Kentucky Journal of Excellence in College Teaching and Learning

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Overview

The Kentucky Journal for Excellence in College Teaching and Learning is a peer-reviewed electronic Journal sponsored by the Kentucky Council for Post-Secondary Education Faculty Development Group. General categories for articles include theory, research, and practice. In addition, the Journal will publish manuscripts containing media reviews, profiles, and commentary. The Journal initially targets the professional development of college and university faculty within the Commonwealth. Its primary goal is to enhance student learning by promoting excellence in teaching in higher education institutions in Kentucky and beyond.

Submission of Guidelines for Research, Theory, and Practice Papers, respectively

1. Submit original manuscripts as MS Word documents to the Journal website.
2. Use APA style when preparing the manuscript. Please refer to the American Psychological Association Manual of Style, Sixth Edition.
3. Include an abstract of 200 - 250 words for research, theory, and practice.
4. Use one-inch margins and double-space your text.
5. The length of your manuscript should be between 3,000 – 5,000 words in Times New Roman, 12-point font.
6. Use a minimum of tables. Provide image-ready tables, figures, graphs, and charts on separate pages. Include only essential data in the tables, figures, graphs, and charts. Combine tables whenever possible.
7. Do not include the author's name(s), positions, titles, or places of employment on the cover page to safeguard anonymity.
8. Do not use generic masculine pronouns or other sexist terminology in your manuscript.

Peer-reviewers read and recommend articles for publication under the research, theory, and practice categories. Articles published in the Kentucky Journal of Excellence in College Teaching and Learning, reflect the views of the authors and not of the Editors, Editorial Board, or Eastern Kentucky University.

Submission Guidelines for Media Review, Profile, and Commentary

1. Submit original manuscripts as MS Word documents to the Journal website.
2. Use APA style when preparing the manuscript. Please refer to the American Psychological Association Manual of Style, Sixth Edition.
3. Include an abstract of 120 words.
4. Double-space your manuscript and insert one-inch margins.
5. The length of your manuscript should be 2,000 to 3,000 words in Times New Roman, 12-point font.
6. Use a minimum of tables. Type tables on separate pages. Include only essential data in the tables. Combine tables whenever possible.
7. Do not include author's name(s), positions, titles, or places of employment on the cover page to safeguard anonymity.
8. Do not use generic masculine pronouns or other sexist terminology in your manuscript.

The editors review papers in the media, profile, and commentary categories. Articles published in the Kentucky Journal of Excellence in College Teaching and Learning reflect the views of the authors, not those of the editors, editorial board, or Eastern Kentucky University.

Brief Notes on Categories

Research
Educational research is a process of discovery that may or may not use the scientific method. There are limitations in the scientific method and other types of research methodology. The researcher recognizes and defines a problem, formulates a hypothesis, collects data, analyzes the data, and then provides a statement of conclusion that may or may not confirm the hypothesis.

Theory
Theory is a tested and testable concept that explains an occurrence. Researchers may analyze existing theories or apply them to contemporary situations. Sometimes researchers develop new interpretations to existing theories. A theory paper involves a lot of critical thinking, reading, and reflection.

Practice
Practice involves almost everything teachers do relative to their profession. Teachers continuously try out new concepts and ideas and reflect on "best practices." They usually share their successes with colleagues in the profession.

Media Review
We live in an era of information overload and teachers play the role of sorting out and managing the material they intend to use in their classrooms. Media reviews contain reports, demonstrations, and/or critiques of print or electronic resources that enhance or facilitate teaching and learning.

Profile
A profile is a feature story of a person that highlights the person's background, ideas, and accomplishments. Profiles describe qualities that are worthy of emulation.

Commentary
A commentary is a piece of writing that gives a perspective on an occurrence or event. It may clarify, explain, or illustrate issues related to the title.

The Kentucky Journal of Excellence in College Teaching and Learning

Mission

The Journal targets the professional development of college/university faculty in the Commonwealth of Kentucky. We also welcome submissions from faculty in the United States and overseas.

Goals

1. To adapt "best practices" to new teaching and learning contexts.
2. To promote innovative research in the scholarship of teaching.
3. To provide a forum for sharing successful teaching/learning strategies.
4. To profile individuals who exhibit excellence in teaching.
5. To stimulate ongoing professional development through teaching/learning resources.

Submissions

Articles must represent innovation in teaching and learning in higher education. Articles must be submitted exclusively to the Kentucky Journal of Excellence in College Teaching and Learning. Manuscripts must be double-spaced with one-inch margins, paragraphs indented five spaces, pages clearly numbered, 12-point Times New Roman font, and should use the most current edition of The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association. Upload an electronic copy to the Journal website.

Journal Content

The Journal will address innovative and practical teaching resources for faculty. It will also publish informative articles relating to the profession on topics such as:

- "Best practices"
- Innovative environments
- Collaborative practices
- Instructional technology
- Creative pedagogical approaches
- Student retention
- Diversity within the teaching/learning environment
- Creative and innovative teaching tips
- Successful teaching/learning practices
- Profiles of honorary award recipients
- Book and media reviews
- Professional meetings, workshops, conferences and resources

Publication Information

This peer-reviewed electronic Journal is sponsored by the Faculty Development Workgroup/Council on Postsecondary Education and published by the College of Education, Eastern Kentucky University. Reviewers represent faculty from public and private institutions of higher education all over Kentucky and beyond. A print copy of the Journal will be available at the annual Kentucky CPE Faculty Development Conference.

In This Issue

Charles E. Myers · Eastern Kentucky University
Senior Editor for The Kentucky Journal of Excellence in College Teaching and Learning

Amanda Dishon Brown, Dorea Glance, and Alessandra Rhinehart present a model for classroom supervision for social workers and counselors in *Learn, Expand, Engage-Supervision: A Model for University-Based Supervisors Serving as Course Instructors for Practicum and Internship*. Model objectives include increased motivation, autonomy, and self-other awareness; ethical and professional identity development; and post-graduation professional practice development.

Joanne Caniglia and Davison Mupinga examined the attitudes of preservice secondary teacher towards poverty in *The Impact of a Poverty Simulation on Pre-Service Teachers' Attitudes Toward Poverty*. Authors used qualitative and quantitative data to find that poverty simulation resulted in increased education student's awareness of the challenges of students and families with limited resources.

Donna M. Elkins and Robin Hinkle discuss how failure can result in growth in *Failing, Learning, and Failing Again: How College Professors Experience Humanness in the Work of Teaching*. Authors share personal failure stories to reflect on the cause of some teaching failures and to provide encouragement to other educators facing similar failures.

Valerie Flanagan and Seneca Rodriguez surveyed Kentucky educators to assess strengths and areas of growth in establishing trauma-informed schools and developing safe and supportive student environments in *The Value of Social and Emotional Learning: Considerations for Kentucky's Approach to Trauma-Informed Schools*. Authors found that educators want training to support students exposed to trauma, obstacles to training, and the need for social an emotional learning in the classroom.

Dia R. Gary studied the effect of in class note taking on learning outcomes and course attendance in *Taking Notes to Increase Predilection, Propensity, and Proclivity in a Higher Education Context*. Author found evidence that supplied, required, and inspected guided notes resulted in increased student final grades.

Chhanda Islam explored the effect of online literacy practicums on the graduate student quality of learning and efficacy in *Evaluating Graduate Students Within an Online Literacy Clinic*. Author found that technologies and other aspects of online literacy practicums supported quality of learning and increased graduate student efficacy.

Mi-Hee Jeon and Charles E. Myers explored the integration of expressive arts in master's counseling program practicum supervision in *Creative Supervision through Art Activities: Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis*. Results indicated expressive arts increase sense of safety, understanding inner group differences and similarities, building group cohesion, expression of inner emotions, and awareness of internal experiences.

Juhee Kim explored the challenges that international students face when studying in the United States in *A Case Study of International Students' Challenges*. Author shares the social and political demotions of studying abroad and provides insight into their impact on the education of international student, as well as the impact university leaders have on promoting diversity and inclusion.

Learn, Expand, Engage- Supervision: A Model for University-Based Supervisors Serving as Course Instructors for Practicum and Internship

Amanda Dishon Brown · Northern Kentucky University
Dorea Glance · Northern Kentucky University
Alessandra Rhinehart · Northern Kentucky University

Author's Note: Corresponding information for authors may be addressed to Dr. Amanda Dishon Brown, 1 Nunn Drive, MP 222F, Highland Heights, KY 41099; 859-572-1383; browna53@nku.edu.

Abstract

Although practicum, internship, and field placements are considered pinnacle learning experiences in higher education for social workers and counselors, supervision literature that is specifically tailored to address the unique needs of faculty supervisors is minimal. Further complicating this gap is the necessary and ongoing shifting of roles as assessor, evaluator, gatekeeper, teacher, and consultant for the faculty supervisor in higher education classroom settings. In an effort to address these identified gaps, authors present the Learn, Expand, Engage-Supervision (LEE-S) Model for classroom supervision. Learning objectives of the model include growth in motivation, autonomy, and self-other awareness; an establishment of individual student supervisee's ethical and professional identity; and preparedness for professional practice post-graduation. The LEE-S, a three-stage model, integrates tenants from the Integrated Developmental Model and Discrimination Model, as well as best-practice teaching frameworks including Revised Bloom's Taxonomy and Flipped-Class pedagogy. This article includes a brief overview of the relevant supervision and teaching pedagogy literature, with particular attention given to individual student supervisee developmental needs. A detailed description of the three stages within the LEE-S model is provided with concrete examples of classroom supervision activities for each stage of the model. Practical application, limitations, and future research are also explored.

Keywords: faculty supervisor, helping professions, pedagogy

Described in Author et al. (2018), higher education for social work and counseling professions has experienced a significant shift towards competency-based learning. According to Nelson and Graves (2011), "in competency-based education, the success of students in developing and maintaining skills is the primary objective" (p. 430). This shift identifies instruction and supervision of practicum and internship as "signature pedagogy," which is critical to student supervisee growth (Boitel & Fromm, 2014, p. 609; Furr & Carroll, 2003).

Supervision, a process by which therapists in both training and practice receive information, support, and feedback related to their effectiveness, is a distinct training strategy; it encompasses teaching, client consultation, and the promotion of developing self-awareness (Watkins, 2014; Yager & Litrell, 1978). Green (2005) proposed supervision as the holistic contextual environment in which supervisees are trained; this includes the academic supervision setting. As summarized by Callahan et al. (2019), "Supervisees' skills acquisition and usage, treatment knowledge, self-awareness, self-efficacy, and working alliance can all benefit as a result of supervision" (p. 154).

Field placement/internships, considered as the pinnacle learning component, offer opportunities to integrate classroom learning and practice. However, while a large body of literature exists that targets site-based supervision and post-graduate supervision

(Milne & Watkins, 2014), there is limited work that focuses on faculty supervisors in the higher education classroom setting (Bogo & McKnight, 2005; Domakin, 2014; Zuchowski, 2016). Because roles and responsibilities of faculty supervisors differ from those of site-based clinical supervisors, a best practice model of supervision, specific to this role, is a current gap in the literature (Domakin, 2014; Henderson, 2010; Zuchowski, 2016). This difference is particularly apparent in the academic supervision setting (for field placements) in competence/evaluation measurements (Henderson, 2010), accreditation standards (American Counseling Association [ACA], 2014; National Association of Social Workers [NASW] Delegate Assembly, 2008), and competencies towards pursuing post-graduate licensure (Gonsalvez & Crowe, 2014).

While Codes of Ethics explaining the role of the site-based supervisor for social work and counseling do exist, (ACA, 2014; NASW, 2008), none provide a detailed integration of guidelines for student supervisees or faculty supervisors in an academic setting (ACA, 2014; NASW, 2008). This oversight, combined with the current gap in literature, presents a pedagogical absence as the academic layer of student supervisee oversight and evaluation significantly differs from site-based and post-graduate supervision. This gap is further complicated due to the ethical responsibilities in which faculty supervisors incur regarding both student supervisees and the clients served by students. Faculty supervisors are also uniquely tasked with gatekeeping responsibilities. Understandably, this aspect of the supervisory relationship is often difficult to navigate, considering the faculty supervisor's responsibility to evaluate academic achievement while meeting gatekeeping responsibilities. Attention to this relationship is another significant gap in the literature as research focused on student supervisee perception of field placement/clinical practice training reports students often feel "caught in the middle" of their site-based supervisors and faculty supervisors (Domakin, 2014; Henderson, 2010; Zuchowski, 2016). As such, Larrison and Korr (2013) issued a call for additional models/frameworks in which faculty supervisors enhance student learning, growth, and competence while attending to these additional ethical and academic responsibilities.

Attention to the *shifting of roles* that the faculty supervisor and the student supervisee experience within the academic setting are also inadequately addressed (Borders, 2014). For example, supervisees begin in the role of passive learner, with the supervisor's role as active expert, based on the developmental stages of the Integrated Developmental Model (IDM; Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2011). Throughout supervision, there is a shifting of roles in which the supervisee becomes more active and autonomous, while the supervisor becomes more of a passive facilitator and/or consultant. Therefore, a theoretically based framework for faculty supervision that attends to this evolution is imperative.

The Learn, Expand, Engage-Supervision (LEE-S) model addresses the gaps identified above, which is based on the Learn Expand Engage (LEE) model (for a full description of the LEE, see Author et al. 2018). The LEE-S is derived from the foundational aspects of the LEE model, based on the Integrated Developmental Model (IDM), the Discrimination Model, Bloom's Taxonomy, and Flipped-Class Pedagogy (Anderson et al., 2001; Bernard, 1997; Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2011; van Vliet et al., 2015). The LEE-S accounts for peripheral learning experiences by placing emphasis on students' ability to apply classroom learning/supervision in practicum/internship settings while being evaluated by both site-

based supervisors and faculty supervisors. This model offers concrete strategies for developing the supervisory relationship between students and faculty supervisors, with consideration for the academic and ethical responsibilities identified above. The LEE-S also explicates the differing roles of the faculty supervisor and the site-based supervisor (Milne & Watkins, 2014). The pedagogical framework of the LEE-S is an answer to Green's (2005) call for a shift in the conceptualization of supervision from a *process* to a necessary *pedagogy*.

The LEE-S Model Conceptual Foundation

Theoretical Foundations

In that faculty supervisors serve as instructors in the academic setting, clinical supervision pedagogy with attention to teaching effectiveness is a necessary component of working with student supervisees in the classroom. Descriptions of these existing pedagogical models are explained below. Importantly, faculty supervisors are encouraged to explore these theoretical concepts beyond this basic outline to promote higher levels of functioning within the LEE-S model.

Integrated Developmental Model. The IDM focuses on supervisees' unique developmental needs and posits that supervisees' progress through three developmental stages (Level 1-3) while developing competencies in various domains (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2011). They are skills competence, assessment techniques, interpersonal assessment, client conceptualization, individual differences (ethnic and cultural), theoretical orientation, treatment plans/goals, and professional ethics. To meet the developmental needs of student supervisees, faculty supervisors must adapt classroom supervision methods based on their understanding of what motivates

supervisees, how supervisees establish autonomy, and the degree to which students are capable of developing self-other awareness.

Within practicum/internship, student supervisees operate within developmental Levels 1 and 2 of the IDM. In Level 1, supervisees are: a) motivated by evaluation, b) less autonomous, and c) more focused on 'self' in sessions with clients. Supervisees in Level 1 typically experience high motivation and anxiety, are dependent, and maintain low levels of self-other awareness (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2011). In Level 2, supervisees experience fluctuating motivation, intermediate autonomy, and increased self-other awareness. At this stage, supervisees become more autonomous, experiencing conflict between dependence and independence and are motivated by client interests, while gaining more self-awareness (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2011). During their field experiences, supervisees typically progress from Level 1 to Level 2 in their clinical skills development.

Discrimination Model. The Discrimination Model (Bernard, 1997) explicates numerous roles and/or responsibilities assumed by supervisors. In any given supervisory session, the supervisor may act as a teacher, counselor, or consultant depending on setting context and the supervisee's developmental need. The supervisor's primary responsibility is to identify the supervisees' needs and the most effective approach for meeting those needs (Bernard, 1997). The Discrimination Model offers insight into the decision-making process regarding the supervisor's role, the developmental needs of the supervisee, and training for engagement in the model for both supervisors and supervisees. This model is known for applicability in multiple supervision contexts (Bernard & Goodyear, 2014).

Revised Bloom's Taxonomy. Revised Bloom's Taxonomy (Anderson et al., 2001) offers an in-depth exploration of the mastery approach to learning, wherein students move through various stages of learning to reach deeper levels of understanding. In the classroom setting, faculty supervisors are tasked with promoting and evaluating academic achievement and professional development, allowing student supervisees with satisfactory clinical skills and ethically sound dispositions to enter the field. The revised version of Bloom's Taxonomy dimensions including factual, conceptual, procedural, and metacognitive knowledge. It also includes the cognitive processes of remember, understand, apply, analyze, evaluate, and create (Anderson et al., 2001).

Flipped-Class Pedagogy. In this model, students engage in out-of-class reading and material review in order to apply knowledge in both classroom and field settings (van Vliet et al., 2015). Following flipped-class pedagogy, student supervisees come to group supervision, in the classroom, prepared with content knowledge of client care and professional identity development. Utilizing this approach allows the faculty supervisor to facilitate progression to higher dimensions of knowledge during classroom group supervision/activities. This theoretical infusion provides a multi-dimensional understanding of roles and responsibilities within the faculty/student supervisory relationship.

Role Descriptions within the LEE-S

Supervisee

Supervisees must be intentional in developing their own sense of autonomy. In the early stages of supervision, the supervisee is passive, receiving information via lectures and observation. This stage incorporates the memorization and understanding dimensions of Bloom's Taxonomy discussed above.

Whereas in the final stage, the supervisee assumes an active role practicing more independently with real-world clients, applying their clinical skills and developing their own professional identity. This stage incorporates the dimensions of analyze, evaluate, and create outlined in Bloom's Taxonomy. While the supervisee and faculty supervisor continue to collaborate and consult, at this stage of development, the supervisee is clearly in the lead role, functioning mostly autonomously from the supervisor.

Supervisor

The role of the supervisor also experiences a simultaneous role reversal in this process of supervisee training. In the early stage of classroom supervision, faculty supervisors are the primary source of information, providing lectures, demonstrations, and in-vivo feedback. In the latter stages of supervision, the faculty supervisor assumes a more passive role, providing consultation and support of the supervisee's own professional identity development. The faculty supervisor continues to act as teacher, consultant, and counselor, while promoting increased autonomy, motivation based on client outcomes, and an integrated sense of self-other awareness (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2011). This shifting of roles is supported by the description of supervisor roles' in the Discrimination Model (Bernard, 1997). The LEE-S model is now detailed, including concrete activities to utilize in the classroom setting as well as goals.

The LEE-S Model Description

The LEE-S Model focuses on the process of classroom supervision. Comprised of three stages, student supervisees begin in the Learn stage, reading materials that deepen their novice conceptualization of their role as a helper, the position of the client, and

theoretical change processes. Development continues through the Expand stage as students begin to apply clinical skills and explore their unique professional identity. In this stage, student supervisees are guided by faculty supervisors collaborating with site-based supervisors. Student supervisees in the Engage stage work more independently with clients in the field and refine their clinical skills in a progressively autonomous fashion. This process occurs while student supervisees continue to engage in supervision with both site-based supervisors and faculty supervisors. The LEE-S model allows flexibility for faculty supervisors to be responsive to the developmental needs of each supervisee within each session, occupying a more active or passive role as needed. This framework further allows student supervisees to develop individual autonomy and confidence in their own skillset and knowledge base. Table 1 outlines each stage of the LEE-S model.

The student-centered nature of the LEE-S model may be applied across semesters and developmental stages. Faculty supervisors are encouraged to expand upon these by creating assignments and activities that support student supervisees' developmental progression in terms of motivation, autonomy, and self-other awareness while attaining multiple dimensions of knowledge. Assignments and activities informed by the flipped-class pedagogical approach, as well as the Discrimination Model, which allow the faculty supervisor to engage as teacher, consultant, and counselor are most fitting to the premise of the LEE-S model. The activities below provide a model for integrating each of the previously mentioned theories and role considerations for classroom supervision.

Learn

The first stage, Learn, focuses on traditional knowledge acquisition. Faculty supervisors engage student supervisees in the earliest dimensions of knowledge (i.e., factual and conceptual) as outlined in the revised version of Bloom's Taxonomy (Anderson et al., 2001). As summarized in Callahan et al. (2019), "supervision may be most impactful during trainees' early development, when they are most vulnerable and lacking in foundational knowledge and functional competencies" (p. 154). To this end, faculty supervisors in the Learn stage assume an active and directive role, educating and preparing student supervisees on the procedures and protocols of supervision in the classroom setting and in the field. This process is accomplished by exposing student supervisees to a formal orientation to field experiences, as well as discipline-specific codes of ethics/regulations that outline professional conduct. Student supervisee learning is developed through the establishment of clear learning objectives and the utilization of assignments such as examinations, in-class discussions, and professional reflection papers.

Students tend to find themselves in a less active role at this stage, primarily absorbing information through lectures and readings. These assignments are consistent with the developmental nature of supervisees in Level 1 of the IDM, where beginning supervisees are less autonomous and highly motivated by evaluation (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2011). At this early stage, faculty supervisors primarily function in the role of teacher as described in the Discrimination Model (Bernard, 1997). This is a distinct function of the faculty supervisor in the classroom, as opposed to the site-based supervisor. Faculty supervisors work to decrease supervisee anxiety regarding first clinical interactions, as well as increase awareness of academic evaluation processes. Upon setting a clear foundation in the teacher role, the faculty supervisor embraces opportunities to shift to the role of

consultant and counselor in an effort to meet the holistic developmental needs of student supervisees. Following flipped class pedagogy, faculty supervisors may provide the following prompts to student supervisees prior to the class in which the activity is employed. This method allows student supervisees to consider the prompts while completing their reading assignments and fosters confidence for actively engaging in the subsequent classroom discussion. The faculty supervisor begins in the teacher role, progressing to the roles of consultant and counselor throughout the activity. The prompts are as follows:

Prompt 1: Describe three topics regarding the process of supervision that are new to you. Briefly describe the roles of your faculty supervisor, site-based supervisor, and your role as a beginning supervisee.

Prompt 2: Consider the client case provided and respond to the questions as you prepare for your first session with a client at your practicum site (faculty to develop case example):

1) Describe your ethical responsibilities in the first session with this client?
2) List possible goals for this client's treatment.
3) Reflect upon your personal reaction to the client's presenting problems.

Prompt 3: Consider your level of preparedness for your first week of practicum. What do you need to know or process to feel confident going into your initial sessions? How do you plan to seek supervision to help yourself prepare to take on this new challenge?

Within each component of this activity, the faculty supervisor allows space for the student supervisees to process their motivation, autonomy, and self-other awareness. Consistent with the Discrimination Model, the prompts are designed to place the supervisor as either teacher (prompt 1), consultant (prompt 2), or counselor (prompt 3) dependent upon the student supervisee's needs. The supervisor provides feedback that promotes the supervisee's development.

Expand

During the second stage of the model, Expand, faculty supervisor and supervisee roles are parallel insofar as this stage actively involves both roles in the learning and application process. Faculty supervisors intentionally expose supervisees to the middle dimensions of knowledge (i.e., conceptual and procedural) as outlined by the revised Bloom's Taxonomy (Anderson et al., 2001). In this stage, faculty supervisors begin demonstrating clinical skills through live, mock "role playing" sessions in class or via utilization of videos, and pivot away from being simple distributors of knowledge. This transition further enables faculty supervisors to step into a less active role (lectures and quizzes are eliminated now) becoming observers and in-vivo feedback providers. Faculty supervisors continue academic assessment and evaluation, while supervisees make their initial attempts at skill application and ethical conduct. As Chenail (2009) suggested, it is important to transition from one-directional pedagogy to create a space in which students and faculty instructors learn from one another. Exemplified in the Expand stage, faculty supervisors continue to fulfill their roles as teacher, consultant, and counselor to support increased student supervisee autonomy and application of knowledge gained during the initial Learn stage. Table 2 provides examples of learning activities to utilize in the Expand stage, as well as corresponding learning dimensions of Bloom's taxonomy.

