a mechanism to construct language chunks and associations. For instance, when introducing new vocabulary, an effective approach is to group similar words together, aiding students in grasping the genre by forming connections among words. Instead of presenting a mix of words from various topics initially, educators commonly collect related words such as fruits, activities, animals, and transportation. This method helps students gradually comprehend one genre (category) at a time during the initial stages of learning. The categorization process can take various forms and is enjoyable for both teachers and students. As learners accumulate a collection of words, they can develop personalized genres. Employing diverse combinations of words showcases students' cognitive processing and their utilization of acquired knowledge in different ways. Teachers tailor their instructional choices according to learners’ age, interests, capabilities, and requirements. Furthermore, educators deliberately select authentic texts and

culturally enriched resources to facilitate cognitively stimulating activities that arouse curiosity and promote inquiry.

Engaging in Authentic Tasks within Genres

Numerous factors influence a genre, including the sociocultural context of its creation, the interpretation of the text, and its intended audience. Mastery of socially influential language forms empowers learners to navigate real-life scenarios effectively (Bardovi-Harlig & Rebecca, 2003). By incorporating the target language into real-world tasks, instructors encourage students to immerse themselves in the practices and perspectives of the target culture, thereby broadening their self-awareness and global outlook.

For instance, role-playing serves as a straightforward and enjoyable method to cultivate an immersive learning experience. After acquiring relevant vocabulary and sentence structures, students can engage in role-play activities, simulating shopping scenarios while practicing the target language. Teachers can add an element of challenge by assigning a specific budget and encouraging students to buy the most items within those constraints. Students can even bring price-labeled items like snacks into the classroom and engage in genuine shopping exchanges with their peers. Through purposeful interactions, students progressively develop an understanding of contextual nuances and focus their conscious attention on genre conventions within the framework of specific situations (Cheng, 2011). By applying the target language within a situational context, learners directly experience the relationship between distinct genres and actions, fostering a deeper comprehension of the interconnections among various genres (Johns et al., 2006; Swales, 2004).

Discussion

Language acquisition culminates with the attainment of meaningful output. As proposed by Houle (1996), adult educators “should involve learners in as many aspects of their education as possible and in the creation of a climate in which they can most fruitfully learn” (p. 30). Identifying instructional approaches that align with the learner's preferred learning style can significantly enhance overall learning effectiveness (Dornyei, 2006).

By examining my Chinese language teaching practice, I aimed to explore foreign language learning strategies within diverse learning contexts. The objective was to gain a deeper understanding of adult learners' requirements, their language learning behaviors, and the motivations driving their pursuit of foreign language proficiency. In truth, there exists a need for formal research that investigates the Chinese language learning experience of adults using genre-based pedagogy. Such research will extend beyond the realm of experiential sharing, enabling the dissemination of empirical insights to a wider audience.

References

Almacıoğlu. G., & Okan, Z. (2018). Genre-based approach to writing instruction for students at an English language and literature department. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *4*(1), 71–100.

Ariyanfar, S., & Mitchell, R. (2020). Teaching writing skills through genre: Applying the genre-based approach in Iran, *International Research Journal of Management, I.T. & Social Sciences*, *7*(1), 242–257. https://doi.org/10.21744/irjmis.v7n1.843

Aunurrahman, A., Hikmayanti, A., & Yuliana. (2020). Teaching English using a genre pedagogy to Islamic junior high school students. *Journal on English as a Foreign Language*, *10*(1), 1–23. https://doi.org/10.23971/jefl.v10i1.1625

Bruner, J. S. (1975a). From communication to language - A psychological perspective. *Cognition*, *3*(3), 255–287.

Bruner, J. S. (1975b). The ontogenesis of speech acts. *Journal of Child Language*, *2*(1), 1–19.

Burgos, E.G. (2017). Use of the genre-based approach to teaching expository essays to English pedagogy students. *HOW*, *24*(2), 141–159. DOI: 10.19183/how.24.2.330

Cheng, A. (2008). Analyzing genre exemplars in preparation for writing: The case of an L2 graduate student in the ESP genre-based instructional framework of academic literacy. *Applied Linguistics*, *29*(1), 50–71. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amm021

Cheng, A. (2011). ESP classroom research: Basic considerations and future research questions. In D. Belcher, A. M. Johns, & B. Paltridge (Eds.), *New Directions in English for Specific Purposes* (pp. 44–72). Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.

Correa, D., & Echeverri, S. (2016). Using a systemic functional genre-based approach to promote a situated view of academic writing among EFL pre-service Teachers, *HOW*, *24*(1), 44–62. https://doi.org/10.19183/how.24.1.303

Crandall, J. (1999). Cooperative language learning and affective factors. In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in language learning* (pp. 226–307). Cambridge University Press.

Derewianka, B., & Jones, P. (2016). *Teaching language in context* (2nd ed.). Victoria Oxford University Press.

de Silva Joyce, H., & Feez, S. (2012). *Text-based language and literacy education: Programming and methodology*. Phoenix Education.

Dirgeyasa, I. W. (2016). Genre-based approach: What and how to teach and to learn writing. *English Language Teaching*, *9*(9), 45. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v9n9p45

Donato, R. (2000). Sociocultural contributions to understanding the foreign and second language classroom. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 27–50). Oxford University Press.

