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REMOVING THE FENCE?: A MIXED-METHODS STUDY OF COREQUISITE COURSES, FACULTY VALIDATION, AND EQUITY FOR MEN OF COLOR IN COMMUNITY COLLEGE ENGLISH

Daniel Hogan

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COURSES, FACULTY VALIDATION, AND EQUITY FOR MEN OF

COLOR IN COMMUNITY COLLEGE ENGLISH

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A Dissertation

Presented to the

Faculty of

California State University,

San Bernardino

_____

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

in

Educational Leadership

_____

by

Daniel C. Hogan

December 2020

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Approved by:

Dr. Nancy Acevedo-Gil, Committee Chair, Education

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ABSTRACT

The passage of California's AB 705 in 2017 mandated that community colleges drastically reimagine their English course offerings in an effort to increase student throughput and eliminate equity gaps. This typically meant replacing traditional remedial coursework and placement with corequisite models of remediation, wherein students took transfer-level courses with built-in concurrent remedial support.

The purpose of this mixed-methods study was to explore the relationship between these structural changes and non-traditional relational success markers, namely faculty validation, especially for male Black and Latino students in English at a large urban California community college. The quantitative phase was a survey of over 1,000 students to measure the amount of faculty validation they received from their English instructors; the qualitative phase consisted of nine interviews with Black and Latino men to discover and understand the most salient validating faculty practices.

The quantitative portion of the study found that on average, male Black and Latino students reported significantly higher levels of faculty validation in corequisite courses than in traditional courses, and that higher levels of faculty validation significantly predicted higher course grades in both course models. The qualitative portion of the study showed that high faculty validation typically resulted in course success, was often more prevalent in corequisite courses, and manifested itself most saliently in faculty individualizing instruction, providing

clear feedback and support on student work and assignments, and maintaining

high expectations.

Keywords: equity, community college, English, faculty, validation, Black, Latino, men of color, mixed-methods.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to acknowledge my Lord and Savior, Jesus Christ, as my inspiration not just for my personal faith, but for my passion for and dedication to education and equality. I believe that human beings are unequivocally created in the image of God (Gen. 1:27), and to serve them—especially the most disenfranchised—is to honor my creator. As Christ said, "For I was hungry, and you gave Me something to eat… Truly I say to you, to the extent that you did it to… them, you did it to Me" (Mat. 25: 35-40, NASB). To echo the Apostle Paul, I consider my life, dedicated to teaching community college students, to be a "living and holy sacrifice" which is my "spiritual service of worship" (Rom. 12:1, NASB).

I must also acknowledge the role my wife, Sophie, has played in supporting me in my further pursuit of my education. Embarking on this journey was not easy for her, sacrificing her husband for three years. Her steadfast love and support were absolutely vital to me completing this dissertation, and her wise counsel (especially at my darkest points) was often the only fuel I had when my tank was otherwise empty.

Beyond these two, I would like to thank my dissertation chair and committee members for their contribution to this study. Specifically, I would like to thank Dr. Hernandez for his thoughtful commentary and insightful questions during the research process, and Dr. Woods for her willingness to invest in this project, and to challenge me on my blind spots through tough but necessary

DEDICATION

For Georgie.

Your daddy loves you.

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CHAPTER ONE

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

"Fences" in Social Institutions

Equity-focused reforms in social institutions like education take a variety of forms. Sometimes these interventions can address small-scale adjustments designed to improve outcomes within existing structures inside of social institutions. Other, broader interventions involve addressing inequities facilitated by structures themselves. Figure 1 illustrates this through a popular meme, which is many people's first introduction to the concept of equity. Attempting to distinguish equality of opportunity from equality of outcome, the
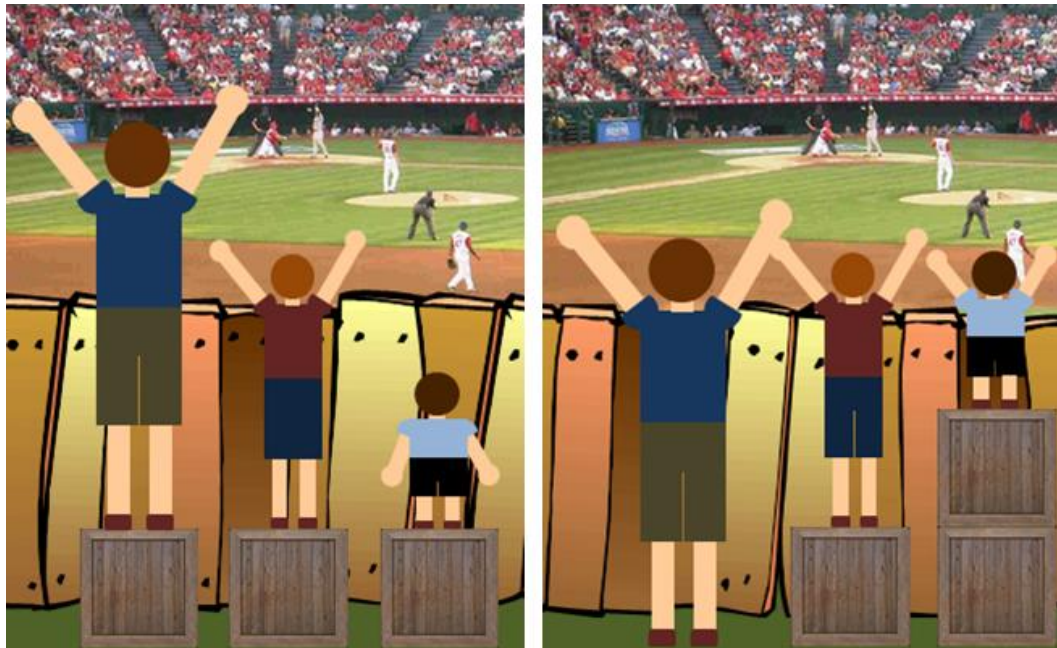
Figure 1. Original Fence Meme. From "The Evolution of an Accidental Meme," by C. Froehle, 2016. (*https://medium.com/@CRA1G/the-evolution-of-an-accidental-meme-ddc4e139e0e4*). Copyright (2012) by Craig Froehle. Reprinted with permission.

meme, a simple graphic depicting three people of varying height attempting to peer over a fence to watch a sporting event, has entered the cultural ether, working its way into academic presentations, HR seminars, and Google image searches.

In Figure 1's leftmost panel, representing equality, each individual is given an equal number of boxes. In the right-most panel, representing equity, the boxes are redistributed so that all three characters can see over the fence, regardless of their height. In a blog post, Froehle (2016) explains that the purpose of the meme was to demonstrate how equal opportunity was not sufficient to help marginalized groups, and that outcomes need to be part of the conversation as well. By 2016, the meme had been shared thousands of times in dozens of iterations and dozens of contexts, praised by some for illustrating a real problem, and critiqued (or lampooned) by others for its implications (Froehle, 2016). For instance, what does it say about the disparities between groups that some are depicted as taller than others? Does this imply that racial and/or gender disparities are somehow innate? To some of these questions, Froehle explained, that the origin of the meme was to bring the concept of equity to a wider audience, less familiar with issues of social justice, intentionally avoiding "typical social justice ideas or imagery" (Personal communication, August 14, 2019). But even Froehle knows the meme fails to encapsulate a perfect explanation of equity: "No metaphor is perfect, and mine is no exception... Education, like most of life, is far more complex than my

simple metaphor – unlike seeing over a fence" (Personal communication, August 14, 2019).