Throughout the Expand stage, student supervisees are invited to begin a more active role in their development by applying skills in low-stakes role-plays with peers, rather than real clients. In addition, they are given

an opportunity to observe and analyze skill development and ethical practice of their peers, which fosters a safe environment of support and personal reflection. For an additional activity, in the Expand stage, students may pair with one another to work through a continuation of the case example from the first activity. Each member of the pair acts in the counselor/social worker and client role, allowing 10 minutes to role-play before switching roles. The faculty supervisor serves as a resource during and after the role-play activity. The activities and learning objectives in the Expand stage align with the IDM's transition to Level 2 of supervisee development and Bloom's application dimension. Here, supervisees develop higher levels of self- others awareness and autonomy, as their focus for motivation begins to shift away from evaluation and towards client outcomes (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2011).

Engage

In the final stage of the model, Engage, faculty supervisor and supervisee roles are reversed from the Learn stage. Faculty supervisors engage supervisees in the middle and highest dimensions of knowledge (i.e., application, analysis, synthesis, evaluation, and creating) as outlined by the revised Bloom's Taxonomy (Anderson, et al., 2001), as their transition to a passive role is now complete. Now functioning more as a consultant, this allows the faculty supervisor to provide formative and summative evaluation regarding supervisees' professional and ethical development, while preparing supervisees for their post-graduation supervision processes.

Supervisees at this stage are now actively engaged in generating their own learning and skill development with actual clients, signaling a transition to Level 2 of the IDM (Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2011). This stage includes creating, analyzing and evaluating

their own and their peers' performance via session transcripts and video/audio tape review. They also synthesize their knowledge and experiences into their advanced professional identity. Table 3 offers examples of activities to utilize during the Engage stage as well as corresponding learning dimensions for each activity.

Specifically, student supervisees present a 10-15-minute clip of a recorded session with a client (pending client permission to record and present in class), with a template of the clip provided to their peers and faculty supervisor. Template includes: 1) verbatim statements from both the client and counselor, 2) clinical skill identification, and 3) theoretical rationale for each supervisee response and/or alternative responses. A rubric for evaluating the student supervisee's demonstration of the basic counseling skills, multicultural awareness, ethical considerations, and professional identity development is provided to their peers, as previous literature suggests that peer evaluation is a critical component of developing an autonomous professional identity (Golia & McGovern, 2015).

Prior to the start of case presentations, faculty supervisors clarify that their evaluation is primarily based on the student's case conceptualization and alternative statement, rather than responses during the session. Shifting this focus on skillset is an effort to alleviate student anxiety and continue emphasizing motivation towards client outcomes and self-other awareness. The faculty supervisor serves as a teacher and consultant during the case presentation, providing constructive feedback and encouraging feedback from peers. The supervisor may also serve in the counselor role to encourage autonomy and self-reflection. Upon completion of case presentations, the faculty supervisor encourages student supervisees to evaluate their own development. This process

encourages autonomy and expands on the student supervisee's active role in their own development. This activity provides a framework for faculty supervisors to promote supervisee development, ensure ethical responsibility, and meet academic requirements.

Throughout the three stages, faculty supervisors work collaboratively with students and site-based supervisors to evaluate skills and dispositional progress. Faculty supervisors encourage students to identify their own areas for growth with short-term objectives and long-term developmental goals. Expectations are clear, direct, and objective, with continuous support through each stage of development. The faculty supervisor attends to gatekeeping issues and ethical responsibilities while continuously monitoring student progress and client safety. This evaluative process is collaborative with the site-based supervisor and is accomplished via site visits, phone calls, and email conversations. Open communication with all three members ensures a strong working alliance among students, site-based supervisors/agencies and university programs.

Learning Objectives of the LEE-S

There are three overarching objectives for student supervisees within the LEE-S model. The first objective for student supervisees is to demonstrate growth in motivation, autonomy, and self-other awareness through their progression from Level 1 to Level 2 described in the IDM. The student supervisees' second objective is to establish their own ethical and professional identity. The third objective is to exhibit preparedness for professional practice in their field beyond graduation, including but not limited to, a plan for continued supervision and awareness of licensure/certification requirements. These goals are met as student supervisees progress through the three phases of the LEE-S Model.

Practical Implications

The LEE-S provides a framework that addresses the previously identified gaps in literature regarding faculty supervision in higher education. The LEE-S accomplishes this by providing a framework for faculty supervision in an academic setting, which addresses the shift to competency-based pedagogy (Borders, 2014; Gonsalvez & Crowe, 2014). The model aims to answer the call for best practices for faculty supervisors instructing field, practicum, and internship courses by providing an integrated pedagogical framework that includes competency-based learning and the shifting of roles for supervisors and supervisees based on student development (Borders, 2014; Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2011).

The LEE-S includes explicit attention on the part of the faculty supervisor shifting between teacher, consultant, and counselor to alleviate student supervisee anxiety. The LEE-S mirrors recommendations from the IDM in terms of adapting supervision methods to meet unique developmental needs of student supervisees. As student supervisees progress from Level 1 of the IDM to Level 2, the supervisor transitions from active leader to passive facilitator in the learning process. The sequential nature of the LEE-S supports progression of student supervisee autonomy, motivation, and self-other awareness.

Limitations and Future Suggestions

Infusing literature surrounding best practices in both teaching and supervision, the LEE-S provides a holistic and adaptable model for faculty supervisors. However, it is imperative to examine the limitations of the currently proposed LEE-S model. The LEE-S does not present a new conceptualization of pedagogy for faculty supervision; rather it integrates previously identified teaching and supervision pedagogy. The summative

difference then, is its intentional application of practicum/internship faculty supervision in a classroom setting.

Measuring the effectiveness of the LEE-S model in multiple helping professional fields and comparing the results may be beneficial. Callahan and Watkins (2018) noted strong evidence of discipline-specific variability in our understanding of supervisory processes. Quantitative measurement may focus on demonstration of skills competencies, knowledge acquisition, and professional dispositions. Further, qualitative exploration of the subjective experiences of student supervisees, attending to their feelings of anxiety, may also prove beneficial for demonstrating the effectiveness of the model. Finally, examining the nuances of role reversal, developmental level progression, and supervisor developmental level may provide greater insight into training faculty supervisors on how best to meet their student supervisees' needs, while also following ethical and institutional standards.

The LEE-S model is specifically tailored to faculty supervision within the higher education classroom setting. The model encompasses well-established theoretical frameworks, based on the IDM, Discrimination Model, Bloom's Taxonomy, and Flipped-class pedagogy. It also offers concrete activities for faculty supervisors working to meet the unique developmental needs of supervisees during practicum and internship, while attending to their ethical and academic responsibilities. As a critical component of graduate level learning, models like the LEE-S, which utilize pedagogy that intentionally guides this process is crucial in the overall development of the professional student/clinician.

Supplementary Material

Table 1

Stages of the LEE-S Model

Stage	Supervisor Role	Learning Activities	Supervisee Role
Learn (Remember and Understand)	Active and Directive – preparing supervisees on the process and protocols of supervision	Lecture and In-Class Discussions Examinations Review of Code of Ethics	Passive recipients of Knowledge/ Memorization Demonstration of Comprehension

	Work to decrease supervisee anxiety Begin low-stakes transition to Expand stage	Professional Identity Reflection Papers	Higher level of Comprehension
Expand (Apply [low stakes] and Analyze)	Demonstrator of skills Become less active as supervisors become observers and in-vivo feedback providers to supervisees Begin low-stakes transition to Engage stage	Videos and Supervisor Demonstration In-class role plays and in-vivo feedback Observe skills of peers Personal Reflection Papers	Observing expert application Become more active through interactive observation of application Active role via low-stakes attempts at role-plays with peers
Engage (Apply [high stakes], Analyze, Evaluate, and Create.)	Passive role – observing supervisees' application of skills with clients Providing feedback to improve, continue professional and ethical development of the supervisee Preparing supervisees for post-graduation supervision processes	Applying skills with clients Transcription and Video Review Analyze and evaluate peers. Synthesizing knowledge and experience into an advance professional identity	Active role via high-stakes application of skills with clients Providing feedback to peers via interactive observations Autonomous professional identity. Responsible for accepting and implementing feedback for improved performance

Table 2

Activity 2: Active Role-play

Activity Component	Faculty Role	Student Focus	Knowledge Dimension	Cognitive Level
In-vivo Supervision	Teacher, Consultant	Shift motivation to collaboration	Procedural	Apply

		and outcomes vs. evaluation		
Group Discussion	Counselor	Minimize Anxiety Self-other Awareness	Metacognitive	Analyze Evaluate

Table 3

Activity 3: Case Presentations

Activity Component	Faculty Role	Student Focus	Knowledge Dimension	Cognitive Level
Case Presentation	Teacher, Consultant, Counselor	Shift motivation towards client outcomes and self-other awareness	Conceptual Procedural	Understand Apply Analyze
Transcript	Teacher	Minimize Anxiety	Conceptual Procedural	Evaluate Create
Post-presentation Goal Setting	Consultant	Autonomy, Self-other Awareness	Metacognitive	Evaluate Create

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Amanda Dishon Brown is Associate Professor, School of Social Work,
Northern Kentucky University.

Dorea Glance is Associate Professor, School of Kinesiology, Counseling, and Rehab Science,
Northern Kentucky University.

Alessandra Rhinehart is Assistant Professor and Clinical Director,
Northern Kentucky University.

The Impact of a Poverty Simulation on Pre-Service Teachers' Attitudes Toward Poverty

Joanne Caniglia · Kent State University (iD)
Davison Mupinga · Kent State University (iD)

Author's Note: Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Dr. Joanne Caniglia, Kent State University, Room 401H White Hall, E-mail: jcanigl1@kent.edu.

Abstract

This study sought to determine the attitudes of preservice secondary teachers towards poverty before and after participating in the Missouri Association for Community Action simulation. The authors analyzed qualitative and quantitative data from participants. Using the Attitude Toward Poverty survey (Yun & Weaver, 2010) both before and after the simulation, results indicated that participation in the poverty simulation led to greater awareness of the plight of those with limited resources. The uniqueness of this study was the addition of focus groups that met months after the simulation. Implications for practice are provided.

Keywords: attitudes, experiential learning, poverty, preservice teachers, simulations

In 2019, the nation's poverty rate for children was recorded as 16.2% representing approximately 11.9 million children considered to be living at or below poverty (PovertyUSA.org, 2020). The federal government sets the poverty threshold, which depends on family size. In the 48 contiguous states, the poverty level for a family of four is an annual income of $25, 926 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2019). Demographic information of persons entering the teaching profession indicates that few are within the poverty threshold, yet they often begin their teaching and mentoring careers in districts with many students living within the limit (Hamilton & Daughtry, 2017; Taie & Goldring, 2017). Payne (2005) suggested that delineations in economic status form distinct social classes within our society that can be harmful. While studies have examined the beliefs that pre-professionals hold toward students who live in poverty (Amatea et al., 2012; Jackson et al., 2018), there is a lack of research examining the effectiveness of various strategies to promote positive attitudes and attributions toward poverty. This study sought to determine the effectiveness of an experiential learning poverty simulation by a change in attitudes of preservice teachers before and after the simulation and following student teaching.

Literature Review

Although economic disparities often exist between teachers and students, certain teacher beliefs can overcome the potentially detrimental effects of such misalignment. Zeichner (2005) asserted that the teachers that are most successful serving students living in poverty maintain high expectations for all students. Those teachers also explicitly tell students they are capable of learning. Furthermore, what teachers judge about their students has severe implications on the quality of instruction students receive, since teachers' beliefs play a dominant role in influencing instructional practices (Aragon et al., 2014).

Preservice Teachers' Beliefs About Poverty

Preservice teachers in the United State continue to enter a teaching field that is becoming White, middle class, and female

dominated (Amatea et al., 2012; Mundy & Leko, 2015). This demographic is in stark contrast to the students' demographics that many will teach, thus, widening the diversity gap between teachers and their students. Bettini and Park (2017) found that this difference in socio economics often leads teachers to develop lower expectations and a deficit perspective toward students in poverty. Teachers who carry this orientation into the classroom often feel less accountable for student learning, increasingly focus on perceived student deficits, and set less rigorous goals for their students when they factor in knowledge of a student's race and/or social class (Diamond et al., 2008).

Mundy and Leko (2015) offered additional insight into beliefs of pre-service teachers that often reflect that of society. Specifically, they found that preservice teachers identified the need to address the assumption that parents in poverty lack concern for their children's education. Since family resources may be limited, a more empathetic and accurate understanding would be that parents in poverty typically must provide for children while working multiple jobs, and that these choices appear to be a lack of care to those who are uninformed (Mundy & Leko, 2015). As preservice teachers enter their professions, they bring prior knowledge and experiences acquired from their families, personal experiences, and K-12 schooling; hence, their attitudes are a part of and often developed long before they enter preparation programs (Bennett, 2008; Mundy & Leko, 2015).

Bias Toward Poverty in Teacher Education

An essential step for professional development programs to disrupt these biases is to increase preservice teachers' awareness of the realities of poverty and helping them form accurate conceptions of the relationship between poverty and education (Payne,

2005). Researchers of education and poverty advocate for teacher educators to provide preservice teachers with (a) knowledge about the realities of poverty, (b) opportunities to discuss and observe the influence of poverty on teachers and schools and (c) produce examples of children and families from poverty who have asset-based attitudes (Paul et al., 2004). The goal of learning tasks related to poverty in teacher education is to promote a movement toward the structural perspective (examines why persons are poor versus some personal trait) and away from negative stereotyping. According to Gorski (2012),

When it comes to issues surrounding poverty and economic justice the preparation of teachers must be first and foremost an ideological endeavor, focused on adjusting fundamental understandings not only about educational outcome disparities but also about poverty itself… it is only through the cultivation of… a *structural ideology* of poverty and economic justice that teachers become *equity literate.* (p. 379)

Gorski (2016) further explained why it is critical to build teacher education processes related to equity concerns around the goal of ideological shifts rather than deficit or grit ideologies. If a teacher believes people who experience poverty are inherently deficient through some fault of their own (i.e., laziness), then no strategies will ever assist the transformational process necessary within the preservice teacher mindset (Berliner, 2006; 2013). However, if preservice teachers (PSTs) are aware of the structural issues like housing instability to building-level issues like policies – for example, harsh punishments for school absences – that can punish students experiencing poverty because they are poor.

Another ideology that can prove negative is based on "grit theory." One of the original authors, Duckworth et al. (2007), described this perspective as the idea that there are

personal attributes that enable some people to overcome adversity that might overwhelm others. Grit ideology does not include or represent the "flaws." Based on these ideologies, researchers recommend that preservice teachers espouse a structural ideology shift (Gorski, 2012). This article is an examination of the ability of a poverty simulation to move pre-professionals from a deficit or grit ideology to one that advocates a structural one.

Poverty Simulations and Learning

Simulation often refers to computer-based representation of real-life situations (Campos et al., 2020); however, as an instructional technique, this strategy replicates aspects of practice in the real world with directed and interactive experiences (Lateef, 2010). While there are so many variations of simulations, depending on the subject matter, available resources, and time (Swinson et al., 2016), they are generally in the form of role-play activities or software programs. Several fields, for instance, aviation (Lateef, 2010), medical (Merriman et al., 2014), and military (Strachan, 2012) already use simulations for training purposes. In education, simulations are used as standalone delivery approaches or used to complement traditional methods of teaching.

The rationale for simulations is in their ability to provide hands-on activities that are as authentic as possible and low risks to participants, especially where mistakes could be costly and or catastrophic (Kaufman & Ireland, 2016), as is the case in the training of pilots and medical doctors. Besides, research has established the effectiveness of simulations at imparting desired knowledge and skills (Chou & Liu, 2013; Woodham, 2018).

Given constraints on professional education programs and the often-difficult task of finding field placements, Menzel et al. (2010) implemented a poverty simulation, as

the one described in this study. Significant improvement in attitudes toward the poor was exhibited, in approximately one-third of statements. However, in that one-group study like others, it is often unknown whether these attitude scores were related to the poverty simulation or other experiences. Thus, this study examined PST's attitudes immediately before and after the poverty simulation while also studying the longer-term impact of such an experiential experience.

The Missouri Association for Community Action Poverty Simulation

The Missouri Association for Community Action Poverty (MACAP) Simulation is a three-hour hands-on community education program designed to provide participants an opportunity gain empathy for those living in a low-income family (Missouri Community Action Network, 2010). MACAP allows participants to 'experience' realities faced by having low-incomes and community resources available to them.

The simulation requires the involvement of 40 to 85 participants who will assume roles of up to 26 different families living in poverty (MACAP, 2010). The task of the "families" is to provide for necessities and shelter for one "month," consisting of four-15-minute "weeks." A large room with tables and chairs is needed to accommodate the number of participants and resource staffers. The program starts with an explanation of the simulation and presentation on the background information of the local poverty demographics. Simulation participants portray individuals with low income and represent various kinds of families, for example, unemployed, elderly, or have a disability. Other families have recently been deserted by the "bread-winner," while others are recipients of Temporary Assistance for Needy Families, also known as welfare.

Volunteers staff the poverty simulation portraying community resources: grocery stores, police, food pantry, employment office, social services office, pawnshop, and others who create a local economy for participants (MACAP, 2010). The families must meet specific goals for four 15-minute weeks. One example of a goal is to apply for welfare assistance and complete the forms within 15 minutes. Similarly, a family needs to meet with a representative of an employment office and apply for work or negotiate the payment of utility bills within this period. At the end of the simulation, a facilitator leads a discussion based on the families' experiences in the activity. The community resource providers and participants share their insights as to how circumstances in the simulation compare to reality in their community.

Thus, the purpose of the current mixed-method study was to determine the influence of a poverty simulation on preservice teachers' attitudes toward poverty. Attitudes were measured immediately before and after the poverty simulation, as well as after PST's student teaching. Two research questions framed this study:

1. What were the experiences of preservice teachers while participating in the poverty simulation?
2. How did preservice secondary teachers' attitudes change, in the short and long term, due to participation in the poverty simulation?

Methods

This study employed mixed methods, including a survey and transcripts of debriefing sessions. Surveys were administered before and immediately following participation in the simulation. A small subset ($n = 18$) of PSTs participated in a focus group following their 14-week student teaching experience.

Settings and Participants

This study occurred at a large Midwestern public university. Sixty-four secondary, undergraduate preservice teachers, representing secondary science, mathematics, language arts, and social studies, participated in the MACAP simulation, a week before beginning student teaching. Of the 43 study participants, 67% ($n = 29$) were female and 33% ($n = 14$) were male. Self-reported ethnicity data showed that participants were White (88%), Asian (3%), Hispanic (7%), Black (1%), and 1% did not reply. Of the 43 PSTs who responded, a subset of 18, volunteered to participate in focus group interviews (consisting of a similar demographics as the sample). For this focus group included 18 PSTs who finished student teaching in urban/high poverty districts, 8 PSTs in suburban districts, and 2 in rural schools.

The MACAP simulation was used in this study to mimic a month of living with limited resources. Some researchers (Noone et al., 2012; Vandsburger et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2014) have used the program to simulate the day-to-day experiences of people living in poverty. Participants assume a role in one of 26 family units varying in size from a single older adult to a 5-person multi-generational family. Chairs were arranged in the middle of the room served as each family's home. Surrounding the homes were various community resources used by the 'families' during the simulation. Examples of community resources included, school, bank, employers, health clinic, utilities, child-care center, and a food store for groceries, clothing, and prescriptions. This simulation requires an open space, approximately 3000 square feet, to allow for furniture set-up for participants and each community resource.

Instrumentation and Data Collection

Researchers administered the Attitude Toward Poverty (ATP) surveys to preservice teachers immediately before and after the simulation. The pre-simulation survey collected demographic information, current financial outlook, experience of living in poverty, and attitudes toward poverty (Yun & Weaver, 2010). The ATP's 21 items measures the constructs of personal deficiency (e.g., "Poor people are dishonest"), stigma (e.g., "Welfare mothers have babies to get more money"), and structural perspective (e.g., "I would support a program that resulted in higher taxes to support social programs for poor people"). The post-simulation survey included the ATP and open-ended questions about their experiences of the simulation. Three months following the simulation, 18 (28%) of the 64 simulation participants volunteered for focus group interviews (three focus groups of six participants). Focus group participants were asked two questions: (1) How did the simulation contribute to any change in your attitudes toward poverty? (2) Any ideas or suggestions on how changes in attitudes can be sustained? The focus group interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed, coded, and analyzed for themes.

Data Analysis

Means, standard deviations, frequencies, and percentages were used to describe the data. Sub-scales were created for the three scales on the ATP. Reliability analysis was conducted for scaled items. Qualitative responses were coded by analyzing responses and then further combining categories with similar ideas into themes. Creating themes allowed researchers to reflect on the ways people discuss particular topics, and to develop the scope of their experience (Morse & Richards, 2002). Two independent coders (teacher educators) undertook the analysis and compared their findings to provide data

validity and triangulation. In order to check for reliability, a second pair of coders (secondary teacher educators) independently coded the data following the coding protocol, which resulted in agreement in findings. Focus group data were analyzed using the process of open coding where transcripts were read, and codes emerged. Each transcript was then again read, and parts of text noted as codes. The final stage of the analysis process was thematic delineation, in which all participant quotations were placed in an EXCEL worksheet according to code and themes (Miles et al., 2014).

Results

The results of the study are presented in two sections: (1) quantitative data, and (2) qualitative data. Quantitative data is from the ATP pre- and post-simulation, and qualitative data is from the open-ended questions and focus groups that followed student teaching.

Quantitative Data

Pre- and post-simulation means, standard deviation, and frequency for each of the ATP (Short Form) 21 items are presented by personal deficiency, stigma, and structure in Table 1. Reliability for the scales ranged from .66 to .91. Pre-test mean scores of personal deficiency (1.90) and stigma (2.70) indicate disagreement. Mean for structural perspective (3.50) was the highest rated factor indicating agreement. Post-test mean scores of personal deficiencies (1.86) and stigma (2.45) indicated disagreement with statements. Structural perspective was the highest-rated factor with a mean of 3.84.

A significant difference was detected between the pre and post scores at $p < .05$ for the stigma [$F(1,63) = 4.61$, $p = .04$] and structure domains [$F(1,63) = 5.377$, $p = .042$]. Findings can be interpreted as an attitude improvement in the stigma domain and

structure domain. There was no difference in the personal deficiency domain from pre- to post-test.

Qualitative Findings

Qualitative data sought to answer the two questions: "What was your experience like in the poverty simulation?", and "How did your perspectives, behaviors, and actions change due to participation in the poverty simulation?" To answer the first question, participants' experiences from the poverty simulation were categorized into four themes in the areas of transportation, stress, anger at structures, and sadness/empathy.

The first theme of transportation emerged. Participants indicated a surprise and could not believe how important transportation is to those people in poverty. The simulation provided participants with situations where they could empathize as indicated in statements like: "When you have your own car, you never think about other people" and like and "I always ran out of bus tokens!" Both challenges also created a reliance on others.

The second theme that emerged was 'poverty creates stress.' By going through the simulation, participants could see how living in poverty is full of stress. The concept of there not being enough time was also a stress indicator. One participant stated, "I could never get done with everything I had to do."

The third theme that emerged was the construct of anger. Participants indicated that poverty simulation made life more difficult. In turn, it appeared that anger increased at structures that make life more difficult when you are poor. After the simulation, one participant reported that "I always blamed the poor" and they went on to say, "Society is also to blame."

The fourth theme was sadness. Participants overwhelmingly reported that it was sad to hear about the struggles of the poor. Additionally, it was sad to hear those in the audience acknowledge the simulation is a reality for many. One participants said, "You really have to take advantage of the resources that you do have" and "There should be more programs to help people."