Dong, J., & Lu, X. (2020). Promoting discipline-specific genre competence with corpus-based genre analysis activities. *English for Specific Purposes*, *58*, 138–154. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2020.01.005

Dreyfus, H. L., & Dreyfus, S. E. (2005). Peripheral vision: expertise in real world contexts. *Organization Studies*, *26*(5), 779.

Emilia, E., & Hamied, F. A. (2015). Systemic functional linguistic genre pedagogy (SFL GP) in a tertiary EFL writing context in Indonesia. *TEFLIN Journal*, *26*(2), 155–182. https://doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v26i2/155-182

Gill, A. A., & Janjua, F. (2020). Genre pedagogy and ELLs' writing skills: A theme analysis. *English Language Teaching*, *13*(8), 141–151.

Halliday, M.A.K. (1978). *Language as social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning*. Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar* (2nd ed.). Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2004). *An introduction to functional grammar* (3rd ed.). Hodder Arnold.

Hermansson, C., Jonsson, B., Levlin, M., Lindhe, A., Lundgren, B., & Norlund Shaswar, A. (2019). The (non) effect of joint construction in a genre-based approach to teaching writing. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *112*(4), 483–494. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220671.2018.1563038

Hood, S. (2010). *Appraising research: Evaluation in academic writing*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Houle C. O. (1996). *The design of education* (2nd ed.). Jossey-Bass.

Hu, B. (2010). The Challenges of Chinese: A preliminary study of U.K. learners' perceptions of difficulty. *Language Learning Journal: Journal of the Association for Language Learning*, *38*(1), 99–118. https://doi.org/10.1080/09571731003620721

Hyland, K. (2004). Disciplinary interactions: Meta discourse in L2 postgraduate writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *13*(2), 133-151. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2004.02.001

Hyon, S. (2017). *Introducing genre and English for specific purposes*. Routledge.

Jia, G., & Aaronson, D. (2003). A longitudinal study of Chinese children and adolescents learning English in the United States. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *24*(1), 131–161. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0142716403000079

Johns, A. M., Bawarshi, A., Coe, R. M., Hyland, K., Paltridge, B., Reiff, M. J., & Tardy, C. M. (2006). Crossing the boundaries of genre studies: Commentaries by experts. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 15, 234–249. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2006.09.001

Kessler, M. J. (2020). *Teaching and learning in a content-based classroom: Understanding pedagogy and the development of L2 writers' metacognitive genre awareness* [Doctoral dissertation]. Michigan State University.

Martin, J. R. (1984). Language, register and genre. In F. Christie (Ed.), *Children writing: Reader* (pp. 21–29). Deakin University Press

Mitsikopoulou, B. (2020). Genre instruction and critical literacy in teacher education: Features of a critical foreign language pedagogy in a university curriculum. *L2 Journal*, *12*(2), 94–109. https://doi.org/10.5070/L212245951

Modern Language Association. (1991*). Fall 1990 survey of foreign language enrollments in U.S. colleges and universities.* Author.

Nagao, A. (2018). A genre-based approach to writing instruction in EFL classroom contexts. *English Language Teaching*, *11*(5), 130–147. http://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v11n5p130

Negretti, R., & McGrath, L. (2018). Scaffolding genre knowledge and metacognition: Insights from an L2 doctoral research writing course. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 40, 12–31. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2017.12.002

Rose, D. (2012). Genre in the Sydney school. In J. P. Gee & M. Handford (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Discourse Analysis* (pp. 209–225). Routledge.

Rose, D. & Martin, J. R. (2012). *Learning to write, reading to learn: Genre, knowledge and pedagogy in the Sydney school*, Equinox Publishing.

Rothery, J. (1996). Making changes: Developing an educational linguistics. In R. Hasan & G. Williams (Eds.), *Literacy in society* (pp. 86–123). Addison Wesley Longman.

Shum, M. S-k., & Mickan, P. (2018). Introduction. In M. S.-k. Shum & P. Mickan (Eds.), *Researching Chinese language education: Functional linguistic perspectives* (1st ed., pp. 1–6). Routledge.

Stevens, B.P. (2006). Is Spanish really so easy? Is Arabic really so hard? Perceived difficulty in learning Arabic as a second language. In K. Wahba, Z. Taha, & L. England (Eds.), *Handbook for Arabic Language Teaching Professionals in the 21st Century* (pp. 35–64). Routledge

Swales, J. (2004). *Research genres: Explorations and applications*. Cambridge University Press.

Traga Philippakos, Z. A. (2020). A yearlong, professional development model on genre-based strategy instruction on writing. *Journal of Educational Research*, *113*(3), 177-190. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220671.2020.1767531

Ueasiriphan, T., & Tangkiengsirisin, S. (2019). The effects of genre-based teaching on enhancement of Thai engineers' technical writing ability. *International Journal of Instruction*,*12*(2),723–738. https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2019.12246a

Uzun, K., & Topkaya, E.Z. (2018). The effect of genre-based instruction on foreign language writing anxiety among pre-service English teachers. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 14*(4), 243–258.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Harvard University Press

Vygotsky, L. (1996). *Thought and language*. MIT Press.

Wu. Y. (2017). Reading for writing– The application of genre analysis in college English writing in China. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *7*(10), 883–891. https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0710.09

Yang, Y. (2016). Teaching Chinese college ESL writing: A genre-based approach. *English Language Teaching*, *9*(9), 36–44.

Yasuda, S. (2011). Genre-based tasks in foreign language writing: Developing writers' genre awareness, linguistic knowledge, and writing competence. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *20*(2), 111–133. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2011.03.001