Perhaps the most popular critique of the meme is the unintended metaphorical significance of the fence itself. Taking the metaphor at face value, the fence can stand-in for a variety of symbolic struggles. Figure 2 is the result of the nonprofit Center for Story Based Strategy, who hired an artist to redo Froehle's stock-image meme, incorporating some of the variations which include a third option—removing the fence entirely (Center for Story Based Strategy [CSBS], 2016). Critiquing the original conversation created by the two-panel version of the meme, the CSBS website states, "Versions of the image with a third box, for Liberation, get us a bit further — introducing the idea that narrative assumptions often hide in plain sight. 'The conflict in the story isn't the same if the obstacle is removed!'" (CSBS, 2016). While the
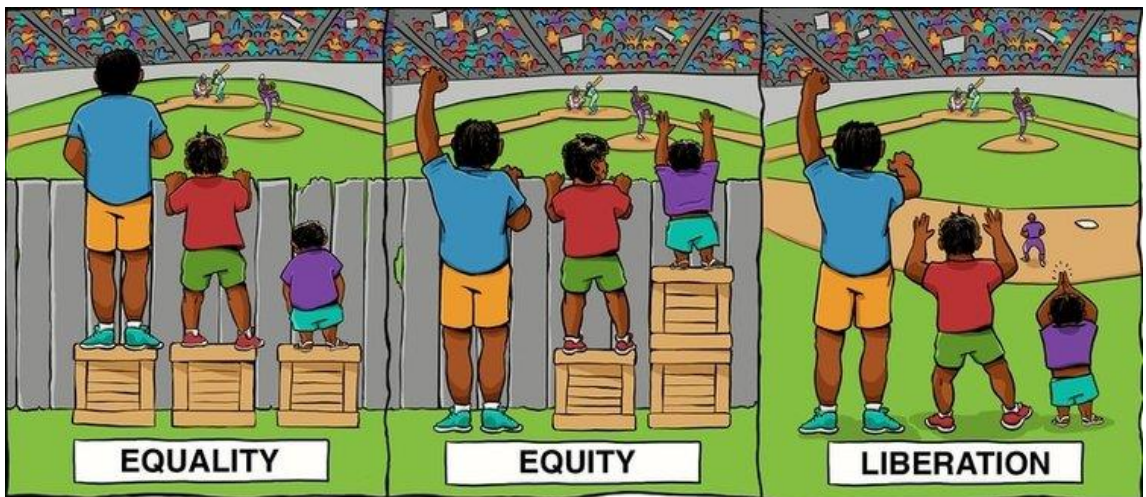
Figure 2. Revised Fence Meme. From "#the4thbox" by the Center for Story Based Strategy, 2016. (https://www.storybasedstrategy.org/the4thbox). Copyright (2016) by the Center for Story Based Strategy. Reprinted with permission.

meme is an admittedly imperfect metaphor to encapsulate all equity issues in social institutions like education, it can be effective at framing the purpose of this dissertation.

In the interest of equity, in 2017, the state of California passed legislation, AB 705, that massively changed the way California community colleges had to teach English and math (Hope, 2018). Such a large structural shift had the potential to remove large barriers (i.e. the fence) to student equity, more quickly and comprehensively than any amount of smaller institutional equity initiatives (i.e. the boxes). Thus, the question underlying this dissertation is "to what extent AB 705 is working as intended?" The goal of this study was to see whether or not this structural change was indeed "removing the fence," producing its intended liberation by increasing student equity.

Problem Statement

The state of California has a legacy of historical systemically discriminatory practices in public education, and while there have been significant reforms in public education in recent decades, racial and gender-based educational disparities in the K-12, community college, and four-year college levels persist in the present day (Campaign for College Opportunity [CCO], 2018, 2019a, 2019b; Kucsera, Siegel-Hawley, & Orfield, 2015; Martinez HoSang, 2013; Noguera & Syeed, 2020; Rodriguez, Cuellar Mejia, & Johnson, 2018). Simply put, the disparate outcomes of marginalized groups are

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undeniable in the present California education system.

In California, at the community college level, while equity gaps exist among many groups, the gap is often widest for men of color, with Black and Latino men specifically constituting the largest populations impacted by the gap; compared to their white and/or female counterparts, Black and Latino men earn degrees or transfer to a four-year university at shockingly low rates (Bukoski & Hatch, 2016; CCO, 2018, 2019; Gardenshire-Crooks, Collado, Martin, & Castro, 2010; Harris & Harper, 2008; Harris & Wood, 2013; Saenz, Bukoski, Lu, & Rodriguez, 2013). Furthermore, research has shown that men of color at the community college, where most Black and Latino men first enroll in higher education, have unique and understudied needs compared to their four-year counterparts (Bush & Bush, 2010; Saenz, et al., 2013; Harris & Wood, 2013).

Recent scholarship has identified developmental education, particularly in the form of multi-semester course sequences in math and English, often taking several years to complete, along with inequitable mandatory standardized placement, as standing in the way of men of color earning a degree or transferring, as many students do not finish the remedial sequence, and therefore do not earn a degree or transfer (Adams, Gearhart, Miller & Roberts, 2009; CCO, 2017; Hern, 2010; Rodriguez, et al., 2018; Scott-Clayton & Rodriguez, 2015). Some of these programs were developed with good intentions to help minority students succeed in college (Bartholomae, 1993; Grubb & Gabriner, 2013). However, their result has often been demoralization and

perpetuation of racial segregation of the very groups they were intended to help (Acevedo-Gil, et al., 2015; Bartholomae, 1993; Grubb & Gabriner, 2013).

To respond to this problem, the California legislature passed Assembly Bill 705 (AB 705). This bill forced colleges to revolutionize the structure and andragogy of their English course offerings in an effort to increase student throughput and eliminate equity gaps (Hope, 2018). Under the legislation, all 116 California community colleges were mandated to adopt radically different course offerings, course models, and educational philosophies to be compliant, and thereby ensure their funding (Hope, 2018). Such changes involved the adoption of multiple measures of assessment and placement, typically using high school GPA or guided self-placement to determine the best courses for students (Hope, 2018). Furthermore, under the new guidelines, as required remediation could no longer exceed one semester, and needed to statistically increase likelihood of student throughput, the vast majority of California community colleges have adopted a corequisite models where students are to take a transferrable college course with concurrent remedial support built into the course, or into a required corequisite support course (Barhoum, 2018; CCO, 2019b; Hope, 2018; Rodriguez, Cuellar Mejia, & Johnson, 2018). By December 2019, 99/116 colleges had adopted some form of corequisite model in English, and 91/116 had did so in math (CCO, 2019b).

In English specifically, research concerning the success of corequisite models of instruction has been promising and positive, showing an increased

likelihood of students completing college level English (a metric commonly referred to as "throughput"), and narrowing equity gaps (Hern, 2020). Granted, the body of research is still in its relative infancy, and most current research reports efforts of early adopters, often highly-motived faculty members and departments, on a much smaller scale than the statewide mandated changes (Barhoum, 2018; Henson & Hern, 2018; Hern, 2020; Huntsman & Henson, 2019; Jaggars, Edgecome, & Stacey, 2014; Rodriguez, et al., 2018; Walker, 2015). While much of the research associated with corequisite courses hints at promising equity gains, drastically increasing completion and throughput for men of color (and other underrepresented groups), the focus of this preliminary research has frequently been on measurable success outcomes such as GPA, unit completion, throughput, degree progress, and transfer—i.e. observable phenomena outside of the classroom versus inside the classroom (Barhoum, 2018; Henson & Hern, 2018; Huntsman & Henson, 2019; Jaggars, Edgecome, & Stacey, 2014; Rodriguez, et al., 2018; Walker, 2015). This is unsurprising considering such measures are easier to calculate than the classroom experiences of individual students and individual professors, not to mention that such non-traditional success factors typically mirror traditional markers (Cuellar, 2015).

While these traditional markers are not unimportant due to their association with economic and social rewards for individuals and society, they are also not the only measures of success—especially with diverse student

populations (Cuellar, 2015). Cuellar (2015) advocates that success needs to encompass the empowerment of marginalized communities through both cognitive and affective qualities, including academic self-concept, social agency, and civic engagement. Likewise, Garcia (2019) also advocates traditional measures of success such as advanced degree attainment, workforce placement, low student debt ratios, and STEM field contributions by members of marginalized communities, in addition to other non-traditional success markers which are traditionally of little value to institutions of higher education. Such measures include the creation of an environment where the language and culture of students of color are valued, and students are welcomed and cared for (Garcia, 2019). Not only are these measures vital to the success of students of color, but they also have strong correlations with their traditional success markers such as engagement, persistence, and degree progress (Garcia, 2019).

For instance, the quality of faculty-student interactions (a non-traditional measure of success) has proven to lead to powerful outcomes for students—especially students of color (Barhoum, 2018; Barnett, 2011; Boykin & Noguera, 2011; Gardenhire-Crooks, et. al, 2010; Kuh, 2003; Newman, Wood, & Harris, 2015; Rendon, 1994; Wood & Ireland, 2014; Wood & Newman, 2017). Such positive faculty-student experiences can be fostered by what Rendon (1994) calls faculty validation. Faculty validation comprises actions initiated by the faculty member, and it can be quantified by measuring the extent to which students report feeling affirmed and encouraged by their professors (Barnett, 2011;

Rendon, 1994). Validating actions include but are not limited to faculty affirming student abilities, celebrating a student's culture, maintaining high expectations, initiating personal connections, and demonstrating care (Rendon, 1994). Faculty validation has even been demonstrated to mediate the effects of some of the unique barriers faced by men of color, such as harmful racial-gender stereotypes of men of color as unintelligent or criminal, conflict between their masculine identities and asking for help, the view that college is a feminine domain, and students' need for respect (Gardenhire-Crooks, et. al, 2010; Newman, et al., 2015).