Four themes emerged to answer, "How did your perspectives, behaviors, and actions change due to participation in the poverty simulation?" The themes that emerged were an increased need for compassion, judging parents, keeping high standards, and importance of knowing the students.

The first theme that emerged was the importance of compassion. Participants indicated that teachers need to treat students with greater compassion. The simulation reduced some participants' judgments in relation to students in poverty. One participant said, "I will never judge a student who looks disheveled again."

The second theme that emerged was judging parents. Participants indicated that they made judgements of parents based on a number of items that might not be in the parents' control. One participant stated, "Some parents never come to school events, now I know reasons why." Lack of engagement due to poverty appeared to be seen as lack of caring. Another participant stated, "I will offer more support to students." It can be seen that "Wow! Home-life is so important" and poverty can impact the parents' ability to engage.

The third theme that emerged revolved around the concept of academic standards. It was reported that it is important to keep high standards. While people saw the impact of poverty, they did not want to see requirements lowered. Rather than lower expectations, the simulation created an understanding to help lift students up. To that effect, one participant stated, "I don't want to lessen [academic] standards, but I do want to offer more scaffolds."

The fourth theme was knowing the students. Participants felt it was important to

know students and know them well, that is understanding their needs and challenges. One participant indicated, "I am sure some of my students are from families like this" and provided a concern for their needs. For these students, a preservice teacher said, "I need to make sure that I am aware and get to know my students."

Focus Group Findings

Contribution of Simulation to PST's Perspective and Behavior Changes

The focus groups sought to see how participation in the poverty simulation changed perspectives. In general, PSTs felt that they would benefit from more training on issues of poverty. Preservice teachers who student taught in urban school districts responded to questions differently than those who worked in suburban schools.

Suburban student teachers spoke in generalities about the poverty simulation and its impact, for example, "I thought it was a good activity, but it did not relate to my situation." PSTs who taught in suburban schools had an opposite reaction regarding parental involvement; many parents "are too involved with their child's progress and time is not a problem for them to attend school functions." Although PSTs who student taught in suburban areas may have experienced a change in perspective, the simulation did not affect their attitudes after student teaching.

Comments from their urban counterparts, however, were specifically directed to events of the simulation. On changing their perspective, one PST remarked that comments made during the debrief were especially meaningful and changed their views on poverty. One comment was, "When I heard that some of the people here at this university slept in a car for years, it changed me." This comment was echoed by another student who said, "When I could not get

around to everything I needed to do, I realized how our society makes it difficult on the poor, so my perspective changed and I think I gave my students more understanding."

Ideas on Sustaining Effects of the Simulation

Four themes emerged from the combined responses of the four focus groups. The first and most prevalent recommendation for sustaining the effects of the simulation was to increase or redesign assignments to include how to teach in schools with limited resources. Selected suggestions from the groups, included (1) "You could bring in expert teachers from inner cities to give us some help but also to inspire us," (2) "Reshape our assignments to include more emphasis on teaching the rich and the poor," and (3) "Give us more time to talk to each other [about our lives in general]."

Institutionalized Commitment

Students in two of the focus groups wondered why there were so few courses that offered opportunities to teach in urban and suburban settings. A selection of their comments illustrates their feelings (1) "Less reading and more of our presence in these schools," (2) "Let's have more discussions and experiences about these issues in all classes," (3) "But definitely include the experiential part. You remember it more."

A departmental and institutional-level commitment is helpful to overcome the major barriers to making a simulation-based experience sustainable, especially by covering maintenance costs, identifying community leaders, and overcoming staffing issues. Furthermore, there is a need to encourage leaders to promote the program mission and value statements that include diverse settings for teacher preparation as an essential component of institutionalizing such programs.

Creating a Non-Threatening Environment

Although not a majority voice, two students spoke on behalf of students who did not share the same belief systems with the creators of the MACAP simulation. One student claimed, "Not everyone was a liberal," and that "It seemed pretty political." Care must be taken to maintain a constructive attitude toward the learning process and to focus on letting participants arrive at their own conclusions rather than being told what the "correct" position should be. Attention to these issues is essential for the promotion of a sustained learning experience, which may lead to improved participation and satisfaction with the learning experience. These students suggested that those who disagree could possibly debate in an open forum type setting (Ayres-de-Campos et al., 2011).

Implications for Practice

Apart from lived experiences, simulations provide as close to reality as possible, especially in situations where one cannot experience living in poverty. Based on the results of this study, there are benefits to using simulations to bring awareness and understanding of people living in poverty to all personnel who will work directly or indirectly with youth. Secondly, the involvement of community members and social service agencies in the simulation experiences adds the local conditions to the activity. Lastly, the simulation experiences provide youth workers information on forms of support for people living in poverty available in their respective communities.

Conclusion

How poverty and other social determinants of education create barriers to the achievement of educational equity is an essential component of preservice teacher preparation. This simulation provided preservice teachers with a chance to empathize with those in poverty. The findings from this study are consistent with previous studies (Clarke et al., 2016; Patterson & Hulton, 2012; Yang et al., 2014) in which participation in simulation changed perspectives. This study indicated that the stigma and structural perspectives changed but not views of personal deficiency. Participation in poverty simulation led to greater awareness of the plight of those with limited resources. The uniqueness of this study was the addition of focus groups and recommendations from PSTs to extend the simulation beyond the one event. A future research direction may be to examine the effects of the simulation beyond PST's student teaching experience after their first, second, and third year of teaching.

Supplementary Material

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for Scales

Attitude About Scale	# of items	Cronbach's α	Mean of Pretest	*SD* of Pretest	Mean of Posttest	*SD* of Posttest	*F*	*p*
Personal Deficiency (Lower score is sign of improvement)	7	.66	2.01	.60	1.86	.47	.2518	.626
Stigma/Fatalistic (Lower score is sign of improvement)	8	.91	2.72	.17	2.45	.24	4.616	.043
Structural (Increasing score is sign of improvement)	6	.81	3.50	.27	3.84	.27	5.377	.042

Note: Rating scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree.

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Joanne Caniglia is Associate Professor at School of Teaching, Learning and Curriculum Studies, Kent State University.

Davison Mupinga is Associate Professor at School of Teaching, Learning and Curriculum Studies, Kent State University.

COMMENTARY

Failing, Learning, and Failing Again: How College Professors Experience Humanness in the Work of Teaching

Donna M. Elkins · Spalding University
Robin Hinkle · Spalding University

Abstract

The narratives presented in this article explore themes found in two different female professors' perceived teaching failures. These failures span three classes over a span of many years, in three different higher education institutions, and in both undergraduate and graduate courses. The goal of sharing these narratives is to expose and consider the "humanness" and failure college teachers may face. The narratives explore failures such as student complaints, poor student evaluations, students not performing well, and mistaken assumptions about student abilities or knowledge. These narratives also reflect on the root of some teaching failures and the learning, pain, and reoccurrence of failures that can happen even to experienced and successful teachers. Through the lens of what teaching failure actually means, how it sometimes is not correctable, and the role student affective evaluations play in our self-determination of failure, these specific experiences are shared to provide encouragement to others who have faced similar failures and may well face additional teaching failures in the future.

Keywords: teaching failures, instructional communication, teaching and learning, teaching narrative

Throughout their career, college professors confront failure from a variety of angles. For example, what worked in one class may not work well in another section of the same class. Students may do poorly on assessments even after being engaged in the classroom. There is not enough time to move students' learning forward in significant, measurable ways. Sometimes personal stress in the professor's life affects her connection to the students and the class material. Professors may build class content based on their own preferences, strengths, and expectations, which do not match those of their students. Firestein described failure in his book titled *Failure* as coming "in many flavors, and strengths, and contexts, and values, and innumerable other variables" (Firestein, 2016, pp. 7), and this is true in the college classroom as well.

How do we measure failure? Professors rely heavily on student evaluations to determine whether they have "failed" in a course, even though self-report measures in student course evaluations are known to possess fatal flaws such as correlating more closely with affect (e.g., liking, satisfaction, contentment) for the course or instructor rather than any true measure of cognitive learning (Hess, 2015; Myers & Goodboy, 2015) and reflecting gender biases (Rosen, 2018; Schmidt, 2015). However, reading student comments on formal summative evaluations are just one way that faculty members can feel failure.

Because failures are personal, unique, and are, at least partially based in the perception of the one who thinks she has failed, narratives are a sound method to use in examining what happens in failure, specifically in teacher-perceived failures. Experienced faculty members who have been in the classroom for years develop a cadre of stories about teaching experiences. Sharing and analyzing those stories for areas of personal teaching failure and how those failures have been used

to continue growing as educators, or simply continue to fail in new ways, is less prevalent. As Firestein (2016) noted in his book *Failure*,

> Failures like these not only lead to greater insights, they often lead to very unpredictable insights. They force us to look at a problem differently because of the particular way in which they failed…Failing better means looking beyond the obvious, beyond what you know and beyond what you know how to do. Failing better happens when we ask questions, when we doubt results, when we allow ourselves to be immersed in uncertainty. (pp. 15, 27)

The kinds of stories we tell about failure often point to how they eventually led us to success. College professors often tell stories of something they tried in the classroom that failed and how they adjusted it, learned from it, and moved on to be more successful. While valuable, those are not the only failure stories of worth. Narratives of how the failure was perceived, uncertainty about the impact of corrections not yet tried, results that include recurring failures, or realizations that similar failures are likely to happen again are valuable as well.

Failure Narrative #1: Blindsided by Student Reactions More than Once

September 11th happened on a Tuesday. At the time, I was a graduate teaching assistant (GTA) in a doctoral program, teaching my first ever upper-level (junior/senior) course in business communication. I did not have class on the day of the attack, but I remember standing in the middle of my small apartment living room and seeing the first tower collapse. I went into a state of shock and denial. The university I attended did not elect to cancel all classes the next day, however. Though professors were told they could cancel for the day if they wanted, GTAs were not given the same latitude. My response was that I would teach the class as "normally" as I could since that is what the university seemed to be expecting. The class met on Monday, Wednesday, and every other Friday for 50 minutes. I came into the mid-morning class of about 30 students that Wednesday morning and was somewhat surprised to see that nearly every student was there. Many of them were having conversations about someone they knew in New York City or a story they had heard on the news. I took just a moment as I typically did to chat with them about the events of the day before and then we went to the lecture and activity of the class as if it were any other day. I do not remember what our specific topic was on that day, but likely, it involved explanation and some practice of a communication management theory. I did not tie the content in any way to the event that was on everyone's mind.

Though I cannot pinpoint it, I think that is where my failure in the class started. Maybe it had already begun, and this is where it fully blossomed. Perhaps, there was already disgruntlement that I had not registered. Maybe I imagine that day as the starting point to assuage my ego for having missed earlier signs or to lessen the requirement for having to take the blame for not organizing or delivering the course in a beneficial way for students to learn. If a class goes wrong, is it not easier and less humbling to point to an event, a turning point, something not quite in your control as the culprit?

As the fall semester extended into mid-October, my teaching advisor called me into her office and said there had been some student complaints. I had heard some students complaining about testing practices different from mine in another section of the class so I asked if the complaints she had mentioned were from my class specifically and she said clearly that there were multiple complaints from both classes. I was blind-sided and flabbergasted by her report and immediately jumped to making excuses and downplaying those complaints in my mind. I believed

if there was any complaint in my class that it had to be from only one student who had been somewhat disruptive in the class. However, she had used the plural term "students."

Looking back, I think even prior to that meeting I had suppressed a general feeling that things were not going well in the class: I was lecturing directly from the textbook too much; the one disruptive student would occasionally make semi-snide personal comments that I did not address; I was exhausted from my own doctoral course load. These things did not register for me until I actually heard the advisor saying there were complaints. I listened while in my mind already making excuses about the turmoil in the country in general (9/11) and the obnoxious student who seemed to be a ringleader in balking at writing assignments. As a result of the conversation with my advisor, I made no changes. She did not offer any concrete ideas for what I should do differently. I felt in over my head at that point in my doctoral program. My dissertation proposal was topmost on my mind. I had started a new long-distance romantic relationship. I was burned out from four years in doctoral study and my priority was to finish the dissertation. The content of the class I was teaching was not as familiar to me as other courses I had taught. Quite frankly, I did not have the repertoire of teaching strategies to layout a different plan mid-course. Therefore, I continued to lecture heavily, have a few small group activities, do objective tests, and make writing assignments.

In the end, that teaching failure turned into lower than normal student evaluations, a couple of harsh student evaluation comments that I have never forgotten (for example, "I can't quite explain why, but she just can't teach"), and a severely bruised ego on my part. Here, I was, the GTA who had consistently gotten high evaluations in freshmen courses (even, I am embarrassed to admit, bragging about them at times to my fellow GTAs), realizing that I had failed at teaching this upper level-course. I felt like a fraud and wondered if I would ever win a faculty position, or more frighteningly, be able to keep one if I did win it. The following semester I opted to take a research assistantship and not teach at that institution again. I shoved the teaching evaluations into a folder in the back of my desk drawer and tried to forget them by convincing myself that they reflected an anomaly.

Looking back years later with many teaching experiences under my belt and what I thought was a much sounder grip on student learning needs, I sometimes recalled that class and told myself I would have done things very differently if I had it to do over. Rather than focusing on the "tyranny of coverage" (Firestein, 2016, p. 78), and plowing ahead to try to cover the range of concepts and management styles in the textbook, I would have been more serious about the complaints and worked to address the frustrations students were expressing. One way this could have been done was by reassessing learning outcomes to a few larger issues in the field, realizing that "covering" is not teaching or learning (Huff, 2015; Monahan, 2015). I would have been much braver and talked to the students, asking what I could do differently to improve the learning experience for them. I would have acknowledged the shocking impact of 9/11 on our world. I would have dropped the lectures and designed more interactive learning assignments. I would have loosened up from attempts trying to convey authority and my right to be there in front of them and been more collegial. Yes, I thought I would not let a class be such a "failure" again now that I was more experienced.

Then it happened again.

Here I was with years of teaching and even administrative experience under my belt, and no national tragedy to lean on as the turning point. Once again, I was teaching a senior-level course in a large research university, this time, a media and politics class for a political science department. I was teaching the class as an adjunct "on the side" from my regular community

college job and it was a struggle even to physically get to the classroom twice a week in the afternoon. More than once, I wore blisters on my heels running in the heat from the parking lot nearly a mile away to reach the class on time.

The class was one that I had not taught before, in a department outside of communication, and I was busy with a full-time job in addition. So what did I do? I lectured to "cover" everything from the textbook and then engaged in a few small group activities. For the assessments, I expected a far greater amount and a higher level of writing than students were prepared to do. I was disconnected from their major program so I had little to no context about what they had learned before or would be learning after this class and about their level of writing experience to that point. Though the actual time in class was not so difficult - we often talked about current events, worked in groups, discussed theories or topics, when the final papers came in, none of them were of the quality I expected. Even some of the best academic students would have received failing grades if I had used the assignment rubric I had designed. A few weeks after the class ended and I received the student evaluations in the mail, I also had a note from the department chair, which laid out the teaching evaluation results for every class in the department that semester. Though the results for the course and for myself as the instructor were not terribly low, I had received the lowest teaching evaluations in the department. I was blind-sided, flabbergasted, and emotionally hurt.

After some time of reflection, I realized I had set one standard in the class – lecture and then do a discussion activity or talk about a case study, but when it came time to assess what they had learned, I used a completely different measure – one I had in no way prepared them to do well. Miller (2014), in her book *Minds Online*, used the term *transfer-appropriate processing* to describe how even deep meaningful thought about course topics may not prepare students for high performance on assessments "if students are engaged in a very different type of activity when they are tested" (p. 96). Rather than prepare students with smaller mastery assignments "in which failures lead toward future success," I made that final paper a "high stakes assessment" so that not doing well on it would affect students' overall grade (Miller, 2014, p. 194). I had made erroneous assumptions about the level of academic writing for which the students were prepared. I believe I wanted to hold the students to higher writing expectations because I was trying to prove to them and myself that I was knowledgeable enough to teach this course and to work with more advanced students even though my "real job" was in a community college and my Ph.D. in another discipline.

In both cases, I struggled with imposter syndrome and feelings of not being prepared or "good enough." The imposter syndrome is a phenomenon described by psychologists Clance and Imes in 1978 as feeling like an academic or professional fraud, especially as it applies to women and people of color (as cited in Edwards, 2019). Feeling like an imposter can lead women into a "dangerous cycle of…attempting to forecast others' perception of them and then performing behaviors based on those assumed perceptions" (Edwards, 2019, p. 19). These behaviors can include increased diligence or working harder than needed, or in my case, trying hard to project authority and advanced level of knowledge that I did not feel. These are common concerns for GTAs. Exhibiting command of the material and balancing authority and rapport continue to be the top two categories of teacher communication concerns for GTAs (Dannels, 2015).

After these two holistic failures, years apart, I now focus my classes on crucial learning outcomes rather than "cover" a wide array of topics. Research shows that students react more to what professors do in class with course objectives than to what the syllabus might say (Appling et al., 2012; Leone et al., 2019). Students could accurately identify implied course objectives when they were part of the professors' daily teaching practices, therefore, Leone et al. (2019)

recommended professors use daily classroom messages and activities to communicate course objectives to their students rather than relying on syllabus statements. Using course outcomes as the foundation for designing a course known as *backward design*, (Bowen, 2017), rather than designing for simply covering material, I now know is far more effective for learning.

My teaching experiences currently include far fewer and smaller failures than those described above. How do I measure my lack of failure? I do it just as I measured my holistic failures, primarily by student affective reaction on student evaluations and demonstrated learning. I now have consistently high student evaluation scores, generally positive outcomes for students, and frequent positive comments from many students even teaching a range of courses from undergraduate freshmen to graduate courses. I would like to say that I learned from the failures to improve my teaching and that is true to an extent, but the larger change I think has been in my natural development as a teacher and increased confidence in my knowledge and abilities.

Failure Narrative #2: Three Mistaken Assumptions in a Graduate Business Course

I have been teaching a research course since I began as director of a graduate business program at a small liberal arts university. In addition to how to perform business research, the course provides instruction about how to find data and the particulars of APA formatting, which is a requirement for the curriculum of the program. Since all of these outcomes serve the student in good stead for every other course in the program, the research course is recommended as the student's first course in the program. Over the six years I have been in this position, I taught this course in a seated format, while another faculty member taught it online. Every year, we did an after-action review and collaborated heavily on how to continually improve the course. Yet, the content of the course that was repeatedly not striking a chord with our students was grasping the concepts well enough to apply them. We considered that it may be too academic, not relevant to the student's real-life work, or perhaps they were simply not prepared from their undergraduate studies for how to tackle research. We were both conflicted about what to do and after much discussion and two strong pieces of evidence; we decided to drastically alter the course.

The first data point in favor of altering the course came from our school's external advisory board, consisting of representatives of local companies who have a vested interest in the success of the business school. One mechanism the Advisory Board uses to ensure the relevancy of our curriculum is an external review conducted every three years. We conducted the external review in July 2015 and 2018. In both reviews, we provided participants with the curriculum of the graduate program, asking if any courses should not be included. The results from 2015 and 2018 indicated that Research Methods lacked fit with the rest of the curriculum. With two consecutive reviews indicating this, we could not ignore it.

The second persuasive item was a recent study by the Educational Activities Board (EAB) on new program ideas for the School of Business at our university suggesting that *Marketing Analytics* represented a promising area of graduate study (Passov & Conway, 2018). However, including analytics in a concentration of the graduate program lacks feasibility, as statistical concepts are foundational for such a degree. The curriculum does not include statistics, which is required to take advanced analytics courses. Additionally, admission to the graduate program is open to any student with an undergraduate degree in any discipline and many students lack any courses in statistics. Students often select this program over an MBA due to their desire to avoid statistics. With the popularity of analytics, however, it is compelling to provide an introductory

glimpse into extracting insights and stories from datasets and effectively presenting those to audiences.

Thus, in fall 2018, we replaced the Research Methods course with a new course, Data Visualization and Storytelling. As instructors, we saw a professional need for our students to be able to analyze and interpret data and communicate the results. Being able to use data to tell a compelling story aligned well with the rest of the curriculum and gave students essential skills for the workplace.

The data collection aspect of the previous Research Methods course required an inordinate amount of time, which rushed the later portions of the research process. The layout of the new course, Data Visualization and Storytelling, presented the research process in addition to how and why useful data is collected within the first two weeks of the session. In the remaining weeks, students used a provided dataset(s) to hone in on analysis and representation of data using Excel.

Since the course is a part of my program, I took the lead in creating the new course, including the student learning outcomes and creating content that aligned with those desired outcomes. I collaborated with my chair, who would continue to teach the online section, and with an IT professional who would deliver the technical content on Excel. We choose Excel rather than software specifically for data visualization, such as Tableau, due to its prevalence.

In hindsight, I made three erroneous assumptions in the creation of the course that nearly doomed it from the beginning. The first assumption resulted from having taught the former course and believing I, therefore, had the requisite skill set to teach this one. Given the concerns I had regarding student engagement with the previous course, there was some evidence that I was not even teaching the former course that well. When I look back, it is clear that my ability to cull the research process to provide adequate instruction in two weeks was compromised by the aspect of research that I enjoyed the most. Namely, I spent an inordinate amount of time on data collection. This stemmed from my affinity for survey design, development, and administration. Since I love the process of creating useful questionnaires, I could not pare it down to fit more proportionately in this class. On my midterm check-in with students, one student commented on how "she got going on this and it certainly sounded like she knew what she was talking about." The takeaway was that the student certainly did not understand what I was saying. I was trying to cram everything into a short amount of time because I could not give up the idea that students needed to know this, but my students were not learning it.

The second assumption included separating the research process too much from the data visualization. I asked students to use a real-life problem in their research for the first two weeks and then I gave them a completely different data set for creating visualizations and telling a story. While the demarcation was clear in my mind, it caused no end of confusion for many of my students. We received multiple emails asking which topic they were to use in assignments beginning after the second week. No amount of saying we are done with the first research topic from their real-life could make this clear.

The first two assumption errors were based on my beliefs about what students should want or need from the course. My inability to see how important it was to let go of my preferences kept us on a topic when we should have moved on to content that would have bridged the research to the visualization. I thought using a topic from the student's real work would make the research process more salient and the outcomes more useable; however, since we did not use it later in the course, it added time and the students could not see the benefit. Both of these worked as costs of getting down to work with interpreting data and creating visualizations.

With the course in the future, I will instruct on the elements of an effective survey for collecting usable data without belaboring the details of instrument development. This change will give students basic information for collecting survey data on their own, as well as how to detect poor design in questionnaires they receive. Rather than asking students to research a real-world topic, they will develop a topic based on the dataset they will use to create their visualizations. The continuity of the topic should reduce the confusion when the attention shifts from developing a research topic and writing a literature review to analyzing the data.

While the first two erroneous assumptions represent blind spots, the third assumption was one I would have never considered. I would have probably dismissed the notion out of hand if someone had mentioned it before teaching this course. When I tell other instructors, a few have reacted as if they had known about this all along. I am skeptical that this is the case. The assumption was that an adult learner, in graduate school, has some experience with Excel. As it turns out, they do not. Although every single student completed a bachelor's degree and have several years of work experience, some have managed never to use Excel. How can it be that when I opened up a spreadsheet for students to see in class, for some who was the first time they had ever encountered such a phenomenon? While some students were building on their Excel skills, some were utterly baffled.

The way this lack of knowledge played out in the classrooms resulted in constant stops and starts in teaching, where a few lost students asked very fundamental questions about Excel, while the rest of the class waited. One question that let me know this was a very uneven playing field was "what is the equal sign for?" in the formula bar. My IT partner was leading the instruction at that time and he handled it beautifully. I, on the other hand, was so flabbergasted that I might not have been able to mask it had I been the one fielding the question.

While the class was in process, how to level set the class on Excel skills bewildered me. A few students indicated that they "were lost" with a small subset of those proving this by having a crying jag right in the classroom. With this impetus, we immediately created tutorials to walk them step-by-step through their assignments. Even this did not prove to be enough. For the graduate level, the course meets the threshold for rigor and complexity. Removing aspects or lowering the difficulty compromises the integrity of the course and the student learning outcomes. In addition, it would not add value for those familiar with Excel to take up instructional hours for the remedial activity. With the ubiquity of Excel, there is a plethora of tutorial videos readily available. Carefully curating these videos for relevance and brevity allows them to serve as supplemental resources for those needing them. This would simply require adding a section to the learning management system to alert students and give them the discretion of judging their ability and determining if the extra time and effort is warranted.

Institutions of higher education are aware of challenges among undergraduates with varying levels of technological readiness and skill deficiency when it comes to knowing necessary computer application skills, especially when it comes to understanding of databases, spreadsheets, and other software commonly used in business and industry (Buzzetto-Hollywood et al., 2018). This teaching failure demonstrates that lack of technological preparation is not limited to undergraduates alone. It can also be a barrier for those entering graduate programs as well.

Conclusions about Learning from Teaching Failures

How many failures in the classroom are helpful for college professors? Firestein (2016) argued, "We commonly underestimate the amount of failure that is acceptable" (p .19). However, as those who do sometimes fail in the college classroom will point out, failures in teaching are not

commonly accepted either by those of us in the profession, by those who evaluate our programs, or even by students themselves.

In the narratives presented common threads become clear. One common thread is that too often teachers are focused on the coverage of a subject and meeting their own goals rather than students' learning. In addition, expectations of students, whether the level of writing expertise of upper-level undergraduates or the level of spreadsheet experience among graduate business students, are sometimes far removed from reality. There are multiple ways to better understand students' abilities and to mitigate failures based on mistaken assumptions, which can include: engaging with students outside of classes to gain insight into their preparation; discussing outcomes with other faculty in our programs; and mapping program-level outcomes to be confident about where different outcomes are taught and reinforced in our classes ("Mapping Learning," 2018). Program maps can be especially beneficial to adjunct or new faculty teaching a course in the program for the first time since they are removed from where students are in the learning process and what they are learning on an overall program level.

Another common thread is that failures can happen at any point in a professor's career. These failures are seen not only in early teaching situations but they can arise throughout a teaching career. The more GTAs, new faculty, adjunct faculty, and others in our academic community, especially minorities and women, are exposed to teaching failures the less likely they are to succumb to the harshness of negative student evaluations, lower ratings from students, and imposter syndrome (Edwards, 2019). Seeing and hearing about teaching failures from colleagues will show them that failures are not fatal, that they do arise, that they cannot always be easily solved, or sometimes not solved at all. If we want to arrive where Firestein (2016) points and see failures as leading to greater and unpredictable insights (p. 15), and as impetus to "ask questions" and "doubt results" (p. 27), we must do a better job of being transparent and discussing failures just as we do success. It is important to acknowledge that sometimes failures repeat themselves, even years apart, despite our growth in teaching experience.

A third common thread is the difficulty of parsing our perception of personal failure as a teacher from the affective reaction of students. Students' affective reactions to a class or to an instructor reflected in their evaluations are not equitable to failure. Though we know teaching evaluations are not the most reliable measure of students' learning (Hess, 2015; Myers & Goodboy, 2015) in a course, they can still carry quite an emotional sting and even professional penalty. Though we know female professors are rated lower than male counterparts on student ratings (Rosen, 2018; Schmidt, 2015), the comments and numbers still pack a punch to the ego and even, in some cases, to the promotion of faculty. Students' self-report of affective learning in student evaluations should be only one means of assessing whether we have "failed" in that classroom. Student achievements such as visible gains on the main learning outcomes are another reasonable measure even if the students do not acknowledge or "feel it" yet themselves.

Another common thread to note is that teaching failures can blindside, with little or no forewarning, especially if our thoughts or level of expectation fail to align reality. Often there are signs that a failure is coming, but we can miss those signs until we see the final papers students turn in or until they cry right in front of us over an assignment. To alleviate opportunities for blindsiding, formative evaluation or check-ins along the way with students to gauge what they see as working or not working is important. Better to find this out from your own formative evaluation than to only see it at the end of the course or when a supervisor confronts you about complaints. Multiple forms of checking in with students throughout the class are available. Brookfield, in his book *The Skillful Teacher* (2015), provides a five-question Critical Incident Questionnaire (CIQ)

that can be used as often as weekly to check in with students and to gather their reactions to certain assignments, activities, or topics and prevent being blindsided by their reactions or abilities at the end of the class (The CIQ can also be downloaded here: http://www.stephenbrookfield.com/ciq).

Perhaps most importantly, we need to find kindness and appreciation for our "humanness" in higher education (Toni & Makura, 2015, p. 44). As professors, we are sometimes in seasons of personal trauma or divided attention so that just making our way to the classroom is a "win" regardless of student reaction. As educators, how do we think about ourselves and our students beyond the classroom? Is our purpose to simply see students achieve a passing grade in the course material, achieve mastery of a certain outcome, or are we truly concerned about the larger "humanness" of their lives and the outcomes not neatly reflected in our semester-long syllabi?

A final note is that although failures in the classroom can be humbling and a painful blow to the ego as well as the emotions, there is no reason not to share them even if the stories you tell about them do not end with success, with figuring out what to do next time, or with a positive result. Your own teaching narratives help build a more humane culture of teaching in our institutions. If you find it impossible to speak your experiences aloud to colleagues, write them down. Firestein (2016) argued that, "Good failures…are those that leave a wake of interesting stuff behind: ideas, questions, paradoxes, enigmas, contradictions" (p. 11). Exploring our humanness as college professors, being more authentic, embracing failure as an element of the work we do, and being more open to sharing failures as well as successes may prevent our own burnout and just might help the colleague down the hallway deal with her failures from last semester too.

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Donna M. Elkins is Professor at School of Communication, Spalding University.

Robin Hinkle is Assistant Professor at School of Business, Spalding University.

The Value of Social and Emotional Learning: Considerations for Kentucky's Approach to Trauma-Informed Schools

Valerie Flanagan · Campbellsville University (iD)
Seneca Rodriguez · Campbellsville University (iD)

Abstract

As Kentucky schools implement trauma-informed plans, as required by the School Safety and Resiliency Act, faculty and administration should evaluate their present performance in areas that impact trauma training implementation and monitoring, including social and emotional learning (SEL). This study explores the value of schools assessing current strengths and areas of growth concerning school-wide structures, classroom strategies, and partnerships within the process of establishing a trauma-informed school that fosters a safe, supportive environment for all students. Feedback from educators completing a survey of school characteristics within these areas reveal that while several practices are evident throughout classrooms, educators want to learn more to help support trauma-exposed students. Existing barriers include little or no access to training, and an insufficient amount of time away from instruction for training or implementation. In addition, there is a lack of SEL strategy implementation within classrooms involving students' identification and regulation of emotions and use of coping skills. These findings suggest the necessity of an evaluation tool to measure the effectiveness of meeting trauma-based themes within a school. Results reveal the need for SEL to serve as the foundation for resiliency and trauma-informed teams and schools. Educator Preparation Programs could embed SEL competencies within teacher educator pedagogy, including classroom culture and daily plans. Furthermore, Kentucky might consider adopting SEL standards for guidance and implementation at all grade levels.

Keywords: social and emotional learning, trauma, resiliency, educator preparation programs

Kentucky's School Safety and Resiliency Act (Senate Bill 1) requires schools and partnering agencies to assist with meeting identified needs within the realm of school and student safety (Kentucky Department of Education [KDE], 2020a). In response to the legislation calling for trauma-informed schools and a focus on educational resiliency, the Kentucky Department of Education (KDE) developed a Trauma Toolkit, released in July 2020. Trauma toolkits created in other states present similar themes, including an overview of the characteristics and identification of types of trauma, trauma-informed teaching strategies to use within classrooms, and other factors to consider when addressing trauma within schools. The legislation requires Kentucky school boards to establish a trauma-informed plan by July 2021 (KDE, 2020a).

In recent years, Kentucky has witnessed trauma training made available in and outside of schools, primarily hosted by external organizations and collaborations with trauma centers, counselors, and university faculty, among others. The Bounce Coalition (Bounce, n.d.), established in 2014, generated successful pilot programs within the urban city of Louisville, and continues to offer training and support to schools, teachers, and community members seeking trauma-informed information, including

resiliency skills and how to recognize and respond to at-risk students according to the Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs) tool (Bounce, n.d.). A grant has allowed the Bounce program to be piloted within a rural south-central school system, through a partnership with the Lake Cumberland Health Department, which began in the 2019-2020 school year (Foundation for a Healthy Kentucky, 2019).

Similar to the endeavor of the Bounce Program, Project Advancing Wellness and Resilience in Education (AWARE) originated in 2014 as a five-year grant to focus on providing training and resources to meet the mental health needs of students, including partnering with state and regional agencies for support (KDE, 2019). Select larger urban school districts received Project AWARE grants and KDE project members partnered with other mental health agencies throughout the state to assist schools with support in meeting safety needs of students (Kelly, 2015). Following grant completion of Project AWARE in 2019, Project AWARE 2 continues to provide training and support for the trauma-based topics to districts within three collaboratives across the state. Funding for this project extension was made available by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration and was facilitated by members of the University of Kentucky Center on Trauma and Children (Sweeney, 2019). Overall, the Bounce and AWARE programs seek to provide a similar cornerstone within schools: a safe and supportive learning environment for all students.

The Kentucky Department of Education's new Trauma Toolkit is designed into three guidance documents addressing specific areas required by the School Safety and Resiliency Act. The Understanding Trauma and Traumatic Stress resource discusses the prevalence of trauma, the ACEs tool, and summarizes types of trauma (KDE,

2020d). A separate document defines characteristics of a trauma-informed school, including the Four Rs (Realize, Recognize, Respond, and Resist Retraumatization), along with key principles and assumptions among effective trauma-informed schools (KDE, 2020e). The final document, Trauma Informed Teams, provides guidance for districts to consider when forming each school's trauma informed team by the noted deadline of July 1, 2021 (KDE, 2020c).

While fostering resilience is noted in the title of the School Safety and Resiliency Act, KDE's Trauma Toolkit resources do not specifically identify ways resiliency is intended to be placed within a trauma informed response. Moreover, educational resilience seems only to be evident within the final reference of Kentucky's Revised Statute 158.4416 to provide a safe and supportive environment for all students (KDE, 2020a). In 2020, visitors to the Kentucky Department of Education website could locate resources concerning resiliency within the social, emotional, and behavioral health Safe Schools section, independent of the Trauma Toolkit information. Within this social and emotional learning (SEL) page, trauma informed resources are referenced, indicating a connection between trauma and SEL strategies (KDE, 2020b).

The importance of establishing a safe school environment with social and emotional learning incorporation in education relates to Kentucky's statistics concerning child abuse and neglect. According to the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (2018), Kentucky leads the nation in child maltreatment, ranking first or second in all states for more than a decade. According to the recent 2018 Child Maltreatment report, Kentucky's child abuse rate is approximately 23.5 victims per 1,000 children, more than double the national average of 9.2. The current estimate of 23,752 child abuse victims in Kentucky

reveals an increase of 32.5% from 2014, when 17,932 child victims were identified within the state (U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2020). When addressing childhood trauma, practices such as nurturing social and emotional regulation skills are often implemented (Dombo & Sabatino, 2019). Educators focusing upon embedding SEL practices can support a safe environment for all students, including those exposed to trauma (Terrasi & Crain de Galarce, 2017).

According to The Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL, 2019), SEL centers upon five interrelated core competencies that encourage the enhancement of behavioral, cognitive, and affective domains that are imperative for social and academic success. The model emphasizes improving core competency skills, such as social skills and attitudes by focusing on positive relationships and social support systems. School based SEL involves helping learners and educators develop the skills to enhance positive internal development by focusing on core competencies in the realm of social relationships, ethical behavioral gains, and productive work. The five core competency areas include self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills, and responsible decision-making (CASEL, 2019).

Schools may benefit from examining their approach to SEL practices, trauma, and fostering resiliency. Terrasi and Crain de Galarce (2017) suggested that stakeholders complete a Trauma Sensitive School Checklist to evaluate if crucial elements addressing trauma are present within the school. The assessment provides feedback to participants in the areas of school-wide policies and practices, classroom strategies and techniques, collaboration and linkages with mental health services, family partnerships, and community resources. While the authors did not examine responses

to the assessment within their writing, the piece encourages assessment participants to utilize results to determine areas of strength and growth for all school personnel when evaluating their approach to building a trauma sensitive school (Terrasi & Crain de Galarce, 2017).

Within Terrasi and Crain de Galarce's Trauma Sensitive School Checklist, created through a collaboration between the Trauma and Learning Policy Initiative and Lesley University Center for Special Education, are social and emotional themes relating to coping skills for students, emotional regulation, and resilience as they pertain to creating a safe learning environment (Terrasi & de Galarce, 2017). Dombo and Sabatino (2019) shared the importance of cultivating a culture that offers opportunities for building and exploring a secure atmosphere by modeling self-regulation and de-stressing techniques, as well as incorporating time for students to recognize and reflect on their emotions. Often, students exposed to trauma experience triggers within their classroom environment and begin engaging in trauma re-enactment behaviors with adults as they attempt to defend themselves and adapt to surroundings. In these and similar instances, teachers can practice safe teaching behaviors and model positive interactions (Dombo & Sabatino, 2019). Jennings (2019) echoed the need for a supportive classroom environment for trauma-exposed students, alongside instructors sensitive to students' behaviors, including those dynamics within peer and teacher relationships.

Recognizing the need for trauma and SEL informed practices within schools and locating resources to assist with school goals is the foundation of creating a successful trauma-sensitive school culture. Prior to a school system implementing trauma training, such as programs offered through outside partnerships or resources similar to what is found in the new KDE toolkit, it is necessary

to obtain an understanding of the current culture and policies in place that pertain to trauma. In preparation for all Kentucky schools to implement trauma-informed plans according to the Act requirements, this study sought to reveal the effectiveness of utilizing an assessment tool to measure the current strengths and areas of growth concerning school-wide structures, classroom strategies, and partnerships. In addition, these results could be evaluated to assist the participating schools and regional Educator Preparation Program (EPP) in addressing the areas identified for growth.

Methods and Participants

Regardless of which strategies are chosen to respond to trauma within schools, faculty and administration should evaluate their present performance in a variety of areas that impact trauma training implementation and monitoring, including social and emotional learning awareness. The mixed methods survey provided to participants in this study contained elements of Terrasi and Crain de Galarce's Trauma Sensitive School Checklist within 22 Likert-type scale response prompts, as well as three dichotomous responses and three open-ended prompts featuring the participants' knowledge of trauma training, trauma plans within the school, and overall thoughts on the topic. Likert-type scale item responses consisted of rating practices as fully or mostly present and conversely, partially, or not present. Within the 22 Likert-type scale practices for respondents to evaluate, items were grouped according to theme: school structure (two prompts), classroom culture (12 prompts), and partnerships (8 prompts). Open-ended item response themes were established utilizing specific words/phrases found within each participant response to each specific item. If a response included more than one theme, the response was counted within both

categories to ensure all comments were present within results.

Key terms were defined within the survey as participants were directed to rate the presence of the piece within their school and all classrooms. The definition of classrooms included all classes throughout the school where instruction is taking place, and the term administration encompasses all assuming leadership positions throughout the school. Finally, trauma was defined as present when a child experiences an event that causes harm or is a serious threat to the individual's emotional or physical safety or well-being, including: community violence, physical abuse, early childhood trauma, neglect, domestic violence, natural disasters, and complex trauma. The results of this and similar checklists can offer factors for schools to consider concerning evaluating their current and future approach to current policies, structures, teams, strategies, and partnerships in these areas. It is important to note that an overall rubric for interpreting final survey results is not present within the checklist, as educators can determine what ratings reveal according to their expectations, mission/vision, and other criteria.

For this study, responses collected demonstrate the perspectives of 38 school staff members concerning these factors in two southern rural Kentucky school systems in January of the 2019-2020 academic year. The survey was made available to all school staff to complete, with a response rate of approximately 15%. Overall, a majority ($n = 23$) of the participants served in elementary school teaching positions, with 68% ($n = 26$) teaching as general or subject area teachers, 13% ($n = 5$) as special education instructors, 7% ($n = 3$) as other certified teachers, 5% ($n = 2$) school guidance counselors, and 5% ($n = 2$) other support staff. Nearly half ($n = 18$) of the participants reported serving within schools more than 15 years (see Table 1).

Results

The findings reveal nearly a third ($n = 12$) of respondents felt unprepared to support students exposed to trauma, while three quarters ($n = 29$) of participants identified a trauma plan as present within the school (see Table 2). When reviewing individual respondents ($n = 29$) reporting a trauma protocol present within the school, 17% ($n = 5$) reported still feeling unprepared to provide trauma support to students. In addition, 82% ($n = 32$) of respondents reported discussing the topic of trauma with their colleagues. Participant thoughts about receiving trauma informed practices reveal a majority ($n = 32$) believe training would be helpful, while three noted already receiving trauma training (see Table 3).

A majority ($n = 30$) of participants believed it was within their realm of responsibility to provide trauma support, with eight percent ($n = 8$) of respondents noting a partial obligation to do so (see Table 4). When participants were prompted to explain their perception of personal responsibility to provide trauma support, 21% ($n = 8$) of explanations cited the necessity of guidance counselors and more resources for this care. Thirteen percent ($n = 5$) noted they were a student's first line of defense and it was included within a child's education (see Table 5). Eleven percent ($n = 4$) highlighted students needed this support and five percent ($n = 2$) mentioned this is part of building relationships with students. One response indicated not wanting to be responsible for trauma support, while 11% ($n = 4$) described partial or some degree of responsibility of trauma care falling within their realm of duties (see Table 5). One respondent noting more resources are necessary mentioned the need to help students struggling with emotions and negative feelings, citing that the required

viewing of videos on suicide prevention as not enough to prepare teachers.

When participants were prompted to share perceptions of barriers to implementing effective trauma-informed instruction, time was cited as a barrier by 24% ($n = 9$) of participants, concerning within the classroom to assist students with trauma and learning strategies (see Table 6). Forty-two percent ($n = 16$) of participants noted concern over a lack of training for responding with trauma informed strategies. Two participants mentioned a lack of teaching students coping skills and large class sizes as challenges. One respondent mentioned the presence of SEL strategies within their school's approach to teaching and learning, but a lack of trauma-based resources.

The Likert-type scale items were grouped into three sections, including school structure, classroom culture, and partnerships, based upon the topics within each prompt. Concerning participant views of their school's physical design fostering a safe environment for transitions and sensory needs, 42% ($n = 16$) noted a full presence and 45% ($n = 17$) defined the item as mostly present within their school's structure (see Table 7). Discipline policies were reported as fully developed with faculty input and consistently enforced 29% ($n = 11$) of the time, with 58% ($n = 22$) noting this aspect was mostly present and 13% ($n = 5$) partially present.

Eleven items within the survey prompted respondents to reflect upon school-wide practices within classrooms (see Table 7). Items participants identified as a full presence of the practice with a rating of 50% or more included faculty providing students immediate emotional and behavioral support, administrative support provided as requested, student interests incorporated within classrooms, a variety of techniques utilized to assist student learning, and student learning through interactions with others. Between

45% and 50% of respondents selected full or mostly present for classroom culture items noting structuring activities in predictable and emotionally safe ways, implementation of positive supports for behavior, and that classrooms assist students in developing and utilizing problem solving strategies.

Within the SEL strategies realm of the classroom culture section, participants rated each item 45% or less within each level, from not to fully present. Thirty-two percent ($n = 12$) noted a full presence, 45% ($n = 17$) mostly, and 24% ($n = 9$) of respondents noted a partial presence of classrooms providing opportunities for students to explore and discuss ways to identify and regulate emotions (see Table 7). Thirty-four percent ($n = 13$) of participants selected partially present and another 34% mostly present to describe the routine offering of guidance and practice in the use of different coping strategies within classrooms, while 32% ($n = 12$) found this practice to be fully present. Thirty-two percent ($n = 12$) of all participants noted a full presence, 42% ($n = 16$) mostly, and 21% ($n = 8$) a partial presence of classrooms allowing students to help create guidelines associated with class culture/climate and instruction concerning evaluation of learning. Five percent ($n = 2$) of educators reported a total absence of this opportunity in classroom evaluation of learning. Respondents reported 40% ($n = 15$) of classrooms fully providing opportunities for students to share their problems and gain appropriate social support, with nearly 18% ($n = 7$) only partially practicing this strategy.

Within the realm of partnerships, respondents reported 45% or higher ratings of a full presence of six items involving professional learning communities maintaining a focus on student achievement, administration providing ongoing professional development, surveys of staff for professional development choice, faculty evaluation of school initiatives, faculty

assistance from mental health providers, and the use of a variety of strategies to engage and foster positive relationships with families. While school and community members collaboration to address areas of need was rated 40% ($n = 16$) at the fully present level, that item had 50% ($n = 19$) participant ratings as mostly present. In the area of trauma services, only 34% ($n = 13$) noted complete access to trauma-competent services from prevention, through treatment, and intervention. Twenty-four percent ($n = 9$) noted partial access to these trauma services, and five percent ($n = 2$) an absence of this support (see Table 7).

Overall, within the topic of school culture, discipline policy co-development and enforcement was identified as only 29% ($n = 11$) fully present, 58% ($n = 22$) mostly present, and 13% ($n = 5$) partially present (see Table 7). While 58% ($n = 22$) report this practice mostly present, there is a lack of participants noting a full presence of this strategy, as it also relates to classroom culture results concerning the prompt with the lower percentage of classrooms with a full presence of involving students in co-creation of classroom guidelines ($n = 12$).

An analysis of the classroom culture section reveals the following SEL-based item ratings were 45% or less present at all levels for classrooms providing opportunities for students to: explore and regulate emotions, share problems and gain emotional support, guidance and practice of coping strategies, and co-creation of guidelines within class climate and instruction. In general, the items with 45% or less in each rating level had a higher percentage of partial presence ratings.

Limitations

This study models the important feedback that arises as school staff members are provided a way to evaluate the presence of SEL and trauma-informed practices within

their schools and classrooms. These valuable results could serve as a useful monitoring tool for effective implementation in areas noted for improvement. While this study includes responses from a small portion of educators within the school systems whereupon the survey was offered, similar themes concerning how to approach trauma training and SEL strategies emerged among educators with varying years of experience and expertise. Further exploration in schools across the state, particularly in urban areas where diversity and socio-economic backgrounds of students and educators may influence perspectives, could help uncover similar trends or further areas for growth.

Concerning the survey format and items, it is of importance to note that while definitions were provided to participants as they pertained to each section, respondents may have had further questions each were unable to ask for clarification due to the online format of the survey. Participants were also prompted to apply the statement to all classrooms, which may result in differing responses if respondents were focusing on rating each prompt from an individual and not collective perspective. In addition, the intention of this and similar tools is to highlight faculty, administration, and staff perceptions on any progress or change initiative within the school that may pertain to these areas. Thus, as the tool is utilized, responses are expected to fluctuate throughout the year. Moreover, variations may arise in perceptions between educators and administrators concerning evaluation items.

Discussion and Implications

The survey of school characteristics proved beneficial in revealing participants' thoughts towards the current approach to fostering a trauma-informed school environment. While KDE's Trauma-

Informed Teams Toolkit document cites the Trauma and Learning Policy Initiative website (KDE, 2020c), one author/collaborator of the Trauma Sensitive School Checklist, within the final list of resources, a specific emphasis upon similar tools should occur as schools move forward with trauma-based plans.

Within the Likert-type scale categories of school and classroom culture and partnerships, the combined percentages from the fully and mostly present ratings were 80% or more regarding 15 prompts. This indicates participants viewed their school's approach to many trauma-informed practices as evident throughout classrooms. These existing practices can assist administrators and educators in implementing further trauma-based supports, including the required trauma-informed teams.