Despite the newness of corequisite courses, preliminary research on their implementation in English has shown incredibly promising effects for traditional success measures like throughput and likelihood of completion and transfer (CCO, 2019b; Cuellar Mejia, Rodriguez, & Johnson, 2019; Henson & Hern, 2020; Hern, 2020; Johnson & Cuellar Mejia, 2020; Miller, Daugherty, Martorell, & Gerber, 2020). Furthermore, this early data has shown promising effects for non-traditional success measures, particularly a renewed focus on the relational domain of student experiences, including both validation and faculty-student engagement (Barhoum, 2017a; Barhoum, 2017b; Barhoum 2018; Cuellar Mejia, et al., 2019; Johnson & Cuellar Mejia, 2020; Walker, 2015). However, much of this research is often informal, solely qualitative, or only from the faculty's perspective (Barhoum, 2018; Walker, 2015). While it provides some valuable insight, it is not always scalable or generalizable, and much research on the

efficacy of corequisite courses in fostering gains in the relational domain has been collected from schools where early adopters and reformers have reformed without a state mandate to do so (Rodriguez, et al., 2018; Cuellar Mejia, et al., 2019). As all community colleges in California as of fall 2019 have been required to comply with AB705, even more research is both possible and necessary.

By employing a mixed-methods design, this study measured faculty validation for men of color (that is validation experienced by men of color from faculty) in both traditional and corequisite English courses more quantifiably, but also heard from the lived experiences of students themselves exactly how they perceived and explained their relational experiences with faculty validation or its absence. By measuring validation quantitatively, the broader picture of validation at the research site became more visible; by hearing from students, the specific classroom experiences that make up validation became more apparent.

Ultimately, the goal of this study was to examine the effect of AB 705 on equity in measurable success markers (including course grade, throughput, and degree progress/attainment, but also non-traditional success markers) for men of color in English at the community college. AB 705 outlaws two major hurdles to equity: high stakes remedial placement and interminable remedial course sequences. The question that remained was how this structural change might function as "removing the fence." As structural, curricular, andragogical, and relational domains of instruction are interconnected, it is entirely possible that this shift in the tectonic plates of course structure in English could lead to gains in the

relational domain (i.e. faculty validation) and subsequently gains in equity for men of color in community college English.

Purpose and Hypotheses / Research Questions

The purpose of this study, therefore, was to explore potential relationships between these new structural changes, student success, and the relational domain (specifically faculty validation). A sequential explanatory study was used, collecting qualitative data after a quantitative phase to explain or follow up on the quantitative data in more depth. In the quantitative phase of the study, an instrument measuring faculty validation in the classroom (that is, the degree to which students feel validated by their professors) was collected from a representative sample of students in both traditional first-year composition as well as corequisite first-year composition at Patterson College[1], a large, urban, California community college. The instrument was administered to students through an in-person survey during students' regular class time. These data, along with student demographic data (self-reported in the instrument) and final grade (provided after the semester's end by Patterson's office of institutional effectiveness with the informed consent of the students) helped to explain how validation and course grade related to student gender, race, and placement in either a traditional or corequisite composition course.

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[1] A pseudonym; the names of the college, specific course numbers, and any and all students, staff, or faculty members are pseudonyms.

The second, qualitative phase of the research was necessary because while the instrument measured student perception of validation from faculty, it did not give specific examples of validating experiences. The qualitative phase, therefore, explored specific examples of validating and invalidating experiences, showing which specific classroom behaviors, interactions, or attitudes from faculty toward students were most salient in their experiences. In the qualitative follow-up, the classroom experiences of male Black and Latino students was explored in nine semi-structured interviews from male Black and Latino students at Patterson, from both traditional and corequisite courses, and who both passed and failed the course. While the ultimate goal of the exploratory follow-up hinged on the findings in the quantitative phase, the follow-up added dimension and specificity to the general levels of validation expressed by students in the quantitative phase, and helped show which classroom experiences fostered and/or stifled validation. Ultimately, this study measured and explained the relationships between faculty validation, student final grade, and course model (i.e. traditional or corequisite), race, and gender at Patterson college, a large, urban California community college.

An overarching research question guided this study, along with two specific hypotheses and four qualitative research questions:

Overall Research Question – What relationship, if any, can be discerned between structural changes in first-year composition and the relational experiences of male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California

community college?

Hypothesis 1 (H1) – On average, male Black and Latino students in a corequisite English class will report higher levels of faculty validation than those in traditional classes.

Hypothesis 2 (H2) – Faculty validation will be positively related to the final grade in the course for male Black and Latino students in both traditional and corequisite course models.

Research Question 1 – What relationship, if any, can be discerned between course grade and validating and/or invalidating experiences described by male Black and Latino students in a first-year composition course at a large, urban California community college?

Research Question 2 – What relationship, if any, can be discerned between course placement (traditional or corequisite) and validating and/or invalidating experiences described by male Black and Latino students in a first-year composition course at a large, urban California community college?

Research Question 3 - How do male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California community college describe validating and/or invalidating experiences with their first-year composition instructors?

Research Question 4 – What validating and/or invalidating experiences from their English professors do male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California community college consider most salient?

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Significance of the Study

With so many changes occurring simultaneously as a result of AB 705, it can be complicated to assess the impact of such a monumental paradigm shift. While AB 705 was positioned as a measure to help California reach educational equity, educators could not really know its effects until those effects were measured and explored. While many eyes were on traditional measures of student success, such as pass rates, GPA, degree progress, and transfer, it takes more (and different) work to answer questions about the experiences of students in the classroom related to the andragogical and relational domains. As Garcia (2019) explains, addressing non-traditional measures of success is crucial for students of color, and often directly leads to success in traditional measures. As Barhoum (2017a) states, the structural, curricular, andragogical, and relational domains all intersect, and changing a factor related to one domain has a large bearing on the other domains. While this study hypothesized that these collateral effects of the structural change of AB 705 would have positive effects on faculty validation and lead to increased student throughput and course success, we could not know until we looked.

Summary

The power of the "fence" meme is more than just explaining the concept of equity. It is not just a simple way to explain a concept. It is a challenge for educators to think about how the actions they take (or the actions the

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government takes on their behalf) actually affect equity in the lives of real people. This mixed-methods study measured quantitatively how the structural and curricular changes of AB 705 in placement and course design impacted the andragogical and relational domains (in the form of faculty validation) of teachers and faculty, specifically for men of color. By analyzing quantitative data in addition to hearing students' experiences in their own voices, this study gives educators at Patterson college and elsewhere an understanding of the impact of AB 705.

Beyond AB 705, this study continues the vital conversation about equity, specifically for men of color, the quantitative phase measuring just how much validation relates to student success, but the qualitative phase giving a better picture of what that looks like specifically. The results of this study inform educators at Patterson and elsewhere the power of validation in fighting for equity. The next chapter provides a deeper look into the literature about the history of developmental education, specifically in English, the legacy of institutional racism in California schools and its past and present manifestations, the development of the practices mandated by AB 705, the unique needs of community college men of color, and the best and most current research on the role of the faculty member and the relational domain in achieving equity.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Structure of this Review

The passage of California Assembly Bill 705 (AB 705) marks a monumental shift not only in the teaching of English or remediation, but teaching at the California community college altogether, specifically concerning the continued quest for equity, by barring the use of high-stakes standardized placement tests and severely limiting colleges' ability to require students to take remedial coursework (Hope, 2018). This review of the literature will explore the following: 1. The history of instruction at the community college leading up to the passage of AB 705, including the rise and evolution of developmental education, and the most recent reform efforts to increase efficacy and equity of remedial education through structural, curricular, andragogical, and relational reform. 2. A specific focus on the literature surrounding the effects of andragogical and relational practices of teachers (Barhoum 2017a), focusing particularly on the faculty-centered areas of validation (Rendon, 1994). 3. An exploration of the legacy of institutional racism in the California educational system and the specific past and present manifestations of institutional racism for men of color. 4. An exploration of the current research on men of color at the community college, focusing particularly on Black and Latino men, including some of the most extensive qualitative and quantitative research on factors influencing their success. 5. The review will conclude by looking at the biggest gap in the

literature: largely that the influences of several of these schools of thought—from corequisite English courses, to validation, to equity for men of color—have never heretofore been studied together as factors that explicitly influence one another. While the current literature hints at these disparate literatures influencing one another, my study attempts to marry the bodies of research in a study that explores connections between the adoption of corequisite English courses (a structural change) and faculty validation (a relational change) along with narrowing equity gaps in traditional success markers among male Black and Latino students.

Delimitations

While discussing AB 705's overall scope, effectiveness, theoretical underpinnings, and course design, data from reforms in both math and English will be explored. However, the focus of this study and therefore this review will be on English. While math is equally worthy of study, simultaneously studying English and math is beyond the scope of this study. Furthermore, my own experience as a community college English professor shapes my suitedness to study and informs my insight into the unique problems facing English students, professors, and programs.