While most practices were collectively rated as fully or mostly present throughout the school, there were also lower ratings for some items that suggest areas for future growth and exploration. Within the combined fully and mostly present ratings noted in the Results section of the study, classrooms routinely offering coping strategies presented the lowest percentage overall at 66% ($n = 25$), while the second lowest combined ratings of 71% ($n = 27$) were noted in access to prevention and support for trauma competent services. Within the prompts for faculty evaluation of school initiatives and classrooms allowing students opportunities to co-create guidelines for class culture, both combined ratings were 74% ($n = 28$). Access to mental health professionals and classrooms providing students time to explore and regulate emotions combined top ratings to approximately 77% ($n = 29$). Furthermore, one third of participants ($n = 13$) rated opportunities to provide classroom guidance and use of coping strategies at a partial presence rating, the highest for any item at that level. Overall, the SEL-based

items, including coping strategies, regulation of emotion, and incorporation of student ideas, are among the least present trauma-informed practices within the respondents' schools and represent areas for growth and reflection.

Participant open-ended responses overwhelmingly noted the need for further training and resources concerning implementing trauma informed strategies within the classroom, and specifically cited a lack of time to learn trauma strategies, as well as implement within larger classrooms as common barriers. Furthermore, respondents noted a need for coping and emotional regulation skills within open-ended responses, which align with the specific SEL prompt ratings within the survey suggesting only 32% of classrooms fully implemented these practices. Focusing on the SEL needs of students helps to create a secure foundation of resiliency, and the idea harkens back to studying Maslow's work among other learning theories in Educational Preparation Programs. If Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs were to be reimagined, would it include a greater emphasis on emotional and social practices within the psychological needs level in course discussions?

Implications would then extend to include emotional regulation and social learning strategies and skills to be embedded into pedagogy at an earlier time, rather than delaying the wisdom for a later professional learning opportunity. These essential skills, or competencies, should carry the same weight as standards-based lesson learning targets and outcomes, as they further serve as culture motivators and supporters. Moreover, teachers should first reflect upon personal understandings of emotional and social skills and other biases, as well as practice mindfulness awareness prior to approaching these areas within the classroom.

A meta-analysis conducted on the effects of school based SEL post-intervention from one to three and a half years revealed the powerful impact of embedding SEL skills into students' experiences. Outcomes concerning holistic well-being from students with varying ethnicity, socio-economic status, diversity, and ages were included in the analysis (Taylor et al., 2017). This 2017 research is intended to bridge the gap following the researchers' meta-analytic review of SEL programs from 2011, which evaluated the effectiveness of 213 school-based SEL programs implemented at all grade levels and demonstrated students receiving universal SEL strategies had higher academic, social, behavioral, and emotional gains compared to those without SEL exposure (Durlak et al., 2011).

The 2017 meta-analysis of the benefits of SEL interventions noted higher graduation rates and overall safer behaviors. The positive effects of SEL interventions were multi-faceted and influential to the course of participants' lives. These positive outcomes were independent of students' SES or diversity, although groups from low socio-economic backgrounds demonstrated higher benefits from SEL interventions. Overall, the studies indicate the longevity of positive effects of school based SEL programs for all students, with early SEL interventions being more effective (Taylor et al., 2017).

As Kentucky begins to explore implementation of ideas found within the Trauma Toolkit documents, released in July 2020, schools may find it necessary to embed SEL practices into classrooms and overall culture. Ohio's newly adopted Social and Emotional Learning Standards (Ohio Department of Education, 2019), based upon the SEL core competencies embedded in CASEL's paradigm to begin this practice. Within this holistic approach that places as much importance on SEL well-being as academic growth, teachers establish a supportive culture that will improve the lives of students beyond the classroom (Ohio

Department of Education, 2019). According to CASEL, SEL is best imagined as a comprehensive approach that encourages a caring, involved, and unbiased learning environment with evidence-based practices that engage all students in their social, emotional, and academic growth. Thus, SEL is instilled into not only all aspects of the school day, but extends into students' homes and community (CASEL, 2019).

To support Kentucky's effort to create trauma-informed and resilient schools, EPPs within the state should consider embedding SEL into the pedagogical foundation of teacher programs. Education-based resilience practices may exist in many classrooms but can be further cultivated to strengthen each student's SEL maturity. It is now the task of preparation programs to emphasize SEL practices within candidates' pedagogical coursework, including classroom management approaches, at all levels and subjects. In turn, this will create the resiliency found to be essential for students to succeed in learning, living, and adapting to ongoing challenges within and outside of academic learning. Teachers will no longer wait to receive or employ trauma based training strategies until a student is recognized as at risk, rather, the focus should shift to providing all teachers with the foundation of embedding these practices within the heart of their pedagogy. In this manner, students will be better equipped to overcome and process the trauma they will all experience. This change involves educators focusing on cultivating these skills not only for their future students in all lessons, but also

themselves. Moreover, this approach will empower students and provide strength to voices to speak up about hard things they may otherwise silence.

It is important to not hinder teacher candidate self-exploration concerning emotions and allow opportunities for each individual to discover tendencies concerning responses to environmental and other factors. This will help educators gauge personal coping skills or emotional regulation strategies employed in situations, or a lack thereof. Educator Preparation Programs could explore existing tools such as personality trait examinations to reveal tendencies to exhibit specific behaviors. Moreover, teacher candidates could complete the ACEs survey to help bring awareness where they may already struggle or how they have healed, further cultivating mindfulness practices. This will better equip educators to serve future students and form effective partnerships when collaborating and leading within trauma teams. Furthermore, it would be advantageous for Kentucky educators, administrators, and EPPs to seek resources and guidance from states that have adopted similar SEL approaches within their trauma-informed response.

In the presence of COVID-19, a firm foundation of SEL strategies is invaluable, as the typical routines of educators and students have changed indefinitely. Now is the time to begin preparing teacher candidates to partner with students in not only growing in their academic understanding, but also their SEL practices.

Supplementary Materials

Table 1
Respondent Characteristics

Baseline detail	*n* (*N* = 38)	Percentage
Grade Level(s) Served		
Pre-K	2	5.3
Elementary (K-5)	23	60.5
Middle (5-8)	6	15.8
High (9-12)	7	18.4
Position		
General or subject area teacher	26	68.4
Special education teacher	5	13.2
School guidance counselor	2	5.3
Other certified instructor	3	7.9
Other support staff	2	5.3
Years of Experience in Schools		
Less than 1	4	10.5
1-2	1	2.6
3.5	2	5.3
6-10	7	18.4
11-15	6	15.8
15 or more	18	47.4

Table 2
Trauma Plan and Preparedness

Responses	*n* (*N* = 38)	Percentage
Does your school have a protocol concerning trauma?		
Yes	29	76
No	9	24
Do you feel prepared to support students exposed to trauma?		
Yes	26	68
No	12	32
Have you discussed the topic of trauma concerning students with your colleagues?		
Yes	32	82
No	7	18

Table 3
Describe your thoughts about receiving trauma informed practices.

Responses Theme	n	Percentage
Training would be useful/helpful/welcome	32	82
Training for trauma already received	3	8
Unsure	1	3
Overwhelming	1	3
Supportive, but does not feel responsible	1	3
Professionals still needed	1	3
Need administrators trained	1	3

Table 4
Do you feel it is your responsibility to provide trauma support?

Response Themes	n (N = 38)	Percentage
Yes	30	79
Partially	8	21

Table 5
Do you feel it is your responsibility to provide trauma support? Why or why not?

Response Themes	n	Percentage
Counselor involvement/resources are necessary	8	21
Kid's safety net/first line of defense	5	13
Included with student's education	5	13
Support students	4	11
Partially responsible for support	4	11
Time/relationships with students	2	5
Avoid being responsible party	1	3

Table 6
What barriers do you think exist for you to provide effective trauma informed instruction?

Response Themes	n	Percentage
Training	16	42
Time (away from instruction and implementation)	9	24
Coping skills for students	2	5
Large class sizes	2	5
Personal concerns	1	3
Resources	1	3
Personal concerns	1	3
Unsure	1	3
Complicated Referral system	1	3
Lack of Counselors/Support Staff	1	3
Not Responsible as a teacher	1	3

None				3		8	

Table 7

Survey Items and Ratings by Section

Responses	Presence with schools (N = 38)							
	Fully		Mostly		Partially		Not	
	n	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*	*n*	*%*
School Structure								
School's physical design (classrooms, hallways, playgrounds, cafeteria, library, assembly areas) fosters a safe environment that is considerate of transitions and sensory needs.	16	42	17	45	4	10	1	3
Discipline policies are developed with faculty/staff input and consistently enforced	11	29	22	58	5	13	-	-
Classroom Culture (School-wide)								
Faculty consistently provide immediate attention within each classroom for a student that may need additional emotional/behavioral support.	19	50	15	40	4	10	-	-
Administrative support is effectively provided for students as requested by faculty.	19	50	15	40	4	10	-	-
Classrooms provide opportunities for students to explore and discuss ways to identify and regulate emotions	12	32	17	45	9	24	-	-
Students' strengths and interests are encouraged and incorporated within classrooms.	20	52	12	32	6	16	-	-
Activities are structured in predictable and emotionally safe ways.	18	47	19	50	1	3	-	-
Classrooms implement positive supports for behavior.	17	45	19	50	2	5	-	-
A variety of techniques are used to present and assess learning for all students.	19	50	18	47	1	3	-	-
Within classrooms, opportunities exist for learning how to effectively interact with others	19	50	17	45	2	5	-	-
Classrooms provide opportunities for students to share their problems and gain appropriate social support.	15	40	16	42	7	18	-	-
Classrooms assist students in developing and utilizing problem-solving strategies.	17	45	18	47	3	8	-	-
Classrooms routinely offer guidance and practice in the use of different coping strategies.	12	32	13	34	13	34	-	-
Classrooms allow students to help create guidelines associated with class culture/climate and instruction.	12	32	16	42	8	21	2	5
Partnerships								

Professional Learning Communities within the school consistently maintain an atmosphere of support and focus upon student needs/improvement.	23	60	12	32	3	8	-	-
Administrators provide support for ongoing professional development/learning and school or district wide initiatives throughout the year/implementation.	21	55	13	34	4	10	-	-
Faculty/staff are surveyed to determine needs/desires for professional learning/development	23	60	9	24	5	13	1	3
Faculty are given the opportunity to evaluate the success/implementation of school and/or district wide initiatives.	17	45	11	29	8	21	2	5
Faculty/staff have opportunities for assistance from mental health providers in responding appropriately to students and families.	20	52	9	24	8	21	1	3
Faculty/staff use a variety of strategies to engage and build positive relationships with families.	18	47	17	45	3	8	-	-
School and community members collaborate to address areas of need as appropriate.	16	40	19	50	4	10	-	-
Access exists to trauma-competent services for prevention, early intervention, treatment, and crisis intervention.	13	34	14	37	9	24	2	5

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Valerie Flanagan is Assistant Professor of Education, Campbellsville University.

Seneca Rodriguez is Assistant Professor of Education, Campbellsville University.

Taking Notes to Increase Predilection, Propensity, and Proclivity in a Higher Education Context

Dia R. Gary · Central Washington University

Abstract

Observing university students' attentiveness to direct instruction frequently finds students multi-tasking. The World Wide Web has made it possible to be in other parts of the campus, city, or even world with a click of the button. Electronic devices offer Facebook, Tweets, E-mails, Minecraft, or a free cyber connection to the latest and upcoming online blog. Activities as such may be more alluring than the professor standing at the podium. This research study is twofold involving 38 students who attended a required class with a focus on assessment in early childhood education. Two separate populations were analyzed, both attending a winter 7:30 a.m. class (2018, 2019). Research questions were: (1) will providing students with note taking guides and assigning points for the completion of those guides increase student learning through the documentation of the final class grade? (2) Will providing students with note taking guides and assigning points to the completion of those guides improve attendance? From this research, it is evident that a positive increase in final grades occurs when guided notes are supplied, required, and inspected. There was no significance in higher attendance percentages, although the mean between the two classes showed a slight increase in attendance of the dependent group.

Keywords: guided learning, note taking, assessment, attendance, teacher education

Students' eyes faced forward appearing to be entranced by the instructor's lecture. However, on further investigation, cell phones buzzed as thumbs texted messages to peers. University officials noticed that faculty and student participation in classes showed a popular trend. The majority of classes across the campus occurred on Tuesday and Thursday from 10:00 a.m. - 2:00 p.m. In fact, many frustrated staff and students had consistently complained about a lack of parking during these preferred days and times. Both students and instructors routinely avoided Monday and Friday classes. Early morning classes were unheard of, and shunned by most, students and faculty alike. However, a small percentage of faculty members preferred early morning classes and requested 7:30 a.m. classes every quarter. According to Johnston (2009), students who were taught according to their "internal clock" achieved higher scores on achievement tests than those who were not. Certainly, there had to be an incentive to attend an early morning class for those students with internal time mechanisms that did not start before 10:00 a.m. With those questions in mind, this research was launched. Would the requirement of note-taking during a lecture, inspecting those notes, and awarding points for taking notes per each class session make a difference in both attendance and or final grades in an early morning Monday/Wednesday lecture required course?

Literature Review

Frequently students are confused about note taking during a lecture. Specifically they may lack the skills to differentiate between what is important and what is not. A variety

of note taking strategies are observed during the time when taking "notes" occurs. The ability to listen to a lecture, organize the information, and write down significant points is an executive functioning skill that may be lacking in some students. A variety of styles is seen in any given classroom. From the small, scribbling type scrawl that includes hand-drawn pictures of PowerPoint slides, to the advanced multi-page dissertation that records word verbatim of what the professor said- including anecdotal examples is evident in most university classrooms (Badger et al., 2001).

According to Chen et al. (2017), the quality of the note taking is of importance. Providing guided notes is not enough to ensure that the main points of the lecture have been grasped. Inspection of those notes must also be implemented. In a similar vein, Badger et al. (2001) posited that how students view note taking increases their participation in taking notes. If they do not see the purpose of taking notes, or know how to take notes, then any effort in encouraging taking notes is unproductive. Boch and Piolat (2005) agreed that very few students know how to take notes lacking the foundational skills of deciding what is important to record and what is not. Moreover, Carrier et al. (1988) purported that gender and learning style also contribute to the perceptions students have regarding note taking to increase learning. Out of 158 students, female participants were more confident when taking notes and achieved higher scores on final examinations than males. Gur et al. (2013) analyzed the delivery of guided notes. Findings documented that providing guided notes before a lecture and allowing students to take notes using those notes concurrent with the lecture showed positive data that supported an increase in student learning when compared to students who were not provided guided notes, or were given the notes after the lecture had occurred. In a similar study,

Raver and Maydosz (2010) shared supporting data showing that students who take notes during the delivery of a lecture perform better than students who do not take notes.

Makany et al. (2008) investigated the type of guided notes provided and the effect of cognitive performance. Comparison groups were analyzed according to "how" they took notes. Two styles were analyzed, that of the more traditional linear style, and taking notes in a graphic organizer style labeled as non-linear. Although the total population was limited to 26 adults, it may be significant to note, at least from this study that "how" students take notes make a difference. Results indicated that the non-linear group performed 20% better than the linear group when measuring comprehension and metacognitive skills.

Note taking may seem antiquated to some, yet to others it enhances the ability to remember and cognitively make sense of the information that is shared. Nye et al. (1984) found evidence exhibited from 246 students who took final exams in an introductory psychology class who took handwritten notes during a class session obtained higher scores on the assessments. His study suggested those students who listen and write down what they hear increased scores on evaluations when compared to peers who took limited or no handwritten notes.

Further evidence that note taking is beneficial for increased learning included a study by Mueller and Oppenheimer (2014) who opined that hand-written notes in comparison to taking notes on electrical devices led to greater gains in retention and final exam grades. Slotte and Lonka (1999) concluded findings of a positive correlation between students who took detailed and succinct notes and higher exam grades when compared to peers whose notes were not as detailed and clearly written. Moreover, Suritsky (1993) asserted that students reported 23 ways that professors could

improve lectures. Of the students surveyed, 42% of the 31 students reported that if professors provided guided notes identifying the most important information student learning would increase significantly.

The purpose of this research is twofold. Since early morning classes were not always popular with university students, it was the researchers desire to use guided notes and points awarded for taking notes to produce an incentive to attend the 7:30 a.m. winter quarter class. The second hypothesis pondered by the researcher was that by awarding points per class session for note taking, students would perform better on quizzes, which would lead to increased summative grades for the final grade.

Statement of Research Questions

As previously discussed, according to Johnston (2009), students who were taught according to their "internal clock" achieved higher scores on achievement tests than those who were not. Certainly, there had to be an incentive to attend an early morning class for those students with internal time mechanisms that did not start until 10:00 a.m. This research is twofold. Would the requirement of completing notes on a supplied guided note format make a difference in both attendance and or final grades in the course?

Participants

This study was conducted over two winter quarters at a small university (student population of approximately 12,000) in the Northwest region of the United States. The course in which the study was conducted was a 400-level course in the required sequence of classes required to obtain teaching licenses for those teacher-candidates desiring to be teachers of pre-school through third grade children. The independent group participation was in 2018, and the dependent

group in 2020. The class was not offered in the winter of 2019. Both winter quarters were very similar in the weather patterns for the region where the university is located (freezing temperatures 32 and below, snow and ice). In the 2018 independent group, 15 students participated in the study. The class was composed of 14 females and one male student. The ethnicity of the students was an adequate representation of the total population of students at the university. Class ethnicities included 10 students who identified as Caucasian, and five who identified as Hispanic. In the 2020 dependent group of 23 students, 21 students identified as female, and two students identified as male. Class ethnicities included 13 students who identified as Caucasian, 5 students who identified as Hispanic, 3 students who identified as African American, and 3 students who identified as Asian.

Methodology

This study utilized an independent two-tailed t-test that compared the final grades and attendance of the independent variable (2018 class) to the dependent variable (2020 class). These two courses were selected because the professor was well experienced in teaching the class and had instructed the class on multiple occasions. The focus of the class was semi-challenging (e.g., assessment strategies, including statistics) for teacher candidates. An added climatic challenge was because the class was offered at 7:30 a.m. during the winter months where freezing temperatures were consistent through the winter months, including snow and ice on roadways. An additional caveat for including this class in this specific study was that the professor already had prepared lecture notes through PowerPoint slides and was not over burdened by printing coursepacs for each student. The coursepacs consisted of a table of contents, one-page colored divider

between each PowerPoint, and three slides to a page with lines for note taking. The independent group had no knowledge of the study and their classes were conducted without a coursepac. Students in the dependent group were told about the research study on the first day of class and were asked if they would like to be included. They agreed unanimously, and the professor ensured that each student had a coursepac. Moreover, they were each told that the remaining five minutes of each class session was a time when the professor would look over their notes and award ten points per class session for taking notes. There was not a precedent set for the quality of the notes; any type of writing or drawings was sufficient to be awarded points. The final grades of the independent group (2018 class) were compared to the final grades of the dependent group (2020 class). Additionally, the attendance percentage (number of sessions students were absent) were recorded in CANVAS (a cloud based electronic system used to upload assignment, track grades, assignments, attendance, etc.) was also compared.

Findings

An Independent two- tailed *t*-test was conducted to compare final grades of students who were given guided notes and expected to take notes during lectures, and students who were not given guided notes with no standard set that notes should be taken during the lecture. There was a significant difference in the scores for guided notes ($M = 88.3$, $SD = 4.95$) and no guided notes ($M = 84.4$, $SD = 5.64$) conditions; $t(36) = -2.48$, $p = 0.03$. These results suggest that providing guided notes, and expecting students to take notes during the lecture does produce better final course grades. Specifically, the data suggest that when students take notes following a guided format

supplied by the instructor that final course grades are better thus leading to the conclusion that the students have learned more in the class than the independent (control) group.

An independent two-tailed *t*-test was also conducted to compare the attendance of students whom were given guided notes, expected to take notes during lectures, and awarded ten points per lecture for taking notes to those students who were not given guided notes with no expectation that notes should be taken during the lecture, nor were points given for taking notes. There was a non-significant difference in the scores for guided notes ($M = 94.26$, $SD = 6.39$) and no guided notes ($M = 89.80$, $SD = 9.84$) conditions; $t(36) = 1.69$, $p = 0.09$. These results suggest that providing guided notes, and expecting students to take notes during the lecture does not produce increased attendance in a winter quarter 7:30 a.m. class. Specifically, the data suggests that student attendance is not based on the delivery of guided notes, or the points that were concurrently added for students who took notes during lectures. In other words, attendance was neither increased nor decreased between the dependent and independent groups.

Discussion and Recommendations

Analyses found that final grades for students in the dependent group were elevated when compared to the independent group. Those students who were taking notes per class session and awarded points for taking notes had substantially higher final grades in the class than the independent (control) group who were not provided guided notes, given the expectation that note-taking was a requirement of the class, or awarded points for taking notes. A two-tailed *t*-test revealed that there was a high correlation between higher grades and the

addition of the guided notes (see Appendix A).

One of the surprising outcomes of the research was that the 7:30 a.m. class time was not significant. Analyses found that student attendance was similar between the dependent group (2020) and the independent group (2018). No significant difference was found; thus, the Null hypothesis prevailed (see Appendix B).

Although the guided notes dependent group received higher final grades than the independent group, it is important to mention that the quality of the notes varied. As posited by Slotte and Lonka (1999) and Chen et al. (2017), the quality of notes also made a difference. In this study, the quality of the notes was not a criterion of the research.

One limitation of the study was that the student perceptions' of taking notes was not taken into account. If the students routinely took notes, then this study merely helped them by guiding their notes with the addition of the PowerPoint slides. If the students were not note-takers, and preferred to listen to the lecture, than the added burden of taking notes may have created a stressful situation.

An additional limitation was the "policing" policy that the instructor took on to ensure that notes had been taken. With the requirement of guided note coursepacs and the incentive of added points, it was assumed that all students would take notes. However, after the first day of class when the instructor "checked" each coursepac, the next session was undeniably a session that encouraged more in-depth notes from each student. The final limitation was the limited participation size. The small number of students participating may lead to generalizations that might be inaccurate and further research should be conducted.

An additional comment from the author for next steps would include a pre-course session on how to take quality notes during a lecture. Brazeau (2006) suggested that giving students completed notes is not an answer to increase learning. The study posits that the addition of pre-written information does not enhance learning- rather it detracts from it. The research also suggests that the encoding process that occurs when students are listening to information, writing it down, organizing it, and reflecting on it is beneficial not only to the days spent at the university but a skill that will enable them to be lifelong learners.

Supplementary Materials

Figure 1

Final Grades
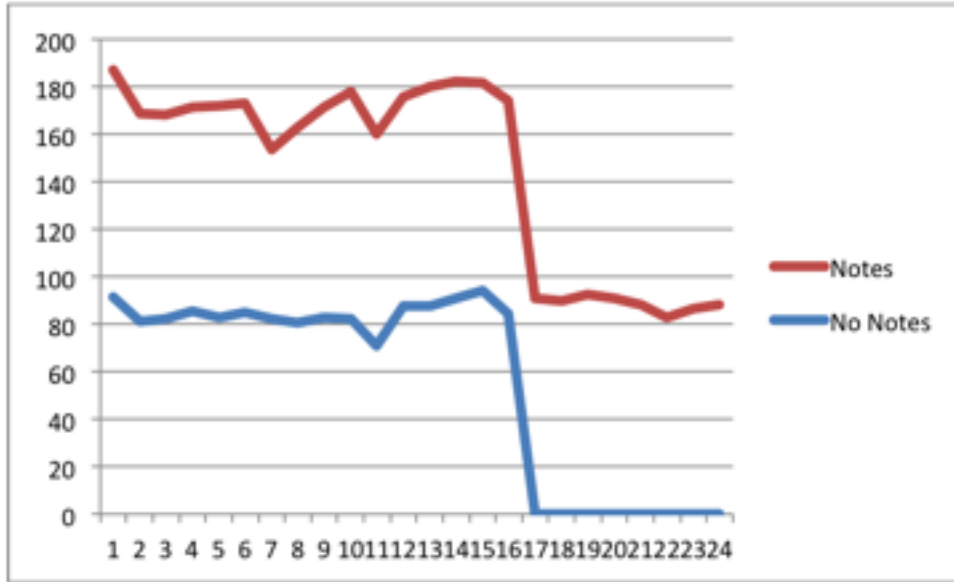
***P* value and statistical significance:**
The two-tailed *P* value equals 0.0308
This difference is considered to be statistically significant

Confidence interval:
The mean of No Notes minus Notes equals -3.9082
95% confidence interval: From 7.4340 to -0.3825

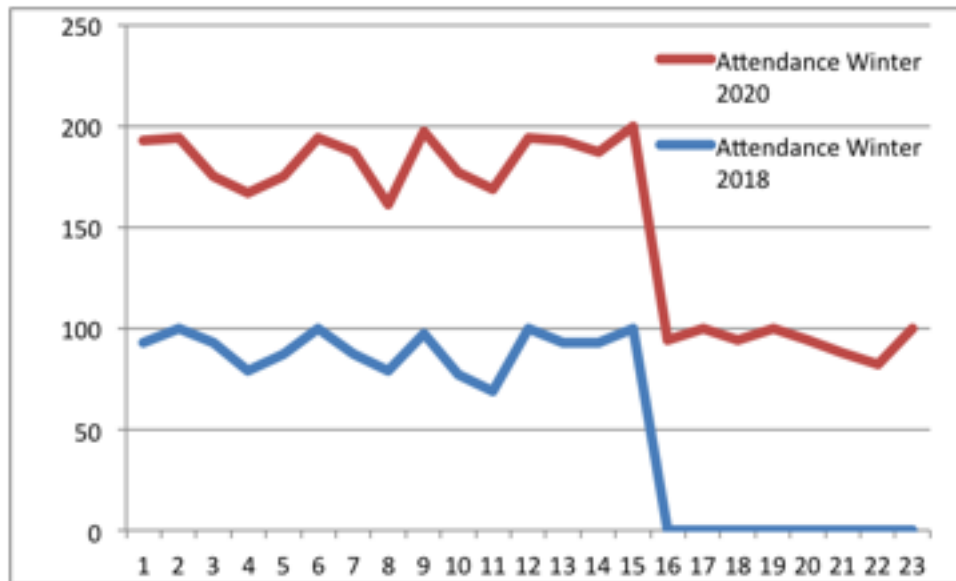**Intermediate values used in calculations:**
$(t = 2.2481)$ $(df = 36)$ (standard error of difference = 1.738)

Group	No Notes	Notes
Mean	84.4113	88.3196
SD	5.6482	4.9597
SEM	1.4584	1.0342
N	15	23

Figure 2

Final Grades

***P* value and statistical significance:**
The two-tailed *P* value equals 0.0979
This difference is considered not to be quite statistically significant.

Confidence interval:
The mean of 2018 minus 2020 equals -4.46
95% confidence interval: From 9.79 to 0.86

Intermediate values used in calculations:
(t = 1.6991) (df = 36) (standard error of difference = 2.625)

Group	2018	2020
Mean	89.80	94.26
SD	9.84	6.39
SEM	2.54	1.33
N	15	23

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Dia R. Gary is Associate Professor of Education, College of Education and Professional Studies, Central Washington University.

Evaluating Graduate Students Within an Online Literacy Clinic

Chhanda Islam · Murray State University

Author's Note: Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Chhanda Islam, Murray State University, Department of Early Childhood and Elementary Education, 3213 Alexander Hall, Murray, KY 42071. Email: cislam@murraystate.edu

Abstract

This study is an exploration of how technologies and other aspects of an online literacy practicum course delivery worked in terms of supporting the quality of learning and increasing the efficacy of graduate students. Findings revealed that the technologies and other aspects of an online literacy practicum course delivery supported the quality of learning and increased the efficacy of graduate students. These findings are consistent with previous research that described the process of moving a literacy clinic online in order to offer the highest level of efficacy.

Keywords: synchronous and asynchronous learning, pedagogical technology, supervised practicum, reading education, media and problem-solving application integration

The COVID-19 pandemic has resulted in school closures worldwide. Consequently, the distinctive rise of virtual learning, whereby teaching is undertaken remotely and on digital platforms, has changed education dramatically (Berry, 2020). Although some believe that a rapid move to online learning with little or no training will result in a poor user experience that is not conducive to sustained growth, others believe that a new hybrid model of education with significant benefits will emerge (Adedoyin & Soykan, 2020). Research suggests the integration of synchronous and asynchronous tools may further accelerate when supporting problem-based learning in an online training environment (Avallone, 2020).

Successful transitions have already occurred among many universities that managed to get courses and practicums online just two weeks into the transition using Canvas® and Zoom®. The asynchronous format of web conferences via Canvas®, a learning management system software, allows students to become creative and innovative because they have more time to prepare a response to a set of directions or questions. The online environment, with the addition of synchronous tools such as Zoom®, provides a high level of motivation to students. The technology enables faculty to reach out to students more efficiently and effectively through chat groups, video meetings, and document sharing, especially during this pandemic. Based on the rapid growth of online learning and the need for innovative instructional strategies, many instructors are trying to use Zoom® and Canvas® for their online courses. However, not enough sufficient guidance for designing and implementing synchronous or asynchronous tools into an online environment currently exists. According to Myers (2018), little research has been done to develop instructional design strategies using synchronous and asynchronous tools for authentic tasks associated with online learning environments.

Graduate students who want to be literacy specialists are required by the state to complete a practicum in a literacy clinic under the supervision of their instructor. A recent trend has involved moving literacy clinics to online delivery that includes both

synchronous and asynchronous collaboration (Lilienthal, 2014; Lilienthal et al., 2017). By moving a practicum course online, the instructor can utilize the latest mobile technologies and supervise graduate students by watching videos of graduate students instructing children as they tutor remotely (Sanders, 2014; Vokatis, 2018). The asynchronous learning tools in online discussion forums and synchronous tools for presenting and teaching content and for supervising graduate students when they are tutoring children in the classroom can provide an improved student learning experience (Lilienthal et al., 2017).

The two main purposes of literacy clinics are to serve the districts and to provide supervised instructional experiences for graduate students. Supervised instructional experiences help graduate students develop knowledge, skills, and abilities to adapt evidence-based strategies used with print text that will improve young children's reading and writing abilities (McCormick & Zutell, 2015). These literacy instructional experiences carry common themes of instruction in fluency, word study, and comprehension while providing graduate students mentored training in literacy instruction (Huang et al., 2016). It is beneficial for graduate students to interact with the course instructor and the supervisor working in the school to hone their inquiry-based decision making and improvement of student learning (Shearer et al., 2019).

Technology, a critical aspect of online teaching, becomes even more critical and complex when teaching a literacy clinic course because graduate students are required to tutor children in a literacy clinic, and the instructor is responsible for both delivering the course content and supervising the practicum. However, it is difficult to find a systematic empirical study of how the collaborative competencies of graduate students and course instructors impact

literacy learning in a practicum course offered through synchronous and asynchronous learning communities (Bodzin & Park, 2016). This study reflected on how technologies and other aspects of an online literacy practicum course delivery worked in terms of supporting the quality of learning and increasing the efficacy of graduate students.

The Research

In the online literacy clinic course, the instructor and graduate students do not meet face to face; instead, the instructor provides instructions via synchronous and asynchronous communications (Vokatis, 2018). In addition, in this type of delivery, the instructor supervises graduate students as they tutor children remotely—for instance, by watching graduate students instructing children via Zoom® or a YouTube® channel. The use of synchronous and asynchronous tools, such as chat, shared whiteboards, video conferencing, discussion boards, and blogs are used to improve children's reading skills while tutoring. The instructor or school supervisor can use Skype® or Zoom® and supervise such tutoring live, allowing for interaction, communication, and the resolving of problems using collaborative problem-solving (Basko & Hartman, 2017).

Thus far, the latest innovation when moving literacy clinics to an online mode is mostly limited to a description of course design using course management systems such as Blackboard (Lilienthal, 2014). In addition, some literature espouses certain technologies, such as Skype® and high-speed internet (Sanders, 2014), for supervising an online clinic. Moreover, Shearer et al. (2019) provided general ideas of how to support the implementation of new technology and innovative methods, including appropriate technologies used for course content teaching and for fieldwork. However, a rigorous

online clinic for increasing graduate students' efficacy that explores the latest technologies that can be used by graduate students to easily record their tutoring and share with the course instructors is not described in the literature. Therefore, this research provides insight into these areas, specifically focusing on the incorporation of Canvas® and Zoom® into an online literacy clinic course.

The asynchronous format of web conferences via Canvas®, a learning management system software, allows graduate students to become motivated because they have more time to formulate a response. Moreover, synchronous systems used in conjunction with asynchronous tools can create an online learning community that provides support to students from both peers and instructors because the web-enhanced classes boost the interaction and create a sense of connectedness among students (Beattie et al., 2017). Web conferencing via Zoom® has been proven effective not only in delivering course content but also in developing a rigorous online literacy clinic for increasing graduate students' efficacy. For example, web conferencing via Zoom® can serve as a collaborative tool to allow graduate students from widely dispersed communities to share tutoring experiences and engage in joint problem-solving in real-life classroom situations. When used in university coursework and practicum session activities, it can be comparable to having face-to-face discussions in a conventional class setting.

Online Literacy Clinic Course

The graduate online literacy clinic course was designed to prepare graduate students to use assessment data to design applicable intervention and remediation for students with literacy difficulties in Grades P-12. The course also provides graduate students with approaches and techniques that have been proven successful through research and practice. The basic premise of this course is to allow graduate students to implement a variety of research-based reading strategies to build the literacy skills of struggling readers. Graduate students are encouraged to incorporate technology-enriched instruction that encourages P–12 students to use newer, more sophisticated tools, such as electronic books, interactive software, integrated media, and problem-solving applications (McKenna & Walpole, 2019).

The course was offered as a web-enhanced course for three credit hours. It was separated into two categories—asynchronous and synchronous—so graduate students experienced both conditions: synchronous interactive web conferencing lectures and asynchronous text-based lectures (Caywood & Duckett, 2019). The instructor used online tools to create a web-enhanced course in which one-third of the sessions were offered through Canvas® asynchronous online learning (text-based, using discussion boards), and two-thirds of the sessions were offered through the newer web synchronous conferencing tool Zoom®.

A typical class week included the graduate students downloading text-based lecture notes (e.g., PowerPoint, Google, or Word documents), reading a chapter in the textbook to correspond with the lecture notes, and responding on a discussion board by the end of the week. All course content was available for graduate students in an asynchronous format and organized by Canvas® module tools (Caywood & Duckett, 2019). Web conferencing lectures were structured to mirror a face-to-face classroom. The interactive nature of the Zoom® instructional tools provided a real-time virtual classroom by using two-way audio, a webcam, breakout rooms, a chat window, and application sharing.

Researcher used the online discussion board on Canvas® to hold online discussions

about the tutoring sessions. Thus, graduate students in the literacy clinic used Canvas® discussions as a time to reflect, integrate their learning and their practice, and seek advice from their colleagues. Multimedia expanded the opportunity for graduate students to develop a community of learners who reflected and collaborated on a variety of reading and writing experiences and shared their best practices, concerns, and pressing challenges while working with their tutees. The reflections served two purposes. First, the researcher wanted to stimulate reflective conversation among the graduate students regarding their work with tutees. Second, the postings on Canvas® helped the researcher meet the short-term needs of the graduate students and provided insight into how the literacy clinic might further be restructured to better prepare graduate students for their role as reading specialists (Vokatis, 2018).

The Literacy Clinic and Tutoring

Participants studying to become reading specialists tutored struggling readers in one-on-one sessions and were required to make significant use of technology in their instruction (McKenna & Walpole, 2019). Sessions were designed to increase the comprehension, fluency, and sight-word vocabulary of the tutees and to develop language and thinking skills. The program offered activities that used repeated reading, listening vocabulary, phonics and grammar, context analysis, evaluative responses about texts, and connections between texts and real-life experiences (Messer & Nash, 2018). Graduate students used in-depth assessment and flexibility in adapting instructional techniques to meet individual differences and needs. Potential stumbling blocks were identified that might impede tutees on the journey to be skilled readers. Assessment revealed several issues facing tutees. For example, one-third of the tutees were unable

to understand the use of the alphabetic principle—the idea that written spellings systematically represent spoken words. Seventy-five percent of the tutees had difficulty comprehending connected text or recognizing difficult words. One-third of the tutees could not transfer the comprehension skills of spoken language to reading or struggled to acquire new strategies that could be used with a wide variety of texts. Some tutees lacked the motivation to read, or they had failed to develop an appreciation of the value of reading.

Graduate students were asked to use YouTube® to video-record two tutoring sessions, one in which they interacted with tutees through only reading, and another one in which they implemented software multimedia tools. The purpose of the two types of requested interaction was to get them more focused on quality instruction (Vokatis, 2018), a process enhanced by being able to watch the videos (rewinding when necessary) and analyze interaction in more detail in order to provide written feedback via Canvas®.

Feedback on Videos From Tutoring

Following their work with the children, the graduate students participated in weekly, hour-long meetings with the researcher via Zoom®, each of which featured a balance of researcher-led discussions of relevant theoretical implications and tutor-generated discussions and questions raised by their tutoring experiences. The course was designed to give graduate students the opportunity to implement theories into practice as they developed their conceptual understanding and theoretical perspective regarding working with struggling readers. The graduate students needed an opportunity to be productive, reflective, and adaptive literacy leaders while at the same time

increasing their knowledge, skills, and abilities to serve as a literacy coach.

Recap® (https://edshelf.com/tool/recap/), a multimedia online platform, was used to store graduate students' recorded video reflections. Recording and replaying tutoring film allowed graduate students to see moments of student learning, thereby helping them to understand both what went well in a lesson and what they could improve upon next time. Reflective practice allowed graduate students to create and experiment with new ideas and approaches to gain maximum efficacy.

Researcher connected with individual graduate students via Zoom® when it was time to provide feedback. One of the most important components of the course was when the researcher conversed with individual graduate students about how a tutoring session went. With the help of Canvas® technology, the researcher was able to provide students written feedback based on analyses of their video tutoring sessions. The aim was to create rich learning experiences for graduate students that have significant effects on tutees' learning outcomes. Other purposes were as follows: (a) to provide collaborative dialogue for graduate students at all levels of knowledge and experience; (b) to use assessments characterized by data-driven instruction to facilitate change in practice; and (c) to develop job-embedded professional learning to increase graduate students' capacity to meet individual students' needs.

Method

This study employed a qualitative approach to identify relationships between variables (Crossman, 2019). Qualitative data were generated using open questions. Researcher practiced caution to ensure that personal bias did not influence the data in ways that significantly changed the interpretation of the findings.

Study included nine graduate students who took the practicum course via asynchronous and synchronous learning spaces that used a variety of platforms, including Canvas® and Zoom®. Ages of the graduate students ranged from 25 to 40 years old. All were White female classroom teachers. Of the nine graduate students, 55% had taught for five years or less and 45% had over five years of teaching experience.

Instructor/researcher conducted an in-depth interview of all graduate students enrolled in the online course as a voluntary evaluation procedure at the end of the course. Graduate students responded anonymously to the interview questions and were informed that their responses would not affect their course grade. Interviews were digitally recorded for later transcription and coding. Interviews were transcribed and analyzed based on the constant comparative method. Constant comparative qualitative procedure was selected because it "is concerned with generating and plausibly suggesting (but not provisionally testing) many categories, properties, and hypotheses about general problems" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 96). Data were then compiled by responses from the nine interviews to compare the experiences. Researcher the reviewed coded responses grouped them together into categories.

Data for this study included graduate students' exit reflections on their teaching and learning and on the group discussions that took place on Canvas®. The purpose of the reflections was to assess the impact of the class and the progress and needs of the graduate students. Discussion board comments were used to assess the academic and professional expertise of the graduate students. The multimedia Recap® computer app was used to share graduate students' reflections via video and audio. Reflections

and discussion board responses were evaluated based on whether a student presented ideas that reflected integration of course material and an expansion of the student's pedagogical and content expertise.

Results and Discussion

This qualitative method study explored how technologies and other aspects of an online practicum course delivery worked in terms of supporting the quality of learning and increasing the efficacy of graduate students. The findings revealed that the pedagogical shifts made by graduate students in an online reading practicum course resulted in (a) an increase in knowledge of data-driven instruction and diagnosis, as evidenced by metacognitive reflection and progressive understandings; (b) the refinement of graduate students' instructional differentiation and intervention skills based on their tutoring experiences, as evidenced through their analytical reasoning; and (c) increased commitment to providing corrective reading instruction based on formal and informal data-driven instructions. Three strategies emerged from the findings: (1) composing clear articulations of learning objectives, (2) promoting contextualized and individualized learning, and (3) planning for visual and audio representation of concepts (McKenna & Walpole, 2019).

Findings from this study suggest that individualized instruction, in concert with comprehension and fluency strategies, continuously shows promise for students experiencing difficulties with reading (McCormick & Zutell, 2015). The analysis of the informal assessment scores demonstrated that P-12 students with varying reading and writing abilities and levels of prior knowledge made significant score gains. Although the limited sample size precluded the ability to draw strong conclusions, this qualitative study identified several factors

associated with successful outcomes. Some of the important factors for successful implementation of one-to-one literacy clinic included (a) a supportive atmosphere that motivated tutees to participate during tutoring sessions by actively processing the texts and responding to tutors' questions, and (b) more desirable integration strategies during curriculum-based, technology-enhanced field experiences (Vokatis, 2018).

The technologically integrated tutoring proved valuable in contributing to tutees' ability to comprehend texts. The nine graduate students, who had little experience with technology in teaching and learning, found that the reading methods' online practicum course experience eased their computer anxiety and improved their computer proficiency instruction. One graduate student participant, in response to an interview question, indicated that new technology, such as digital text and electronic books, affords rich opportunities for a variety of comprehension strategies during the sessions:

Digital texts are infused with pictures, sometimes interactive, to facilitate learning. My tutee utilized auditory and visual cues to effectively absorb the information. The combination of audio and visual signals resulted in a greater depth of understanding than either alone, which was particularly salient for the tutee, who tended to [over-rely] upon pictures to aid in decoding words and comprehending the text.

Another graduate student took on many new roles, such as collaborating and coaching with fellow classmates and working with a struggling reader to meet the Standards for the Preparation of Literacy Professionals (International Literacy Association, 2017). The S*tandards for the Preparation of Literacy Professionals were used to ensure all graduate students are prepared to meet the demands of 21st-century literacy instruction:*

Since I was able to increase fluency rates and accuracy with focused fluency instruction while meeting International Literacy Association's Standards 5.2 and 6.3, I feel this literacy clinic was a great success. Initially, my student was averaging 120 words-per-minute at the end of May. Rounded to the nearest whole number, this student made a 15 words-per-minute improvement by the middle of May. Accuracy scores improved as the number of errors plummeted from an average of 3.6 errors-per-minute to 1.3 errors-per-minute. I observed that my student's prosody improved with each repeated reading and teacher oral reading modeling session.

The researcher contends that improving the quality of reading instruction can lead to growth in student reading achievement. Likewise, eight out of nine graduate students said that *they valued how the colleagues created a space for collaboration, provided ongoing support, and clarified research-based instructional strategies that* positively affect their students' learning (Matsumura et al., 2013). The leadership role emerged as a critical component of literacy coaches because the graduate students assisted teachers and classmates by modeling strategies and suggesting materials that enhance instruction and assessment and by supporting teachers in becoming more knowledgeable about the teaching of reading. From this research, the graduate students gained a better understanding of how to assume a leadership position among their peers. They became more confident in their ability to guide another teacher in his or her pursuit of instructional growth.

Graduate Student Performance Through Discussion Board

The graduate students used Canvas® discussions as a time to reflect, integrate their learning and their practice, and seek advice from other graduate students while tutoring. The discussion board prompts generated 69 postings on Canvas®. In 50 out of the 69 postings, the graduate student participants assisted their colleagues in order to meet the literacy needs of their tutees. In over 20 postings, the graduate students discussed 38 different activities they found most useful in working with their struggling reader. The nine graduate students scored either a Satisfactory Performance 3 or higher rating on the assignment rating scale for criteria related to the learning outcome.

As evidenced in the Canvas® discussions, the nine graduate student participants asked their classmates for suggestions on strategies regarding early intervention for young readers with reading difficulties (McCormick & Zutell, 2015). The graduate students not only drew upon each other's expertise but also incorporated that knowledge into their own teaching and learning situations with their tutees. Canvas® supplied the students a discussion forum in which to reflect on their own instructional strategies as well as adapt other strategies used by their colleagues in the literacy clinic. The Canvas® discussion board increased their repertoire of abilities and their knowledge base. Through readings, discussions, and experience with a wide variety of materials on Canvas®, these graduate students developed a plethora of strategies to meet the needs of their tutees.

Exit Reflections

When designing the practicum component, the researcher wanted graduate students to have the opportunity to be able to reflect on their best practices and seek advice from their instructors and their colleagues. Eight out of the nine graduate students achieved an outstanding performance score on the assignment rating scale for criteria related to the learning outcome.

Recap® was used to share graduate students' reflections via video and audio. All nine graduate students reported that a video recording of lessons was valuable because it provided an unaltered and unbiased vantage point from which to view—from an instructor's perspective—the effectiveness of their lesson. The videos also acted as an additional set of eyes to catch ineffective literacy strategies that they did not realize were occurring during the tutorials.

The developed literacy practicum course allowed graduate students to evolve from teachers to literacy specialists. It specifically allowed them time to put theory into practice, to reflect on their own tutoring sessions, and to identify their own challenges in the transformation from teacher to leader. By creating a system in which participants could support each other's learning and come together as a community, the practicum course created an environment in which the participants were able to draw upon and incorporate each other's expertise. This environment established a setting in which graduate students had the time and opportunity to focus fully on their own and others' instructional practices. Graduate students were encouraged to modify, expand, polish, and experiment with instructional practices that improved their efficacy and improved pedagogical content expertise.

Conclusions and Limitations

An increasing trend exists to move to online delivery of literacy clinical courses, and this research shed light on how technologies and other aspects of an online literacy clinic can support candidates working as literacy coaches and reading specialists and prepare them for leadership roles in their school districts. Findings reveal that the specific incorporated technologies and other aspects of an online literacy practicum course delivery worked in terms of supporting the quality of learning and increasing the efficacy of graduate students. These findings are consistent with previous research that describes the process of moving a literacy clinic online in order to offer the highest level of efficacy (Bodzin & Park, 2016; Caywood & Duckett, 2019; Vokatis, 2018).

Although recent research literature defines online delivery systems, few studies have actually focused on online practicum instruction and learning via an online literacy clinic. A few studies have focused on plausible learner outcomes related to delivery system variables to test models of teaching in the design of an online literacy clinic (Bodzin & Park, 2016). Future research should determine if a synchronous and asynchronous learning environment provides the highest level of efficacy and the most effective learning experiences for graduate students (Caywood & Duckett, 2019). Specifically, future studies need to show how a synchronous and asynchronous format best fits a particular pedagogy used by instructors and how the literacy coaches gain specialized knowledge that allows them to adapt technology to suit their pedagogical needs (Vokatis, 2018).

The generalizability of the results of this study is limited due to the small number of participants. Replicating this study on a larger scale using numerous literacy clinics throughout the nation will render results with increased generalizability. Alongside the adoption of online literacy clinics, future research findings will advance theoretical understanding on how to implement an online course and practicum in a way that expands graduate students' pedagogical and content expertise.

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Chhanda Islam is Professor of Education, Department of Early Childhood and Elementary Education, Central Washington University.