When it comes to studying equity, even the terms used to refer to educational disparities are contentious (Nieto & Bode, 2018). Some have championed terms for this disparity, like "achievement gap," "resource gap,"

"opportunity gap," and "expectations gap," blaming students, socioeconomics, lack of privilege, and teachers, respectively (Nieto & Bode, 2018). The danger of some of above terms is that they highlight a single cause of inequity, which absolves other forces and institutions of their responsibility in creating or solving the problem (i.e. if the problem is "achievement," faculty could claim they have no responsibility; if the problem is "expectations" politicians could claim poverty plays no role, etc.). I have therefore chosen the term "equity gap," as it recognizes equity as a complex, multivariate phenomenon and does not absolve any party from its responsibility in perpetuating or eliminating inequity. Instead, it focuses on solutions to the gap and its legion inter-related causes.

When discussing equity and student success, I recognize that these terms have myriad meanings as well. I acknowledge that "traditional" markers of student success—course grade, throughput, GPA, degree progress/attainment, and transfer—are not the only ways, or even the best ways to measure the success of students of color (Cuellar, 2015; Garcia, 2019). However, for clarity's sake, when I refer to student success, I am referring more broadly to these traditional measures; in the study itself, I am defining success as course grade in a first-year composition course. Similarly, with the term equity, I am referring to equal outcomes in these traditional success measures between various race, gender, and class groups; in the study itself, I will use equity to describe equal outcome in course grade between racial, gender, and class groups. The reason for these traditional definitions is to mirror the language of Hope (2018) in

describing the goals of AB 705 with reference to success and equity. Because these measures of success and equity are so widely used, I use them as well, partly to avoid confusion with the rest of the literature, but partly to define them the same way as the state does. However, by measuring faculty validation, itself a non-traditional measure of success and equity, I am interested in expanding understandings of student success and equity. Furthermore, I am interested in how non-traditional measures of success and equity like validation might influence the traditional success markers such as course grade and throughput.

While occasionally this review will comment on equity gaps which exist between various demographic groups as a whole, including both male and female students, along with gender minorities, the focus will largely be on male students. As is clear from the research, men at the community college have unique, gendered needs that are often different from those of their female counterparts and therefore worthy of focus in their own study (Bukoski & Hatch, 2016; Harris & Harper, 2008; Saenz, Bukoski, Lu, & Rodriguez 2013). Furthermore, a pronounced equity gap exists between male college students, particularly male students of color, and their female counterparts at every level of higher education; in this problem, this intersectional gap between race and gender is worthy of isolated exploration (Harris & Harper, 2008). Additionally, some of the referenced research will explore masculinity and maleness in general, across all races, including white men, as some factors surrounding the success of male students apply to all men. However, the majority of the research

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referenced will pertain directly men of color.

 While the term "men of color" describes any non-white male, and occasionally this review will consult research which includes students from a variety of backgrounds, including those of Asian, Pacific Islander, Native American, and/or mixed-race descent, among others, the primary focus of this review will be on Black and Latino men, as these two groups of male students of color are the most populous groups of men of color at the research site.

 Finally, this review will focus on research specifically concerning community college students. It is worth noting for clarification that when discussing the teaching practices of college professors, both Barhoum (2017a) and I choose to use the term andragogy over the term pedagogy because "andragogy is defined as the art and science of how adults learn" (p. 799) whereas pedagogy refers to how children learn. As this is a study of adult learners, this word will be used. Occasionally this review will reference research on K-12 or four-year university students. This will largely apply when the history or theoretical development of a concept applies largely or originally to non-community college students, or when researchers have cited research on four-year universities or K-12 students to adapt them for the community college level. However, due to the connected nature of the K-12 system and higher education and because various higher education studies use the term pedagogy, occasionally the terms pedagogy and andragogy will be used interchangeably— especially in the quotations of others—even though in my own words I try to

maintain the distinction between the two.

It is also worth noting a few stylistic choices with regard to race and language. In this study, I choose the word "Black," and to capitalize that word when used, to describe people of African descent, particularly those in the United States descended from enslaved peoples; I choose to capitalize "Black" because it refers to a specific social phenomenon and people group with shared history and experiences, thus demanding capitalization as a proper noun (Appiah, 2020; Coleman, 2020; McWhorter, 2020b). While there is scholarly variation in the way this word is used, with other scholars using lowercase "black" or "African American," for instance, for the purposes of this study, all of these terms will be used interchangeably.

I will not, however, be capitalizing the word "white" to describe people of European descent, or those otherwise racialized as white. Appiah (2020) cites several rationales for capitalizing or not capitalizing "white" when referring to white people, but ultimately argues that for grammatical consistency's sake, that both Black and white should be capitalized. While I agree with the logical grammatical consistency, I side with McWhorter (2020b) who argues for the socially constructed nature of whiteness, stating, "White is just as arbitrary as Black when we talk about these things," citing numerous contradictory usages of the term, sometimes selectively used to describe peoples from Latin America or the Middle East, depending on the circumstance. But despite its arbitrariness, McWhorter (2020b) ultimately argues against capitalizing the "w" in "white"

because the practice has already been used by white nationalists to enshrine whiteness as superior. In McWhorter's (2020b) words, "It's inconvenient… because [white supremacists] happened to get there first, but it would make me uncomfortable to start capitalizing 'white.'" Following this logic—recognizing the sociopolitical rationale over the grammatical—I do not capitalize "white."

Finally, I will also be using the word Latinx as a pan-ethnic, gender-neutral term to describe peoples who trace their roots to Latin America (but not Europe, unlike the term "Hispanic"). Latinx is a word of considerable controversy, especially considering that in the United States, only 25% of the people the term proports to describe have even heard of it, and just 3% of them actually use it (Noe-Bustamante, Mora, & Lopez, 2020). Comparing Latinx to other terms originating in academic and activist spaces, McWhorter (2019) argues that this lack of popularity stems from a lack of a universal linguistic need for the term amongst most Latinx people, unlike words like the singular "they," which have become quite popular both in the academy and common parlance.

Others have even argued that the untranslatability of the "x" in the Spanish language is a form of linguistic imperialism on Spanish-speaking peoples by a predominantly white, English-speaking academy (De Onis, 2017). Perhaps most practically, Salinas (2020) found after interviewing 34 Latinx students, "a majority of the participants perceived higher education as a privileged space where they only used the term *Latinx* to be inclusive. Once they returned to their communities, they did not use the term" (p. 162), while "Other participants stated

that they only used the term Latinx in higher education settings, such as diversity, social justice, and multicultural centers" (p. 163). This sentiment is supported by my research, where many students, when filling out their race or ethnicity on the quantitative instrument, did not check "Hispanic/Latinx" but instead opted for "Other" and wrote in such words as "Latino" or "Mexican."

But while the overwhelming majority of Latinx people do not personally use the term, I understand its utility and also its widespread acceptance in the academy. I choose to use the term because, recognizing Vidal-Ortiz and Martinez (2018), "Latinx is a more encompassing term that… is rooted neither in a gender binary (Latino/a) nor on an androcentric gendered hierarchy (Latino)." Despite its unpopularity amongst non-academic Latinx people, and the arguments for and against its use from within the academy, the term serves an important utility, describing people in a gender-inclusive manner, and is currently the most widespread term within the academy to do so. For that reason, I use the term as well. When referring specifically to individual or groups of all-male or all-female Latinx people, however, I use Latino or Latina, respectively.

California Community Colleges: Origins and Student Demographics

The American community college system, like any system, has a multiplicity of origins and functions. Cohen, Brawer, and Kisker (2013), point to workforce demand, prolonged adolescence, and desire for increased equality and educational access—all at the beginning of the twentieth century—to

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necessitating the development of the community college. Inherent in this origin is the spirit of American productivity, with the populist belief among the public that more years of schooling would lead to upward mobility and social improvement (Cohen, et al., 2013).

Definitions and missions of the community college have changed through the years, state-by-state, sometimes in contradictory ways, (Cohen, et al., 2013). But the California State Department of Education's Master Plan for Higher Education in California (1960) legally prescribed that community colleges (then called junior colleges) should be two-year colleges, offering courses designed for transfer to a university, vocational education for employment, and general education for personal enrichment. Other suggestions the Master Plan made were that community colleges admit any adult person who could benefit from instruction, with the California State University system drawing from the top one-third of high school graduates and the University of California system drawing from the top one-eighth (California State Department of Education [CSDE], 1960). Also recommended by the Master Plan is that California community colleges serve a minimum of 400, optimum of 3,500, and maximum of 6,000 students (CSDE, 1960).