Creative Supervision through Art Activities: Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis

Mi-Hee Jeon · Eastern Kentucky University

Charles E. Myers · Eastern Kentucky University

Author's Note: We have no conflicts of interests to disclose. Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Mi-Hee Jeon, Eastern Kentucky University, 521 Lancaster Ave., Combs Building 404, Richmond, KY 40475. Email: mi-hee.jeon@eku.edu

Abstract

This paper discusses the use expressive art medium in the context of clinical supervision. It shares research findings from integrating art tasks with a master's practicum group supervision. To gain an in-depth understanding of the participants of this study and their perceptions of the influence of utilizing expressive arts on their developmental processes, we adopt Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) in the qualitative study as a research method. We also include findings from data analysis, discussions, and suggestions for future study and practice.

Keywords: supervision using arts, art-based supervision, creative supervision

Supervision is essential for the advancement of any profession. It plays a critical role in developing trainee's competency due to specialized knowledge and skills that professionals can gain through it. This is particularly true for beginning counselors, who need a guide on their professional journey. Supervision is essential as the minimum requirement for supervisees' professional development, such as licensure-obtainment and enhancement of their clinical skills. From the perspective of professional growth, we concur with the idea that supervision socializes "the novice into the particular profession's values and ethics, to protect clients, and finally to monitor supervisees' readiness to be admitted into the profession" (Bernard & Goodyear, 2014, p. 5).

Bernard and Goodyear (2019) categorized the importance of supervision into three areas: (a) regulatory boards, (b) professional credentialing organizations, and (c) program accreditation. Supervision is a licensing constitution with specific conditions of the amount and the qualification of supervisors. It also certifies that practitioners exceed the minimum competency not to harm the public. Different accreditation bodies for mental health professionals and preparation programs, such as the American Psychological Association, the Commission on Accreditation for Marriage and Family Therapy Education, and the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs, stipulate codes for supervision that trainees should obtain. Thus, the reason for clinical supervision is regarded as a signature pedagogy in mental health counseling (Bernard & Goodyear, 2019).

Because of the significance of supervision at clinical counseling, exploring different supervision modalities for the advancement of practicum/intern students has been significant interest to clinical supervisors and counselor educators. The use of expressive arts in supervision settings could benefit supervisees for their perceived self-efficacy, self-awareness, insight gaining into themselves and their clients, and supervision satisfaction (Bowman, 2003; Fernando & Hulse-Killacky, 2005; Purswell & Stulmaker, 2015; Stark et al., 2011).

Exploration of Art Medium in Supervision Settings

Scholarly efforts have been made to examine different methods of art tasks in supervision contexts and their outcomes. Getz and Protinsky (1994) introduced genograms to the supervision of marriage and family therapy program, asking doctoral-level supervisees to create their own family genograms. The results demonstrated that the supervisees could identify their family-oriented issues through this activity and became aware of the potential interface of those issues with the therapist-client relationships.

Wilkins (1995) borrowed techniques from art therapy and psychodrama for group supervision, asking group members to express their experiences through art and role-playing their clients' cases to find the best approach for the clients' issues. Through these exercises, group members experienced a deeper level of support from their peers and supervisor and increased understanding about themselves and their clients. Bowman (2003) found clinical supervision through visual arts enhanced the self-exploration of intern-students, which led them to gain insight into themselves and their clients. Interestingly, some of the participants who had never utilized arts for their sessions before this project reported the likeliness of bringing this art intervention for their clients. Mandalas were highly instrumental in supervision settings. Jackson et al. (2008) implemented mandalas for the supervision of doctoral students. From their experimental study, they identified the multi-faceted usefulness of mandalas: Mandela helped students veer their attention from external immersion to the internal world; it allowed students to explore self-confrontation and self-expression; it facilitated students' self-discovery into their obstacle for growth; and

it empowered students by helping them accept and love their inner selves.

Sandtray is another approach in creative supervision. Markos et al. (2007) implemented sandtray to beginning practicum students and compared working alliance between supervisor and supervisees by asking the supervisees to rate between traditional supervision and sandtray supervision. The results presented higher ratings to the sandtray supervisor for eleven questions out of nineteen. In addition, a case illustration of this study demonstrated how sandtray could be an effective tool in deriving deeper levels of meaning from counselor and client interactions. As a result, a theory-bound sandtray for supervision was attempted.

Stark et al. (2011) integrated sandtray with solution-focused supervision (SFS). Their research brought two implications for supervisory relationships and supervisee's growth. The first was that a combination of SFS and sandtray could lead to a creative, strength-based, and goal-oriented supervisory relationship. In addition, this supervision modality cultivated supervisees' confidence and insight into their capacities in dealing with clients.

Davis et al. (2018) implemented music and poem in group supervision intending to develop "trust, rapport, empathy, and cohesion in a group context" (p. 70) to facilitate meaningful and personal sharing. In their study, music was played to evoke the group members' feelings, and each member wrote one-word representations of emotional attachment to the selected music. Then individuals respectively composed poems with the words. This study found that even though the use of music and poems induced vulnerability in-group members when they shared their emotions and thoughts in their poems, the vulnerability conversely transformed to strengthening group cohesion and trust to one another.

Poetry solely was an effective medium at supervision. McNichols and Witt (2018) used poetry in practicum or internship class. They invited students to read poetry, create their own poetry, and use poetry to discuss their counseling cases. Authors found that poetic activities benefited students in multiple ways. Students co-constructed meaning by sharing a common experience, gained insight by listening to different perspectives, enjoyed taking part in a relaxing atmosphere, gained a deeper understanding of the client and insight into the self, experienced a different way of processing, applied poetry in working with clients, noticed process in growth as a counselor, gained insight into themselves, reflected as part of self-care, created personal meaning from a poem, and so forth.

As such, supervision using arts has been found to be an excellent modality in providing experiential learning and opportunities for deeper reflection, and enhancing supervisees' self-awareness and insight into themselves, their clients, and the dynamics of the two parties. It increases empathy toward their clients and flexibility in understanding different perspectives. Not only that, it also helped with supervisory relationship and case conceptualization skills as it instills a safe culture within group supervision with increasing group cohesion (Bowman, 2003; Davis et al., 2018; Fish, 2008; Gass & Gillis, 2010; Gladding, 2005; Liberati & Agbist 2017; Markos et al., 2007; McNichols & Witt, 2018; McPherson & Mazza, 2014; Purswell & Stulmaker, 2015; Stark et al., 2011; Wilkins, 1995). However, despite the value of supervision using creativity and expressive arts in group supervision, practical studies illuminating how this modality in supervision can be conducive to supervisees' growth and development are still lacking (Davis et al., 2018). As an effort to provide research evidence for the lacking area, we conducted a study to explore how supervision integrating art medium may affect master-level practicum students at personal and professional levels.

Purpose of Study

This paper examines how practicum students in a counseling master program perceive group supervision influences when inviting expressive art activities on their developmental processes. By examining the effectiveness and usefulness of supervision assisted by art medium through practicum students' narratives, we believe that this exploratory research may introduce a unique but practically beneficial approach in clinical supervision.

Definitions of Terms

For this paper, we define supervision as "an intervention provided by a more senior member of a profession to a more junior colleague or colleagues who typically (but not always) are members of that same profession" (Bernard & Goodyear, 2019, p. 9). This definition may not embrace all different perspectives in supervision because various theories attempt to define supervision reflecting their underpinning theoretical dynamics and unique perspectives. Unfortunately, arriving at one overarching definition is not easy due to the complexity of different theories and diverse approaches in them (Edwards, 2010). We decided to borrow the definition constructed by Bernard and Goodyear (2019) because it is succinct but comprehensive enough to encapsulate the core role of supervision.

Method

Through the research project of supervision utilizing arts, we intended to explore in-depth experiences of master's students when art activities were integrated

with their counseling practicum supervision to examine their perceptions of how this supervision modality might have facilitated their learning and growth. To identify the essence of the participants' experiences and to understand the experiences as described by the participants (Creswell, 2009; McLeod, 2011), qualitative methodology was adopted for this project. Specifically, Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA) was chosen for the lens of data analysis. Grounded in phenomenology, IPA is an approach in which researchers closely examine participants' accounts to understand how the participants make sense of their certain experiences (Eatough & Smith, 2008; Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). IPA is well aligned with the purpose of this study in that the focus of this project is to gain an in-depth understanding of participants' perceptions of supervision assisted by art-medium and of how they make sense of its impact on their professional journey during practicum.

Participant Recruitment

Prior to recruitment, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the institution approved this project where the experiment took place. For participant-recruitment, the first author sent emails for research invitation to a group of practicum students whose instructor would implement art activities before starting a practicum. Three students answered positively with the intention to participate in the research. The first author clarified confidentiality in all the data collection processes and analysis, including the exclusion of the other author until the participants' grades were officially posted because he was the instructor of the practicum and was invited later as a peer debriefer during data analysis. The three participants were all aware of steps for protecting their anonymity and agreed to participate. We followed ethical standards in accordance with the American Counseling Association (ACA, 2014) *Code of Ethics*.

Data Collection and Analysis

In the third, eighth, and fourteenth week of an academic semester calendar, the first author conducted either individual or focused group interviews. She intentionally designed the time intervals between interviews to draw participants' perceptions and experiences at different practicum stages. Six individual and focused group interviews, ranging from 45 to 90 minutes, were collected and recorded electronically. The first author transcribed all the recordings. She also assigned a pseudonym to all participants to protect their identity.

For data analysis, the two steps of descriptive and interpretative analyses were followed as suggested by Larkin and Thompson (2011). The first step was to focus on in-depth single case analysis and developing thick descriptions of the participants' experiences, the context of their experiences, and their reflective processes in which their learning, actions, or perceptions were embedded. Then the primary researcher categorized the thick descriptions in themes and codes through cross-case analyses. During the second level of IPA analysis, coded data was analyzed into patterns and connections through the researcher's interpretative process to probe meaning that the participants were giving through their narratives.

Efforts for Validity

Researcher subjectivity in understating participants' data is inevitable in qualitative research due to the inherent characteristic of IPA data analysis that involves the researcher's interpretation of what the participants said (Oxley, 2016; Smith et al., 2009). To minimize the impact of the

researcher's subjectivity on data analysis, the first author invited the other author as peer debriefer. Peer debriefer serves as a means to increase credibility and trustworthiness in qualitative study (Smith et al., 2009; Spall, 1998). The purpose of peer debriefing is to ensure that outcomes produced are credible by inviting the peer debriefer to extensively attend discussions about the findings and progress of research (Smith et al., 2009). The first author also engaged in the reflective process through researcher memos throughout the analysis process to become aware of her preconceptions to the research topics and internal reactions on participants' accounts and minimize their impact on data analysis. Activities related to researcher reflexivity is critical in monitoring research's potential bias on data analysis (Larkin & Thompson, 2011; Maxwell, 2005).

Findings

Five themes emerged from the data analysis: (1) creating safety; (2) understanding differences and similarities among members; (3) building camaraderie with peers; (4) outlet for inner emotions; and (5) awareness of internal experiences. Table 1 exhibits themes from the data. It entails the themes with analytic description, with supportive quotes from the transcripts as follows.

Table 1
Themes

Creating Safety
Understanding Differences and Similarities among Members
Building Camaraderie with Peers
Outlet of Inner Emotions
Awareness of Internal Experiences

Creating Safety

Art activities exercised during group supervision contributed to creating safety for the group members because engagement in art tasks reduced their anxiety and made them more comfortable. One (Amy) member recalled a moment signifying the relaxing and comfortable air in the supervision.

> We walked into the room, and he [instructor] had candles and there was a music playing…So, it was like ocean, waves. Immediately, we were like in a calming place…it really like, 'Hue' immediately.

Amy remembered how the music and candle activity instantly made her feel relaxed. At the same time, it transformed group supervision to a calming and safe place for her.

The safety fostered through art activities even allowed the group members to feel less hesitant in addressing disagreement to different ideas of other group members. Amy again shared her experience of being confronted by one member:

> Marine has gotten new [to a] point where she shows open to argue with me. She and I are in two completely different pages in terms of kind of methodology and orientation. I would never imagine in the first couple of weeks of the practicum that she would ever be like, "Well, no! …" And I appreciate that, I like that. That's not really her personality. So she can be that person and be openly kinda disagreeing with something being said or something that I said more open. It shows that really there is a comfort level; I don't think we've gotten to do otherwise.

By referring to another group member, Amy shared the level of acceptance in the group to the degree in which the member openly disagreed with what she said. Considering this member's style, open confrontation might not have been

imaginable without a sense of safety perceived through support from the group members. Amy thought the safe atmosphere within the practicum group played a catalyst in the members being genuine to themselves to the point of opposing different ideas of others.

Understanding Differences and Similarities Among Members

Art tasks enhanced the participants' recognition of how they are different while at the same time being similar. The participants prompted this realization of the divergent and convergent aspects within the practicum group as they communicated through their art creations. Jane talked about an activity with a list of questions to which all the practicum members should provide input of personal information that may be linked to a certain counseling theory.

> We kind of putting ourselves out there by answering these questions. I think again that helped get us to become a little bit more familiar with where each person is coming from and like their outlook something…So, it's kind of, just another activity to kinda help bring us closer a little bit. Like it served purpose of like, 'Oh, this is the theory that I am leaning towards.' But, there was also like, 'Oh, I didn't know that is the way you interpreted that question or I didn't know that you placed high value on your family or on the relationship.

Through this activity, Jane came to learn about other members' values, backgrounds, and worldviews that affected their choices of counseling theories, which she was not aware of before. She believed that a deeper understanding of those aspects of other members led the group to feel closer.

Art activities also contributed to the participants' cognizance of how they are on the same page in their developmental process.

> We were related, really related…Say something like, "I'm gonna go in there, I'm not gonna what to do. I'm gonna and spend all this time, wasting my time and I'm gonna not have a plan, and I'm gonna be a terrified counselor. And the horror's gonna end." And everybody was like, 'Oh, my gosh, I felt the same thing.'

At the beginning of the practicum, Amy remembered how everybody was anxious, feeling incompetent about themselves as counselors-in-training. This vulnerability and incompetency were well projected to their art products. By looking at and listening to others' stories delivered in the art medium, Amy could also identify her own vulnerability and incompetency in other group members. This process helped her understand how her peers also experienced challenges and how they were developmentally on the same page.

Building Camaraderie with Peers

Art activities during supervision not only created a sense of safety but also contributed to the group members experiencing togetherness. Jane referred to this experience as camaraderie.

> It's like there are some kinds of intentions behind that. And not only was it [art] just to make us comfortable, also to realize that we're kinda on the same place…We're all starting in the same place, you own practicum together, we're getting it to go through together. It's a kind of nice to have that, to be building that camaraderie, like from get go. And it's a kind of reminder that you or we're all gonna be faced with our struggles and stuff like different stressors. Anything that kinda happens along the way this

semester. Those were a kind of, nice, like build us together.

Jane was able to see how all the group members were struggling and stressed during their practicum, which was portrayed through the art medium. She considered the art products as a reminder of group togetherness even at a challenging period. Similarly, Kristy commented about art activities in the early stage of practicum:

> It might bring us up a little bit. That might kind of make us more social or makes us happy to be there.

She supported the idea that participating in art tasks made the group members feel closer.

Outlet of Inner Emotions

All the participants regarded joining art activities as stress relief, an outlet from their anxiety, and a break from substantial mental work. Jane animated when she reflected on art exercises on the first day of practicum.

> It's just entertaining…It] would just be the something different as opposed to like always talking about and stuff. I mean, drawing and stuff. I think that's fun.

Jane thought engaging in art activities was fun, contrasting from a constant talk during practicum. Amy extended the functions of art tasks to stress relief, relaxation from anxiety, delivery of members' support, and creation of group cohesion.

> I thought that was fun. Um, even with just stress relief, cause the game like, it released the stress and it also brought us together that in the game, that first day. Cause it was really like the whole togetherness, supportive, just relax,

you're here to be yourself, you are here to focus but leave your the anxieties at the door kind of thing.

Kristy stated that attending art activities was a good mental break for the brain from a heavily laden talk during practicum.

> The nice thing is that in the five hours that we're with him[instructor] or seeing clients with him. It's a nice thing to kind of break up, 'What's going on?' [It] gives you something else to think about, kind of, gives your brain a little bit break, just different ways of processing things, a different ways of looking at things…I appreciated the departure from the same thing. It's different stuff, obviously during the five hours. But, it's still talking, giving feedback, talking, and giving feedback…You know, it was definitely a departure that way that my brain kind of appreciate it.

Staying five hours at the practicum while having a continual verbal discussion on counseling cases could be mentally exhausting and somewhat tedious work for practicum students. Yet, art activities, such as drawing, sandtray, and writing, brought a transition from the same structure—talking and giving feedback—to a different mode of processing the members' experiences. It also offered an exit from repeated intellectual discussion to creative and relaxing discourse. Kristy acknowledged all of them.

Awareness of Internal Experiences

Expressive art medium sensitized the participants to become cognizant of their own experiences and internal dynamics that occurred during the practicum. Jane shared:

> I was basically just kind of like expressing my apprehension about it [practicum]…I remember, just like of

processing it [my sandtray] later [after the class]…I was just like, 'Huh.' I'm really kind of anxious about this [practicum]… that's something that I'm working towards. Um, so, it was kind of neat to see all that coming together. Yeah, it kinda helped me process afterwards, for sure…It was not only 'here and now' processing, but that was also like, 'What I'm gonna do in the future and stuff like that.' So, a lot of thinking.

Through the sandtray activity, which visualized her inner experience of starting practicum, Jane recognized how her anxiety about beginning practicum was projected toward her sandtray. Upon witnessing her internal status, Jane realized working on her anxiety was an area she needed to improve.

Amy contemplated sandtray activities, which were implemented both in the beginning and at the end of the practicum. She mentioned:

Doing the sandtray and doing the same thing in the beginning and at the end made it feel like really great book ends. It was like really representative book ends, um. Um, I did this time like a little personal representation of something in my personal life that had gotten me through, representing a relationship that was really supportive of me during practicum…So, it kinda reminded me that there are not entirely two separate worlds. You know, they are very influential. And to be a better counselor, I have to connect with people that I am in counseling with and also outside counseling with…That was something that I really learned throughout the practicum. And having that represented in our activity and allowing us to do our personal thing really helped and influenced into a personal level and professional level.

Amy could see how she grew personally and professionally by comparing the two sandtray scenes that were completed at the beginning and end of the practicum. She called the pictures bookends, presenting her practicum experiences. With the two different images in the sandtray, she was not only able to recognize her growth portrayed in the sandbox but realized how personal and professional worlds influence each other.

Discussion

We aimed for this research project to help us understand how master's students in practicum perceive their experiences when expressive art tasks were fused to their group supervision to examine the applicability and effectiveness of this non-traditional supervision format. Findings of this study support benefits of integrating expressive art medium to supervision contexts. First, supervisees evaluated that expressive art tasks were effective in instilling a safe atmosphere during group supervision. Supervision could intimidate supervisees because of the evaluative and hierarchical aspects inherent during the supervision process (Bernard & Goodyear, 2019). Particularly, sharing case conceptualization with both supervisors and their peers may provoke supervisees' anxiety because their approaches might have been wrong. That is why Markos et al. (2007) argued, "effective supervisory and educational relationships are also based on students' and supervisees' freedom of expression within a safe relational context" (p. 6). With a sense of safety, supervisees are prone to freely share their achievements and challenges (Fish, 2008; Gladding, 2005; Hawkins & Shohet, 2000; Jackson et al., 2008; Markos et al., 2007), and this would facilitate their learning. The result of this study demonstrated how a sense of safety experienced by the supervisees

allowed them to be bold to the extent of one member confronting another member for having different perceptions, and this confrontation was not taken personally. The feeling of safety within the practicum group does not merely open up for a channel for supervisees to feel comfortable and to be themselves. It indicates a greater degree of perceived personal acceptance and support from the other group members, which would serve as a foundation of group cohesion.

The participants positively recognized the function of stress relief through art-based supervision. Supervision is an intensive discourse to supervisees with constant self-checking for their clients' quality of care and professional growth. They navigate ethical dilemmas for their cases and address self-doubt for their competency. They may undergo emotional turmoil when personal issues interface with their professional practice. Supervision integrating expressive art activities can play a role of stress-relief and anxiety-alleviation during demanding training (Bowman, 2003; Hawkins & Shohet, 2000; McNichols & Witt, 2018). All the participants of this study agreed that through art tasks, they were able to relieve their stress and anxiety in the middle of the intellectual process. They paused mentally driven processes as they engaged in creative activities and released their inner emotions. This outlet for their internal tussle deriving from the intensity in the supervision process does not merely serve as a pausing moment. In fact, the break from their cognitive mental work is therapeutic for supervisees (Bowman, 2003). Furthermore, art tasks assist supervisees in channeling their intuition (Lahad, 2000) and gain awareness of their internal experiences (Carroll, 2010; Deaver & Shiflett, 2011; McNichols & Witt, 2018; Neswald-McCalip et al., 2003). Given supervisees' management of countertransference could be a key predictor for successful therapy outcomes (Gelso et al.,

2002), assisting supervisees to develop their antenna to sense when their personal matters permeate into a professional boundary is an important task in supervision. These unique functions as an emotional avenue and awareness/insight gaining create a place for this type of supervision on a continuum between psychotherapy and education (Pedder, as cited in Edwards, 2010). Watkins (2011) also commented supervision intervention is connected to psychotherapy.

Supervisees noted how the visualized expressive art medium helped them realize their growth. One of the participants, Amy, mentioned that through two sandtray pictures, which were implemented in the beginning and at the end of the practicum, she witnessed her willingness to take a risk, which represented her personal growth. The recognition of Amy's personal growth was possible because art tasks allowed her to delve into deep personal meanings that may not be possible through other approaches (Wilkins, 1995). Personal growth through art activity combined with supervision, was appreciated in other studies (Bowman, 2003; Neswald-McCalip et al., 2003; Stark et al., 2011). Even though personal growth via art-assisted supervision was not a significant theme in this project, it is worth recognizing. Becoming a professional counselor may mean the person should constantly strive for maturity and consistency across his/her personal and professional life. In addition, the person may want to learn how to supervise himself/herself. In conjunction with the art medium, supervision could be a feasible and practical tool in those efforts for maturity and self-censorship in counseling practice. Unfortunately, as Laughlin (2000) was concerned, there is an excessive emphasis on the acquisition of counseling skills in counseling training programs at the neglect of personal growth and maturity. More attention needs to be given to the development of personality dimensions in

supervision if we, counselors and clinical educators, can continually refine our practice and training.

Suggestions for Future Study and Practice

Integrating art activities with group supervision settings opens up a flexible and alternative approach to supervision modalities. However, we address several aspects when researchers and supervisors implement supervision with expressive art activities. First, to take maximum advantage of supervision utilizing expressive art medium, extra attention should be given to promoting group cohesion. Group cohesion represents the overall quality of relationships among group members (Chen & Rybak, 2004) and a key in making group experiences successful (Yalom, 2005). Intentionality in building group cohesion and group trust can be designed in future studies of art-assisted supervision. Second, supervisors planning to introduce this supervision should be ready for different perceptions and reactions of supervisees to the ambiguity that art products may produce. Some supervisees may enjoy the reflective process through projective art tasks, while others may prefer a traditional approach. In this project, although all participants of this study appreciated art activity-based supervision, one member expressed wanting more didactic instruction. Fish (2008) also found a desire for more directive verbal interactions in supervision by some participants in her art-assisted supervision study. She suggested didactic discourse be more appropriate for supervisees feeling vulnerable. Future studies could look at the correlation between supervises self-confidence and preferred supervision approaches (e.g., concrete versus abstract). Third, the current study sample size was small. Larger sample size would allow for the potential reinforcement of themes found in this study and the development of new themes. Fourth, the homogeneous sample (White women in their 20s-30s) of the current study might have limited the number of themes identified. More diversified samples could result in richer findings.

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Mi-Hee Jeon is Assistant Professor, Department of Educational Leadership and Counselor Education, Eastern Kentucky University.

Charles E. Myers is Associate Professor, Department of Educational Leadership and Counselor Education, Eastern Kentucky University.