Since 1960, the California Community College (CCC) system has changed dramatically. In the 2019-2020 academic year, with more than 2.3 million students, the CCC system was the largest higher education system in the country, enrolling approximately one quarter of Californians between the ages

18-24 (Community College Chancellor's Office [CCCCO], 2019; CCCCO, 2020). Demographically, for the 19-20 year, 54.55% of CCC students were female, 43.94% were male, and 1.5% were unknown or non-binary (CCCCO, 2020). Furthermore, nationwide, 25% have dependents, and 12.5% are single parents (National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 2012, as cited by Cohen, et al., 2013). Also, nationwide, 28% of dependent students are at the bottom of income scale, and 21% of students are below the poverty level, with 45% working part-time jobs and 33% working full-time jobs, and 45% are first-generation college students (NCES, 2012, as cited in Cohen, et al., 2013).

Demographically, in California, while traditionally college-aged students (18-24) were 79% white in 1960, they were 46% Latinx by 2015 (Legislative Analyst's Office [LAO], 2017). While 98,000 full-time equivalent students attended community colleges in 1960, 1,138,000 full-time equivalent students attended in 2015, and while the average CCC campus size was 1,500 students in 1960, by 2015 it had grown to 10,100 (LAO, 2017). Furthermore, approximately 45% (968,618) students at the community college are Latinx compared to 47% of the CA population between the ages of 18-24 (Campaign for College Opportunity [CCO], 2018). Worth noting, however, is that Latinx students are underrepresented at every level of higher education in CA, comprising 42% of CSU, 27% of UC, 27% of private non-profit, and 31% of private for-profit students statewide (CCO, 2018). Of Latinx students enrolled in the CCC for fall 2018, approximately 56% were female while 44% were male (CCCCO, 2018b).

Meanwhile, at the CCC's, Black Californians comprise 7% of the students (approximately 151,000), a slight overrepresentation compared to 6% of 18-24-year-olds in California who are Black (CCO, 2019). Like Latinx students, Black students are underrepresented at the CSU (4%) and UC (2%) systems, while equitably represented (6%) at private nonprofit institutions, and significantly over-represented (10%) at for-profit institutions (CCO, 2019). Of Black students enrolled in the CCC for fall 2018, approximately 55% were female while 45% were male (CCCCO, 2018b). White students, by comparison, are underrepresented in the CCC, comprising 26% of CCC students (approximately 559,000 students) (CCCCO, 2019) compared to 31% college-aged individuals in California being white (LAO, 2017). But at the Cal State and UC levels, the proportion of white students to Black and Latinx students is also higher compared to the CA population (CCO, 2015). Of white students enrolled in the CCC for fall 2018, approximately 53% were female while 47% were male, a smaller male-female equity gap than for Black and Latinx students (CCCCO, 2018b).

Beyond who attends community college lies the question of why they attend. Cohen, et al. (2013) hold that just as the origins and missions of community colleges are legion, so are reasons for student enrollment, but they cite transfer, getting a job, getting a better job, and personal enrichment as the primary reasons that students attend community college. Meanwhile, in their study, Núñez, Sparks, and Hernández (2011) found that the majority of community college students nationwide intend to transfer to a four-year institution

and attain at least a BA, and that the most common reasons for attending a

particular institution include affordability, location, and academic programs

available. Furthermore, the majority of students (63-73% of students of color,

depending on racial group, and 47% of white students) nationwide are from low-

income backgrounds (with the plurality of Black and Latinx students from the

lowest income quartile) (Núñez, et al., 2011). The majority of community college

students nationwide also had a high school GPA of less than 3.0, have parents

who never attended or finished college, and come from urban backgrounds

(Núñez, et al., 2011). All this goes to say that contemporary CCC students are

predominantly students of color, the majority of whom are female, and the

plurality of whom are Latinx, with goals that are usually tied to further education

or employment. Yet recent research has identified remedial coursework as a

large hurdle to CCC students seeking to transfer; prior to AB 705, on average,

80% of students were placed into developmental course sequences upon arriving

at community college, only 24% would ever transfer to a four-year university

(CCO, 2017).

The Development of Developmental Education

To accommodate changing demographics, especially an exponential

increase in numbers, community colleges gradually created developmental

education, "also known as remedial, compensatory, preparatory, or basic skills"

(Cohen, et al., 2013). While it has gone by a variety of names, often used

interchangeably, this branding has been a conscious, theoretically driven decision. Boylan (2001) advocates for the term "developmental education" over other terms like remediation, as remediation is only one component of helping students develop personally and academically (as cited in Barnes, 2012).

While remedial work has existed in one form or another since the beginning of the community college system (Boylan & Saxon, 1999; Cohen, et al., 2013; Soliday, 2002), its proliferation, especially in English, drastically accelerated beginning in the 1970's alongside a literacy crisis. Soliday (2002) reported that in 1963 at City College of New York, one fourth of the college's students were deemed "too backward" (p. 20) for college level work. Similarly, in 1973, 27% of four-year schools were offering remedial writing courses (Soliday, 2002). By 1987, in a survey of 900 institutions, 84% of them offered basic skills courses, mostly in English departments (Soliday, 2002). By 1996, 99% of community colleges in the U.S. offered remedial coursework (NCES, 1996, as cited in Boylan & Saxon, 1999). To explain this growth of developmental education in English, Soliday (2002) points to a number of factors, including but not limited to declining enrollment in English (and an attempt to avoid retrenchment) and commitment to equal opportunity and affirmative action programs to increase enrollment institution-wide, and specifically in English.

By the late 1980s, remediation, especially in English, had become a cultural battle in and outside the academy surrounding "the competing claims of access and excellence," (Soliday, 2002, p. 105). Some forces decried remedial

education programs as wasteful and ineffective, while others defended them as necessary tools to extend access to working-class and underrepresented minority students, while still others, from within the academy, saw them as necessary sorting tools to keep underprepared students at bay from content-area courses (Soliday, 2002). The picture Soliday (2002) paints is an institutionalist Gordian knot of "maintaining standards" through stratifying students, implementing institutional barriers to preserve prestige and exclusivity, struggling to maintain relevance, pathologizing and segregating poor students and students of color, fooling the academy and the public through the myth of transience, and genuinely attempting to bring about social justice and equity.

While these myriad forces worked through the decades to expand developmental education, Soliday (2002) argues that this process became most successful when institutions ideologically married the mission of remediation to one of increasing access to students of color. Part of this process involved a conscious re-branding of remediation from its infamous designation as "bonehead English" to the more euphemistic terms such as Basic Writing or Boylan's (2001) preferred Developmental Education (Soliday, 2002).

Reflecting on the origin of developmental education, Bartholomae (1993) echoes these similar equity-minded sentiments, deeming developmental education a product of "liberal sympathy and liberal reform" (p. 8). Bartholomae (1993) recounts a demoralizing episode from an early teaching position, all too familiar to many instructors, where the curriculum taught to largely "basic writers"

"spent 14 weeks slowly and inevitably demonstrating their failures" (p. 5). When

Bartholomae confronted the dean with this issue, the dean said, "Why don't you

set up a basic writing program?" (Bartholomae, 1993, p. 7). Bartholomae's

dean's suggestion is an example of what Grubb and Gabriner (2013) describe as

"remedial pedagogy" (p. 49) and viewing "the course as the unit of instruction,"

(p. 188) two mainstays of developmental education at the community college.

Grubb and Gabriner (2013) document that despite well-documented care for their

students in developmental education, the strategies employed by faculty and

colleges tend to follow familiar patterns. Under remedial pedagogy, which

focuses on atomistic drill and practice strategies, instructors believe the solution

to helping students struggling with big-picture ideas and college-level work is to

go back to the basics and focus on the smaller skills (Grubb & Gabriner, 2013).

Grubb and Gabriner (2013) point out that following this principle, many

institutions have a tendency to prioritize the addition of courses over other

avenues such as improving student services like counseling or tutoring in order

to address perceived skills gaps. Thus, following these principles, "liberal

sympathy and liberal reform" (Bartholomae, 1993, p. 8) produced a generation of

developmental education.

Efficacy of Developmental Education

Despite the more recent, radical changes to developmental education

embodied in AB 705, making them seem antiquated by comparison,

developmental practices were indeed "based on theoretical foundations and

educational research" (McCabe & Day, 1998, p. 24) with promising results.

Examining a number of "exemplary" developmental education programs,

McCabe and Day (1998) emphasized that successful developmental education

programs "show considerable achievement" (p. 25). McCabe and Day (1998)

defend developmental ed from naysayers, citing higher grades and persistence

from those completing remediation than those who do not. As evidence for

student success, McCabe and Day (1998) explain that "Student success levels

regularly reach 80 percent in English, reading, and mathematics, and about 90

percent of students receive GPAs of 2.0 or better. Performance levels in college

courses are equal to or better than those of traditional students" (p. 25). And not

only was the success of developmental education documented, but so were best

practices. In their review of thirty years of developmental education research,

Boylan and Saxon (1999) cast problems with remediation as a failure to institute

best practices, claiming, "We know how to do it. We simply do not use what we

know" (p. 12). Boylan and Saxon (1999) document a number of success

strategies, including but not limited to being clearer about objectives, standards,

and structure in course design, using mandatory placement tests, and the

implementation of tutoring and learning communities.

Yet despite the availability of best practices, research on the effectiveness

of traditional remediation—especially increasing student GPA, retention, and

completion—has been decidedly mixed. Jenkins, Jaggars, and Roska (2009)

found, for instance, that success rates in college-level English and math did not

significantly differ between those who completed remediation and those who bypassed recommended remedial coursework. Similarly, assessing the overall effectiveness of remediation, Bremer, Center, Opsal, Medhanie, Jang, and Geise (2013), found that while taking developmental English, reading, and writing classes was predictive of improved early retention, taking developmental English was not helpful for improving student GPA, and taking developmental math was unhelpful for both persistence *and* GPA. Ultimately, Bremer, et al. (2013) found that initial remedial placement, especially in math, was predictive of students' students' failure, and that tutoring and financial aid were much more clearly related to student success than developmental coursework.

Beyond questions about the effectiveness of remediation is the stigma associated with being labeled by the school as deficient. As part of Grubb and Gabriner's (2013) research, they interviewed dozens of CCC students, and the prevailing opinions were that basic skills classes were boring, decontextualized, too easy, repetitive, disconnected from their majors, and demoralizing—or as one student put it, "we can't be lower than high school—that's kinda sad" (p. 38). This invalidation provided by remedial placement is also expressed by students studied by Acevedo-Gil, Santos, Alonso, and Solorzano (2015), who reported that students found remedial placement both frustrating and overwhelming, as remedial placement delayed their ultimate academic goals.

In part to explore the statistical impact of this discouraging effect, Scott-Clayton and Rodriguez (2015) explored three prevailing hypotheses surrounding

developmental education: 1) that developmental education works as intended, helping prepare underprepared students for success in college, 2) that assignment to remedial coursework discourages students, segregating them and causing a negative impact, and 3) that remediation largely just diverts students away from taking college-level courses. Scott-Clayton and Rodriguez's (2015) regression-discontinuity analysis of a variety of student records indicated that while some evidence existed for the discouragement hypothesis hurting students, the most evidence existed for the diversion hypothesis, which was problematic as their findings indicated that many students could have succeeded just as well in transfer-level courses.

Most importantly, developmental courses are not fulfilling their design of preparing students for future coursework, as they often teach skills that prepare students for courses that they "may never take" (Scott-Clayton & Rodriguez, 2015, p. 43). Some research has explored the effect of validating teaching practices in developmental education, improving faculty-student relationships for developmental students, counteracting potentially invalidating aspects of course design and placement (Barhoum & Wood, 2016); however, it would seem that any level of invalidation inherent in the design of developmental remedial course sequences—especially when they lack clear benefits according to Scott-Clayton & Rodriguez (2015)—would be undesirable, and would call for improvements to the developmental course sequence itself, course design, curriculum, and placement mechanisms.

Attempts at Improving Efficacy of Developmental Education. Other authors

have commented on a variety of strategies and programs to help increase the

effectiveness of developmental education, including through learning

communities. Acevedo-Gil, Santos, and Solórzano (2014) identify the Puente

program as one of many promising practices for Latinx students in

developmental education. Begun in 1981 at Chabot college, Puente (Spanish for

"bridge") was designed to help Latinx students achieve academically,

specifically to transfer to a four-year institution (Acevedo-Gil, et al., 2014). Now

serving over fifty community college campuses, the program provides students

with a variety of support services, including writing instruction that is often

cohort-based, where students take the same courses together, often centered

on Latinx authors and themes; the program also provides counseling and

mentoring, along with other support services including culturally relevant

community activities (Acevedo-Gil, et al., 2014).

Similarly, Bush, Bush, and Wilcoxson (2009), discuss the salience of the

Umoja program for Black students. Begun in 2006 at Diablo Valley College, the

Umoja Community (named from the Kiswahili word meaning "unity") now has

over fifty colleges as members (Umoja Community, 2017). The first statewide

initiative to address the needs of Black students, Umoja seeks to holistically

support Black students individually and collectively (Bush, et al., 2009). Like

Puente, schools that participate in the Umoja community provide learning

communities and linked classes (including developmental math, English, reading,

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and guidance courses), often organized around African/African American-centered authors and themes, while also connecting Black students to cultural activities, scholarships, mentorship, and counseling (Bush, et al., 2009).

Some community college programs specifically focus on supporting men of color in college as well. For instance, the Men of Ujima Manhood Development Program, a subprogram founded as an extension of the larger Umoja program, focuses on academics and retention, mentorship, respect for elders, collegiality, and respect for self and culture (Bush, et al. 2009). Similarly, Project MALES (Mentoring to Achieve Latino Educational Success) is a multi-faceted mentoring and research program based at the University of Texas at Austin, and it serves a number of Texas middle schools, high schools, community colleges, and universities in order to support male Latino students and other students of color; its mentoring program connects male professional role models, current male college students, and younger male students to foster community and mentorship (Project MALES, 2019).

Other programs, like First-Year Experience, have been offered to help improve outcomes for developmental education students. Barnes (2012) found promising results in a study of 146 students in a First Year Experience program at an urban community college; in the program, small cohorts of students enrolled in pre-college math and English and "Personal Growth" courses, which were designed to provide validating experiences. Barnes (2012) found that participation in this program had a significant effect on student persistence for the

predominantly Latinx participants.

Bettinger, Boatman, & Long (2013), however, temper these promising findings on such learning communities, largely due to problems of scale, as studies show that despite the popularity of learning communities, "at most only a small portion of the student body participated in those communities" (p. 102). Acevedo-Gil, et al. (2014) share similar concerns about the Puente program, noting that, "a lack of adequate funding does not allow these programs to serve all Latina/o students in developmental education. Therefore, eligible participants have to meet certain criteria, including attending school full-time or placing at a certain level in developmental education" (p. 9). Other studies have called into question the overall effectiveness of learning communities altogether; citing random-assignment evaluations out of Kingsborough College, Bettinger, et al. (2013) note that "learning communities did help students complete their developmental education courses, but that over a two-year period they had no effect on persistence in college and little effect on credit accumulation, leading to mixed conclusions about their effectiveness overall" (p. 103). Barnes and Piland (2010) similarly found mixed results in their study of learning communities, noting that while learning communities were positively related to some student success markers, this success varied among student groups, and was likely one of many contributors to success.

Bettinger, et al. (2013) extend this uncertainty about learning communities to other support services, noting how little evidence clearly connects success to

the efficacy of a particular intervention, making it hard for institutions to determine where to allocate limited resources. In their study, Bettinger, et al. (2013) examine not only the modest effectiveness of programs such as summer bridge programs and learning communities, but also point to advising, counseling, and tutoring as salient if under-scaled and underfunded endeavors.

Grubb and Gabriner (2013) also explore the mixed results of student services, extolling their importance as valuable tools to aid student success, especially when mandatory or integrated into course design, but lament the fact that optional student services often go underused by those students who need them most. Even worse, Grubb and Gabriner (2013) note that sometimes student services can become a "blizzard of services" (p. 108), which is confusing to navigate for students in terms of which service is designed for which group of students, and who is eligible for what, with limited access extended to part-time students and instructors to utilize them. These phenomena, Grubb and Gabriner (2013) explain are overall symptomatic of the larger culture of "laissez-faire institutions" (p. 200), where little guidance and direction is readily available for students or instructors to help them navigate the available support systems in place—even when they seek them. While these findings can seem discouraging, they do not necessarily discount the potential of learning communities or other programs; they do, however, bring up important questions of efficacy and scalability.

Early Criticism of Developmental Education

In light of the modest results of efforts like learning communities in improving success rates for developmental education students, it became clear to some educators that the solution to improving developmental education was bigger than improving remediation: some of the problems were endemic to remediation in the first place (Adams, Gearhart, Miller & Roberts, 2009; Hern, 2010). The first of these problems is a mathematical problem. Despite high success rates in developmental courses and subsequent success rates of remediation completers in transfer-level courses (McCabe & Day, 1998), the success numbers did not always add up. Adams, et al. (2009) describe this mathematical discrepancy: while the pass rates of individual developmental courses were strong, the overall throughput of students in transfer-level English was alarmingly low. Adams, et al. (2009) write, "Looking at success rates for one course at a time masks the true picture… The problem was not that basic writers were attempting first-year composition and failing; the problem was that they… [n]ever reached that course" (p. 52). This point was later echoed by Scott-Clayton and Rodriguez (2015).

Upon further review, Adams, et al. (2009) concluded that developmental courses function as "a pipeline" through which students pass to succeed, but often "leak," or drop out of, before ever finishing transfer-level courses (p. 53). Boylan and Saxon (2009) show that this problem existed on a national level from their review of large national data, as even though completers of remediation

tended to succeed in college-level work, not all of them ever took college level

courses (as cited in Adams, et al., 2009). These findings by Adams, et al. (2009)

and Boylan and Saxon (2009) point to the flaws in the success numbers of

McCabe & Day (1998), as they, too, focus on success in one course at a time,

rather than the longitudinal trajectory of students over time. Simply put,

developmental education was not nearly as effective as advertised.