A Case Study of International Students' Challenges

Juhee Kim · Eastern Kentucky University

Author's Note: Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Juhee Kim, Eastern Kentucky University, Department of Educational Leadership and Counselor Education, 521 Lancaster Ave., Richmond, KY 40475. Email: 0904heeya@gmail.com; juhee_kim12@mymail.eku.edu

Abstract

This study was conducted to describe major issues that international students face when studying in the US and examine the social and political dimensions of the study abroad process and context from theoretical and practical perspectives. To critically analyze contemporary issues regarding recently changing policies for international students, a literature review and evidence from newspaper articles and official webpages were utilized. Findings indicate that getting or changing a visa and maintaining a legal status are priority concerns for international students to study and work stably in the U.S., and these issues have caused a decline of new international students enrolled in schools in the U.S. To enhance U.S. competitiveness for international students and to maximize students' exposure to U.S. society, immigration laws and regulations pertaining to employment must be updated in extended ways. This examination can provide some insight into the impact of social contexts and political influences on international students' education, as well as the impact that university leaders have on promoting diversity and inclusion in our society.

Keywords: international student, case study, policy, politics, social justice

Statement of the Problem

One point one million international students (Institute of International Education, 2018), representing more than 185 countries, constitute a very heterogeneous group of individuals in the United States (Hanassab, 2006). They differ markedly with respect to nationality, race, ethnicity, cultural norms and customs, physical appearance, and linguistic background. The U.S. has been a top destination for students and researchers from around the globe for decades. However, the U.S. has experienced a nearly 10% drop in the number of newly enrolled international students in the last two academic years (Federis, 2019).

Whether it is finding international student aid, dealing with cultural differences, or finding a solution to an academic problem, and obtaining a legal residence, international students in the U.S. face many challenges. Specifically, getting or changing a visa and maintaining a legal status are priority concerns and issues for international students to study and work stably in the U.S. In this case study, the researcher will describe case facts and major issues of international student challenges and analyze these in aspects of politics and policies, social and education, and social justice.

Methodology

To describe major issues that international students face when studying in the US, the researcher examined the social and political dimensions of the study abroad process and context from theoretical and practical perspectives. This study focused on qualitative data using methods analysis of primary and secondary sources. Primary data are generally understood to be the initial data specifically collected by the original researcher for their research purposes, whereas secondary data are understood to be collected by someone other than the researcher (O'Reilly & Kiyimba, 2015). To

critically analyze contemporary issues regarding recently changing policies for international students, empirical study and government documents were applied as primary sources and as secondary sources, literature review and evidence from newspaper articles and official webpages were utilized.

Case Facts and Issues

Case Facts

Recently, the U.S. government has made some immigration and visa changes that affect F-1 students and J-1 exchange visitors (Department of Homeland Security, 2020). Students need to maintain their immigration status while in the U.S. Offices of International Student Services and international students need to constantly monitor changes in immigration and visa regulations and/or policies affecting their studying and living in the U.S.

Several institutions of higher education have challenged an announced Trump administration policy, effective August 9, 2018, changing the calculation of the number of days of "unlawful presence" for nonimmigrant foreign students (Mehta & Partners, 2018). Foreign students could inadvertently find themselves subject to years-long bans because of the policy implemented by the United States Citizenship and Immigration Services (USCIS) in August 2018.

There are signs those changes are driving international students away from higher education in the U.S. Several universities, a student group, a teachers' union, and two former college students from China filed a lawsuit in December 2018 to stop USCIS from implementing the change (Federis, 2019). They argued that USCIS did not seek public input on the changes and that international students could inadvertently become subject to serious penalties.

Advocates say the overall anti-immigrant rhetoric from this administration makes the U.S. less attractive for prospective students. According to the Washington Post (2020), colleges and universities that fully online have no new international students because the administration is only issuing visas to new students if their courses meet in-person, even during a pandemic. State Department data show that the issuance of student visas across all schools in fiscal 2020 declined around 70 percent from the previous year (Rampell, 2020). Trump administration also proposed restructuring visas so students would have to apply for an extension after fixed terms of no more than four years. This proposed rule imposes unnecessary new burdens for international students and makes the U.S. a less welcoming destination. (Redden, 2020). Other countries are already taking advantage of such fears. Australia and Canada are actively embracing international students to bring them to lay down roots after graduation and contribute to their adopted economies (Redden, 2018a; Rampell, 2020).

They worry that similar proposals will put even more pressure on foreign students. These proposals include a plan to impose a maximum number of years that a student can stay on their visa, heightened scrutiny for work visas after graduation, and a push to end a program that allows international students to stay and work in the U.S. after completing their academic programs.

Racial and Inequality Issues

Visa rules are restricting the future of international students in the U.S. (Public Radio International's The World, 2019, p. 1). International students in the U.S. have to follow many rules: They are allowed only part-time, on-campus jobs, must maintain a full course load, and must prove they can pay for tuition and living costs. Additionally, under the Trump administration, international students are facing new

administrative hurdles. For instance, student application fees have increased and there are new ways to punish students who violate, even inadvertently, the conditions of their visas. There is also intense scrutiny over permit programs that enable students to get work in the U.S. after graduating from their studies.

These changes have drastically altered the policy landscape for international students in the U.S. over the past two years. Advocates say the new rules are complicating student visa holders' ability to enter the U.S., maintain their legal status in the country, and ultimately obtain permits to work in the long term.

Moreover, international students have had to become more vigilant as they are increasingly becoming the targets of violence and discrimination based on race, religion, ethnicity, and national origin (Rose-Redwood & Rose-Redwood, 2017, p. III). Dominant groups with distinguishable physical or cultural traits holding resources and power often use their privileged situation to denigrate, exclude, and disadvantage minority groups. This form of racism is historically grounded and embedded in political, economic, and educational structures. These structures shape institutional practices, which reproduce patterns of race-based inequality.

Policy & Political Analysis

Restrict Policies

U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services posted a policy memorandum changing how the agency calculates unlawful presence for students and exchange visitors with F, J, or M visas (non-immigrant status) who fail to maintain their status in the U.S. (USCIS, 2018a). This policy aligns with President Trump's Executive Order: Enhancing Public Safety in the Interior of the United States, to enforce the immigration

laws of the country, which went into effect on Aug. 9, 2018.

Prior to the change, even if international students had committed illegal activities that the Immigration Service did not permit, such as illegal employment, expulsion, or withdrawal from their student status, extreme situations such as banning students were rare. This is because the date of unlawful presence was added after the date when the final decision was made by the immigration officer or an immigration judge. However, the new policy will be counted automatically during the immigration screening process from the day after unlawful presence activity begins, and the period of Accrued Unlawful Presence from the day after the violation of status that is not authorized by the Department of Immigration Service will be calculated retroactively (USCIS, 2018a).

Individuals who have accrued more than 180 days of unlawful presence during a single stay, and then depart, may be subject to three-year or ten-year bars on admission to the U.S., depending on how much unlawful presence they accrued before they departed the U.S. Individuals who have accrued a total period of more than one year of unlawful presence, whether in a single stay or during multiple stays in the U.S., who then reenter or attempt to reenter the U.S. without being admitted or paroled are permanently inadmissible (USCIS, 2018a). Those subject to the three-year, ten-year, or permanent unlawful presence bans for admission are generally not eligible to apply for a visa, admission, or adjustment of status to permanent residence unless they are eligible for a waiver of inadmissibility or another form of relief. This policy memorandum is an update to Chapter 40.9.2 of the USCIS Adjudicator's Field Manual.

However, on Feb. 6, 2020, the U.S. District Court for the Middle District of North Carolina issued a nationwide injunction enjoining USCIS from enforcing

the Aug. 9, 2018, policy memorandum titled, "Accrual of Unlawful Presence and F, J, and M Nonimmigrants." USCIS will continue to apply the prior policy guidance found in AFM Chapter 40.9.2, issued on May 6, 2009 (NAFSA, 2020a; USCIS, 2018b).

Nevertheless, other new changing policies about immigration and visa such as social media questions on visa applications, determining a direct relationship between employment and a student's major area of study during OPT, and new increased I-901 SEVIS fee are still consistently addressed and raising concerns among international students.

Political Context

Politics is certainly not the only force behind international student enrollment successes or failures but it does play a big role. International students face greater difficulties entering the country for school and partaking in critical employment and training opportunities. The political sensitivity of the visa issue affects Indian and Chinese students, who are the majority of international students, experiencing administrative processing delays and heightened security checks (Hartocollis, 2019).

Many students also fear that they will face adversity once they arrive on campus because of the political climate. For example, *The New York Times* (Anand, 2017) reported that a rise in violence against Indian immigrants since President Trump's election has caused many Indian students to shy away from the U.S. as a study option. These concerns pose a threat not only to universities' enrollment numbers but to student retention levels as well.

After the Trump administration started, there were also declines in the overall number of students coming from America's neighbors, Canada, and Mexico, two countries where President Trump is deeply

unpopular. While there were drops at all academic levels for Canadian and Mexican students, the steepest decline was in the number of Mexican students coming for non-degree study, including intensive English, which fell by 39.1 % (Redden, 2018b).

Last but certainly not least, the escalating trade war between China and the U.S. poses a massive threat to college and university's international enrollment numbers. According to the *Washington Post* (Fifield, 2019), the Chinese government warned students of the risks of studying in the U.S. Their warning cited high visa refusal rates for Chinese students seeking to study at American colleges as well as accusations of espionage targeted at Chinese citizens. Government intervention like this can have a very real influence on where students will choose to study.

Policy & Political Relevance

According to 2017-18 enrollment data reported in Inside Higher Ed, American colleges and universities are experiencing declines in new international student enrollment across the board: -6.3% at the undergraduate level, -5.5% at the graduate level, and -9.7% at the non-degree level from 2016-17 to 2017-18. Continuing to paint a bleak picture of internationalization in the U.S., the latest Student and Exchange Visitor Program (SEVIS) data reports a 3% drop from March 2018 to March 2019 in F and M visa students studying in the U.S. (UniQuest, 2019).

Under the influence of political climates, policy changes have been a major factor in deterring international students from enrolling in US schools. This change results in concrete, significant harm to colleges and universities, including the loss of irreplaceable community members, tuition dollars, and trained employees.

As proof, President Trump's 2017 reassessment of H1-B student visas has

caused many to reevaluate their goals of studying abroad in the U.S. — according to USCI, the number of applications for H1-B visas experienced a nearly 20% decline. The Trump administration has threatened to abandon or severely restrict Optional Practical Training (OPT) opportunities, which allow graduating Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math (STEM) international students to hold jobs in the U.S. for 12 months, or a further 24 months if granted an extension.

Likewise, proposed changes that make it easier to accrue "unlawful presence" have raised concerns. *Inside Higher Ed* (Redden, 2019) reported that a federal judge has temporarily blocked the Trump administration from enforcing the new policy. Whether enforced, the risk of being banned from re-entry to the U.S. for three to ten years for violations such as "working more than 20 hours per week, forgetting to notify school officials after moving to another dormitory, or even if a school official makes a mistake with the paperwork" may be enough to cause students to reconsider their plans to study in the U.S.

Social Analyses

Social Context

Several federal policy changes have altered the perception of the U.S. as a welcoming destination for international students, scholars, and researchers. Such policies, in combination with deliberate competition from other destinations, such as Australia, the United Kingdom, and several European countries, have contributed to a chilling effect on international study and research in the U.S.

Macro-historical Level. Visa and immigration policy determine who can knock on America's front door – and how international students respond. In its latest report, the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA, 2018) proposed recommendations for an integrated approach that reflects the opportunities and realities of today's world. The report urged U.S. policymakers to move toward defining the country's security objectives more broadly post 9/11, stressing that openness to the world is imperative for ensuring our country's long-term well-being and security. It also noted that the U.S. has been slow to adjust to a paradigm shift in global mobility that has fundamentally altered patterns of travel and work around the world.

America can no longer assume to be the preferred destination for people who seek to improve their lives outside their home countries. Talented students and skilled workers have many options around the world - for the U.S. to attract and retain the best talent to their colleges and universities, faculties and research centers, and immigration law and visa policy must accommodate this reality. The U.S. challenge is also to participate in the global community in a way that lifts up Americans to compete in a global workforce while being open, accessible, and attractive to the world's best talent and future leaders.

International students, scholars, and their families are assets to academic and scientific innovation, public diplomacy, economic vitality, national security, and global leadership. NAFSA's latest analysis finds that the 1,075,496 international students studying at U.S. colleges and universities contributed $38.7 billion and worked more than 415,996 jobs in the U.S. economy during the 2019-2020 academic year (NAFSA, 2020b). They also conduct an annual state-by-state and congressional district analysis of the economic contributions of international students and their families to the U.S. economy. These contributions are in addition to the immeasurable academic and cultural value these students bring to American campuses and local communities.

The report of NAFSA (2006) argues that the absence of a national strategy to attract international students and scholars is starting to show its effects, and urges a renewed commitment by the U.S. to this important asset. Although there are benefits that international students can contribute, many international students still experience prejudice and discrimination by American students.

Micro-interactional Level. Charles-Toussaint and Crowson (2010) examined American students' negative attitudes toward international students. Findings indicated that American students worry that international students pose threats to their economic, education, physical well-being, beliefs, values, and social status as a result of anti-immigrant prejudice. Namely, the lack of intercultural communication causes anxiety related to interacting with people from different groups. When people have the anxiety to interact with people from different cultures, they will create a negative stereotype concerning the behavior of newcomers. For example, Hitlan et al. (2007) studied the relationship between realistic and symbolic threats and prejudice against Mexican and Arab immigrants in the Southwestern U.S. Findings revealed that prejudice against these immigrants was related to realistic and symbolic threats.

Socio-educational Issues

There is tremendous diversity within the international student population at American colleges and universities, with important differences in English language ability, family income, and educational goals. Nevertheless, they are all subject to the same legal and regulatory constraints. Uncertainty over the visa application process alone is a source of great anxiety, and foreign citizenship places important restrictions on eligibility for financial aid and access to work experience.

Recently changed visa policies for international students are not beneficial to institutions and society. The Trump administration's immigration policies are beginning to be felt acutely by universities, as international students struggle to get the visas they need to study in the U.S. International students' visa issues have created unprecedented workloads for many institutions, whose international services offices focused on supporting students with visa-application guidance.

The decline in new international student enrollments has led some institutions to invest more heavily in marketing and recruiting in regard to the sociological analysis at a meso-institutional level. Others are beginning to think more holistically about the entire international student experience, from initial contact through alumni status. While institutions cannot change the visa policies of the U.S. government—at least not by acting individually—there is much they can do to improve the quality of the international student experience on their own campuses.

Building a campus community where international students are fully integrated into the learning process and social environment can benefit everyone. Domestic students may have their only meaningful cross-cultural experiences while interacting with international students on their home campus. Research shows that when students are exposed to individuals from other groups or those who are different from themselves, this can lead to cognitive growth and lower levels of prejudice (Farnsworth, 2018). Researchers and educators agree that the realization of the pluralism imperative is the most significant challenge ever faced by higher education. Kramer & Weiner (1994) noted that the pluralism imperative is so critical that it is hard to imagine the twenty-first century as a workable enterprise for the U.S. without colleges and universities imparting the

necessary skills and sensitivities for living successfully amid ethnic diversity (as cited in Hanassab, 2006).

Hall (1992) also indicated that individuals from different racial and ethnic backgrounds have subtle variations in the ways they communicate, differences of which those from other cultures may be unaware. A critical challenge for every college and university is to educate its diverse student population so that they are multiculturally competent and can successfully function in America's pluralistic society.

Social Justice Analyses

Moral Holding

Democracy and meritocracy were chosen as the moral theories that apply to international student challenges' case. In common language, they are often used synonymously or in close association with ideas of equality, fairness, justice, liberty, and so forth. However, equality is the ideal in democracy while meritocracy is a justification for social inequality. Democracy broadly refers to "rule by the people," or majority consent, whereas meritocracy can be described as rule by a deserving elite (Meroe, 2014). Even though these theories look different, just society is important in both democracy and meritocracy. Both of them reject arbitrary domination by an aristocracy of birth and inheritance (Meroe, 2014). They appeal to the potential ennobling of the person according to one's individual ability, effort, and virtue, as well as collective liberties and protections.

Brint (2017) noted that the term meritocracy has developed more positive connotations today, and it has come to mean rule by the most intellectually able. Specifically, meritocracy is a political system in which economic goods and/or political power are vested in individual people based

on talent, effort, and achievement, rather than wealth or social class. International students came to the U.S. to pursue a degree of advanced education. They have invested their talent and effort into better social positions and life in the future.

Democracy and meritocracy have impacted policy and practice for international students. An ethos that highlights individual achievements and behaviors and downplays the impact of structural conditions ushers in greater mistrust of the usefulness of government interventions for social security and the regulation of free-market capitalism (Meroe, 2014). Even though meritocratic ascendance is fastened by the inheritance of privilege, the presence of a minority of high achievers from underrepresented groups offers the possibilities of social mobility.

Nevertheless, most restrictive policies for international students go against the ideological, political, and practical significance of democracy and meritocracy theories due to current political climates between countries. These moral theories provide a way to consider different views of the international students' essential reason to come to study despite their challenges staying in the U.S.

Social Justice Context

Prejudice, discrimination, and racism became relevant when this case considered social justice, processes, and outcomes related to international student's challenges. In this section, discrimination and racism will be analyzed to consider the case in terms of social justice.

Discrimination. International students often point out discrimination as a major challenge for living in the U.S. Discrimination against groups based on race, class, language, gender, or sexual orientation constitutes barriers to social justice and participatory democracy. Dovidio & Gaertner (1986) noted that discrimination is

"selectively unjustified negative behavior toward members of the target group" (as cited in Banks et al., 2005). Discrimination is a result of prejudice, although there is little empirical evidence to make clear causal links between stereotyping, prejudice, and discrimination (Stephan & Stephan, 2004). Denying access or opportunities to members of out-groups gains the in-group greater status, power, and resources.

Discussions of prejudice and discrimination tend to focus on the biases and negative perceptions of individuals toward members of other groups. As discussed by Nieto (2004), discrimination denotes negative or destructive behaviors that can result in denying some groups' life necessities as well as the privileges, rights, and opportunities enjoyed by other groups. Unfavorable experiences and relations with host nationals have been found to seriously affect the psychological well-being of international students (Hanassab, 2006). In addition, the stereotypes that host nationals hold about international students may carry important consequences for international and intercultural relations (Spencer-Rodgers, 2001).

Racism. According to Gould (1996), "Racism is prejudice or discrimination emanating from the belief that people can be classified into categories based on physical characteristics and that there are genetic or inherited differences that produce feelings of superiority or inferiority among different groups" (as cited in Banks et al., 2005, p. 20). Racism is incompatible with democracy because civic equality is a defining characteristic of a democratic society (Gutmann, 2004). Citizenship education that seeks to cultivate democratic values in students should provide them with the opportunity to think deeply about racism and other forms of inequality and about how they prevent nations from achieving democratic relations.

International students should be engaged in multicultural and anti-racist education. Anti-racist educators make a strong connection between theory and practice to ensure that practice is well-grounded in the sound analysis of how structural and institutional racism operate (Bank et al., 2005). Anti-racist and multicultural education offers teachers and students with opportunities to analyze fundamental aspects of the teaching and learning situation. It addresses the values and worldviews that are represented and prioritized and who constructs the seemingly neutral "standards" that need to be maintained, whose norms and values are prioritized, and what role the school plays in reproducing structures of power and privilege. International student challenges, such as subtle discrimination and racism in society, may be recognized by policymakers and politicians.

Inequality & Opportunity

Increasing globalization presents new opportunities and challenges for institutions of higher education in the U.S. These global trends necessitate the development of innovative and well-conceptualized programs that focus on the promotion, management, and guidance of international students. During the past decades, issues of diversity have moved from their peripheral positions to become central concerns of higher education institutions (Brown, 2004).

The findings of Hanassab's (2006) study indicated that international students experience some discrimination in their interactions with faculty, staff, other students, and the community. Hanassab suggested that international students from the Middle East and Africa experienced more difficulty regarding stereotyping and discrimination. Schmader, Major, and Gramzow (2001) found similar results when their data indicated that African Americans' beliefs about ethnic justice predicted greater

discounting and devaluing among other minority groups in the academic domain.

Diversity is desirable and is an indispensable element of academic excellence merging when creating the conditions to promote and support a diverse campus community (Brown, 2004). A commitment to diversity is much more than achieving an adequate representation among the student body. It entails devising strategies and programs to realize its benefits in education, research, and service. This commitment inevitably means an openness to change.

For educators, the emerging cultural diversity agenda should include the central objective of reducing prejudice and racism. Programs pertaining to cultural diversity must promote both multicultural and international learning for all students, a more favorable climate for both cross-national and interracial relations on campus, and specialized opportunities for domestic students and international students to learn from each other.

Conclusion

International students in the U.S. face many challenges such as international student aid, dealing with cultural differences, or finding a solution to an academic problem. Specifically, getting or changing a visa and maintaining a legal status are priority concerns and issues for international students to study and work stably in the U.S. Issues such as these have caused a decline of new international students enrolled at U.S. colleges.

Recently, several changed policies created an enormous fear for international students who are thinking about where they want to pursue their education. Most restrictive policies even go against the ideological, political, and practical significance of democracy and meritocracy

theories due to current political climates among countries. The overall anti-immigrant rhetoric from the Trump administration makes the U.S. less attractive to prospective students. International students' challenges need to extend people's viewpoints into large ideas about social and political, social justice dimensions in the U.S. to promote students' diversity and inclusion in our society.

To enhance U.S. competitiveness for international students and to maximize students' exposure to U.S. society, immigration laws and regulations about employment must also be updated in other ways. International students should be permitted to work part-time off-campus, as U.S. students can do, in order to enrich their American experience and their ability to earn spending money. The period during which students may work full-time after graduation under their student visas (OPT) should be extended from one year to two years. Otherwise, competitor countries will take strategies to attract international students away from the U.S.

Meanwhile, to reduce discrimination faced by international students, there is a need to promote cross-cultural communication and efforts toward tolerance among people of different customs and values. This communication can advance learning across cultures, build respect among different peoples, and encourage the construction of a global community. If the U.S. wants to maintain a global presence, it is time for its institutions of higher education and its society to pay particular attention to this unique group of students and their experiences.

As populations diversify, states struggle to maintain a sense of commonality without unduly restricting the freedom of all members. Tolerance and respect are essential, for truly multicultural societies must be inclusive of all citizens without privileging some and discriminating against

others. All across the U.S., colleges and universities are becoming increasingly diverse; students are more varied ethnically and linguistically. There is ample evidence in the literature that attests to the benefits of a diverse campus community (Brown, 2004). Many assume that the days of discrimination reflecting prejudices are decreasing in the U.S.

Educators cannot neglect the experiences of international students or underestimate the intellectual, strategic, and financial resources they represent. Educators and counselors need to be aware of their own cultural values, have respect for cultural diversity, knowledge about the group to which the international student belongs, and a genuine interest in other cultures, and then demonstrate these values (Hanassab, 2006). People must be sensitive to the tendency toward cultural stereotypes, as well as the tendency to either over-or underemphasize cultural differences.

University graduates will spend a substantial portion of their careers working with those who come from different racial, national, and ethnic backgrounds. The

student who learns how to work effectively in these new and diverse situations will be at an advantage. International students provide a means of diversifying the campus. Through mutual interactions, those in higher education can acquire new perspectives on our societies, learn about other nations and cultures, acquire intercultural communication skills, gain a more global understanding of the knowledge being produced, and more effectively prepare themselves for future careers with multicultural and international dimensions. The opportunity for personal and professional growth is profound.

This study examined the international student challenges, analyzed the political, social, and educational context, and social justice dimensions. Based on positive social diversity and inclusion climates, political, social, and educational leaders hopefully can obtain insights into reducing international students' challenges and enlarging educational benefits from theoretical and practical perspectives.

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Juhee Kim is an Ed.D. graduate, Department of Educational Leadership and Counselor Education, Eastern Kentucky University.