The second problem with developmental education—beyond the

overlooked mathematical issue—is perhaps best explored by Bartholomae

(1993), who recognizes that despite the best intentions of some of its creators,

developmental education has essentially led to segregation, stratification, and

marginalization of groups of students as the "other," serving institutional needs

rather than students. Bartholomae (1993) writes that in creating and maintaining

basic writing programs, institutions have maintained, largely for their own benefit,

structural separation, stating, "in the name of sympathy and empowerment, we

have once again produced the 'other' who is the incomplete version of ourselves,

confirming existing patterns of power and authority, reproducing the hierarchies

we had meant to question and overthrow (p. 18). A classic case of the road to

hell being paved with good intentions, Bartholomae (1993) here points to

perhaps the most troubling effect of remediation and developmental ed: inequity.

Perhaps the most troubling effect of this "other"ing, beyond the

discouraging effect of remedial placement (Acevedo-Gil, et al., 2015; Grubb &

Gabriner, 2013; Scott-Clayton & Rodriguez, 2015), is its segregating effect due to

its disproportionate effect on racial groups. Specifically, Latinx and Black students have been disproportionately placed into remedial education on both a state and national level, and subsequently are less likely to complete a degree. As Cuellar Mejia, Rodriguez, and Johnson (2016) report, before the passage of AB 705 in California, 87% of Black and Latinx students were placed into remediation compared to 73% of white students and 70% of Asian students. Nationally, the numbers are slightly better, but still bleak, with 67.7% of Black students, 58.3% of Latinx students, 46.8% of white students and 48.9% of other students placed in remediation (Complete College America [CCA], 2012). Not only are the placement numbers inequitable, but so are the success rates, as in California, 39% of Asian American and 30% of white students originally placed in developmental math continued to pass college-level math, compared to 24% of Latinx and 14% of Black students. Similarly, for English, 59% of Asian American and 49% of white students complete college-level English whereas only 42% of Latinx and 28% of Black students did so (Cuellar Mejia, et al., 2016). Nationally, 85.6% of Black students, 76.2% of Latinx students, 76.9% of white students, and 74.9% will not complete remediation and the associated college-level course within two years (CCA, 2012).

Other authors have documented this inequitable outcome as well. Acevedo-Gil, et al. (2014), for instance, note how the vast majority of Latinx students assess and place into developmental English and math, and the vast majority of this vast majority struggle to complete remediation within four years.

Similarly, Crisp, Salis Reyes, and Doran (2017) found that developmental math education served as a barrier with a disproportionate impact on Latinx students in STEM, along with identifying a sizable gap (consistent with Adams, et al. (2009)) between students who complete math remediation and those who actually enroll in a college-level math course.

To solve both of the problems with developmental education, at least in English, Adams, et al. (2009) document the development of the Accelerated Learning Program (ALP) at Community College of Baltimore County (CCBC), which has been one of the most-influential and most-emulated developmental reforms of late. This model, often called "the Baltimore Model," "mainstreaming," or more commonly the "corequisite model," allowed students deemed unprepared by the school's Accuplacer exam to enroll directly into transfer-level English; however, approximately forty percent of the students in that section would attend a companion course taught by the same instructor for an additional three hours per week, directly after the original course—in which they would work on skills and assignments designed to support the transfer-level course. The design of this model attempted to remove the stigma of remediation by combining "prepared" and "unprepared" students in the same course, but also solve the mathematical pipeline leakage by allowing students to remediate and earn transfer-level credit simultaneously (Adams, et al., 2009).

Further research on this model by Jenkins, Speroni, Belfield, Jaggars, and Edgecombe (2010) found through multivariate analysis that those students who

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took the ALP courses as opposed to traditional remediation were significantly more likely to complete freshman composition and advanced freshman composition; 82% of ALP students passed college English within a year compared to 69% of those who remediated traditionally, and 34% of ALP students passed the subsequent course compared to 12% of traditional remediators. Furthermore, Jenkins, et al. (2010) showed that as ALP students passed significantly more courses than their traditional counterparts, it resulted in a benefit–cost ratio of 2.1:1, saving money for both the college and the students.

The Influence of the California Acceleration Project

Perhaps the most influential educators in California leading the advocacy later codified in AB 705 were Katie Hern and her co-founder Myra Snell and the California Acceleration Project. Founded in 2010, CAP sees its mission as addressing poor outcomes of students placed into remediation, providing educators at all 116 California community colleges with professional development in the form of annual "communities of practice," weekend-long workshops dedicated to reforming English and math courses to help increase student completion of transfer-level English and math (Henson & Hern, 2018). In addition to the communities of practice, CAP's annual conferences, frequent workshops, continued publications, and active online presence created a legion of passionate educational reformers across the state. Nicknamed "honey badgers" after the tenacious cobra-eating African mammal, popularized by an internet meme, these reformers helped spur faculty and administrators at

colleges across the state to reform remediation—long before they were eventually mandated to by AB 705 (Hern, 2018).

Foundational to CAP's mission is the principle elucidated by Hern (2010), who, echoing the research of Adams, et al. (2009), found that attrition is "fundamentally structural" (p. 2). Even if students have incredibly high success rates in individual courses, more and more students exit during the developmental sequence between each level until only a tiny number is left (Hern, 2010). In CAP's pioneering publication, Hern rebrands the pipeline leakage described by Adams, et al. (2009) as the "multiplication principle," imagining one hundred students beginning a course three levels below transfer: if each course has a 75% success rate, only thirteen students will pass the college level course when all is said and done. Subsequent research has proven this "thought experiment" was more than a mental exercise: it was the curricular reality for the majority of California college students.

A report from Complete College America (2012) indicated that from a nationwide cohort of community college students from fall 2006, 38% never completed remediation, and only 22.3% completed associated transfer-level courses (i.e. college-level math/English) within two years, and as the Campaign for College Opportunity (2017) found, out of students initially placed in remediation, only 16% earn associate's degrees, and 24% of students transfer. In a more specific example from analysis of statewide data from the California Community College Chancellor's Office, Cuellar Mejia, et al., (2016) found that

out of students who began three levels below the college level, only 19% enrolled in a transfer-level course and 15% actually passed the course. Considering these statistics, on both a large-scale theoretical level and a specific level, with the majority of community college students deemed remedial, and the majority of that majority not achieving a degree, Hern (2010) was correct that the old model was not serving the vast majority of community college students in California.

Beyond the raw numbers of failing students as a result of the multiplication principle lies massive collateral effects for some of the most vulnerable student populations. For instance, according to Campaign for College Opportunity (2017), remedial education increases the cost of college. Considering the fact that this increased cost affects the approximately 86% of low-income students placed in remedial education (CCO, 2017), it adds insult to injury. Not only can this cost be measured in dollars, but it can also be measured in time, as under the traditional model, students often spend over a year to remediate, significantly delaying future enrollment and transfer (CCO, 2017). This walloping cost in time and money for some of the most economically disadvantaged students further compounded the problem.

Incremental Remedial Reform in California. Hern (2010) closed CAP's inaugural publication, proposing a number of versions of what the future of developmental education at California community colleges could look like. Several of these suggestions are unsurprisingly predictive of the future stipulations of AB 705, including the elimination of high-stakes standardized

placement tests, the collapsing of various remedial courses into one, or the elimination of remedial coursework altogether (Hern, 2010). Hern (2010) was wise to note that colleges would be slow to eliminate remediation altogether, but that Title V regulations allowed for innovation in course design. It took seven years for AB 705 to pass, so Hern (2010) was correct that it would be a while until remediation was eliminated. But in the meantime, Hern and Snell helped spearhead several accelerated courses at a number of colleges across the state.

By 2014, thirty-four colleges (in conjunction with CAP) were offering "accelerated" reading and writing pathways, with 23 colleges offering accelerated math (Hern, 2014), and outside evaluation of sixteen of those colleges' programs found, using multivariate logistical regression, that for the 2,489 students studied, after controlling for demographic variables, throughput (completing a college level course) was between 1.5 and 2.3 times greater for accelerated students in English, depending on the model of the structure of their accelerated course (Hayward & Willett, 2014). Furthermore, while students from all ethnic backgrounds benefited from these changes, the gains were most pronounced for students of color, ultimately narrowing equity gaps (Hayward & Willet, 2014). At this point in the development of CAP, the lofty goal of eliminating remediation (achieved by AB 705) was not in sight. Rather, a more moderate approach, then termed "curricular redesign," was largely practiced (Hayward & Willet, 2014). Curricular redesign typically referred to strategies to eliminate and condense

levels of remedial coursework by focusing only on the most necessary skills for

success in college level courses, using the principle of "backwards design"

(Hayward & Willet, 2014, p. 8). While this redesign took many forms, sometimes

colleges went as far as replacing all remedial coursework with a single

developmental course that would shorten remediation to one semester,

regardless of placement, but doing so not through speeding through the material,

but reconsidering "both content and pedagogy" (Hayward & Willet, 2014, p. 8).

While the acceleration practiced at this time was moderately successful, as

Hayward and Willet (2014) thoroughly revealed, CAP's vision would soon expand

to encompass much more.

      Assessing Assessment and Placement. While Hern (2010) mentioned

problematic placement tests, they soon became a focal point of CAP's agenda

following some landmark studies on the efficacy of the nation's two most

common placement tests: College Board's Accuplacer, and ACT's Compass

(Bailey, 2009). As Bailey (2009) explains, these tests were essentially high

stakes tests, and failing them doomed students to remediation, increasing time

and money involved in completing college, despite there being "no national

consensus about what level of skills is needed to be 'college ready' or how to

assess that level" (p. 14). Bailey's (2009) research is part of what led to Hern

and Snell's development of the California Acceleration Project. However, while

Bailey illustrated the questionable validity of both Accuplacer and Compass,

further research cast substantial doubt on the tests' abilities to properly place

students and accurately predict the ability of students to succeed in college-level work. Scott-Clayton (2012), for instance, using data on over 42,000 first-time urban community college students, found using traditional correlation coefficients and decision-theoretic measures of placement accuracy and error rates, that Compass had a significant tendency both to overplace and underplace students in both math and English. Scott-Clayton (2012) found that the Compass tests were relatively predictive considering their length, and that they were better at predicting success in college versus failure. But ultimately Scott-Clayton (2012) concluded that "overall the correlation between scores and later course outcomes is relatively weak, especially in light of the high stakes to which they are attached" (p. 37).

Scott-Clayton's (2012) results were later reproduced by Belfield and Crosta (2012), who achieved similar results with Compass, but also called into question the validity of Accuplacer. Belfield and Crosta (2012) took the conversation one step further, however, comparing the predictive power of Accuplacer and Compass to student high school grade point average. Belfield and Crosta (2012) used data from several statewide community college datasets from the late 2000's to perform correlational analysis along with a reproduction of the formal framework of Scott-Clayton (2012), concluding that placement tests are not particularly good predictors of student grades, especially considering the fact that high school GPA is a much stronger predictor of college success.

The results of these two studies confirmed what many developmental

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education reform advocates like Hern (2010) had suspected. Not only were the placement tests inequitable, but they were also inaccurate and unreliable—especially considering alternatives such as high school GPA which would be more predictive of student success. Henson and Hern (2014) asserted that while these tests seem race-neutral on their surface, the end result was disproportionate impact on students of color based on unreliable measures of their potential to succeed.

Evidence-based arguments such as these, highlighting the ineffectiveness and inequity of high-stakes standardized placement tests led to the creation of the Multiple Measures Assessment Project (MMAP) in the fall of 2016 (Cullinan, Barnett, Ratledge, Welbeck, Belfield, & Lopez, 2018). MMAP advocates for colleges nationwide to use multiple measures to place students (similar to what is now required in California following AB 705) and to allow students to enroll in courses based on the whole picture of their academic background. While MMAP does not necessarily discourage the use of traditional placement tests, noncognitive assessments, writing diagnostics, or computer skills assessments, etc., these would be supplemented by high school GPA and other high school transcript information such as courses taken, ACT or SAT scores (Cullinan, et al., 2018). For those who might not have those records (for example, students who have been out of school for over a decade), a form of directed or guided self-placement that helps students place themselves in the courses that are best-suited for them is advised (Cullinan, et al., 2018). According to a multi-state pilot

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study of early MMAP implementors, successful implementation of MMAP dramatically increased the numbers of students admitted to college level work, from a 29% placement in college math and a 57% average placement in college English to a 56% placement in college math and a 74% placement in college English using multiple measures (Cullinan, et al., 2018). These dramatic numbers led to MMAP being incorporated as a focal point in the larger conversation about curricular reform in community colleges in California, including CAP's platform, and eventually adopted into list of changes mandated by AB 705.

       Enter AB 705. Executive Vice Chancellor Hope (2018) explained in her memorandum to all community colleges, that AB 705 was passed specifically to increase numbers of students who complete transfer-level English and math in one year, minimize equity impacts via placement, and increase the total number of English language learners finishing transfer-level English within three years. The specific stipulations of AB 705 legally mandate California community colleges to rethink their standard operating procedure, radically changing their assessment and placement apparatuses along with their developmental or remedial course offerings. AB 705 mandates that colleges replace placement tests with high school performance as the primary determinant of placement as data have demonstrated high school GPA and individual courses taken are stronger predictors of success than placement tests and are "a better reflection of students' capacity" (Hope, 2018, p. 4). Thus, under AB 705, colleges cannot

place students in remedial coursework unless they will be highly unlikely to pass

transfer-level courses otherwise, and any pre-college class must increase their

statistical likelihood of success (Hope, 2018).

Following these placement guidelines was nothing short of radical for most

California community colleges. Rather than increasing the number of students

eligible for college-level English and math, the schools essentially reversed the

numbers. For instance, before any changes associated with AB 705 or its

underlying andragogical frameworks took effect, approximately 80% of students

in community college placed in at least one remedial course: with four out of five

students taking at least one developmental math or English course, and half of

those taking remedial coursework in both areas (Cuellar Mejia, et al., 2016). As

reforms have increased in the intervening years, with more than half of California

colleges implementing or developing changes (now mandated under AB 705),

the statewide math and English numbers shifted to 44% of students placing in

college English and 28% in college Math (Rodriguez, Cuellar Mejia, & Johnson,

2018). And at some early-adopting schools, placement in English and math

eclipsed 70% for first-time freshmen (Rodriguez, et al., 2018). In fall 2018, upon

becoming AB 705-compliant, some colleges even achieved 100% transfer-level

placement, with many more on the path to do so by fall 2019 (Huntsman &

Henson, 2019). Statewide data from fall 2019, the first semester of full-

implementation of AB 705, showed 95% of first-time English students enrolled

directly into transfer-level English, and over 75% of first-time math students

enrolled in a transfer-level math (Johnson & Cuellar Mejia, 2020).

In addition to the changes to assessment and placement, AB 705 forced English and math departments to alter their course offerings drastically by radically scaling back and often eliminating remedial English and math courses entirely (Huntsman, 2019). Hope (2018) encourages faculty to innovate in their teaching and support strategies, as colleges must ensure that students have the capability of passing their transfer-level Math and English courses within one year of starting college. This *de jure* outlawed most courses around the state which placed students two or more levels below transfer, and while remedial education was still technically legal, the stipulations involved with pre-college courses, necessitating them to increase statistical likelihood of throughput, *de facto* outlawed courses one level below transfer as well based on available research (Rodriguez et al., 2018). These courses had long been the plurality or majority of courses offered in class schedules at California community colleges, and now they are either going away or are already gone (Huntsman & Henson, 2019). Statewide, upon implementation of AB 705 in fall 2019, course offerings of transfer-level courses rose from 48% to 87% of offerings in English, and 36% to 68% in math (CCO, 2019b).

When the bill was signed, all schools had to be compliant in math and English by fall 2019 (fall 2020 for ESL), and they were required to collect data to demonstrate such compliance with future funding in key areas "contingent upon compliance with AB 705" (Hope, 2018, p. 10). In other words, the clock was

ticking for colleges to change their remediation practices, and they had to do it immediately or risk loss of funding. As Hern put it, "remediation as usual is over" (as cited in Zinshteyn, 2018). And even if colleges or departments wished to avoid changing their practices, the threat of funding-loss made the long-term success of attempted circumventions unlikely. Or, as Hern (2018) bluntly put it at a CAP conference, all California community colleges must now comply with AB 705 because "it's the law, motherfuckers!"

Early Evidence of AB 705 and Related Practices' Effectiveness. While the passage of AB 705 was met with cheers by the advocates who helped push it, it was also met with a healthy share of skepticism. Almy (2017) praised the reformers of the acceleration movement, but concluded, "if we want to save our educational system, we must stop promoting students who don't know the material. It's that simple. If Johnny can't read, don't pass him until he can. Period." While in the revolutionary fervor of the reform movement, voices like Almy's (2017) can often get lost or drowned out, the concern is a valid one. It is a tall order to change remediation's fundamental structure—especially as rapidly as AB 705 mandates—and in years to come it will no doubt be difficult to maintain standards while also increasing access. While Almy's (2017) argument does not address the data-informed policies surrounding the unreliability of Accuplacer and Compass, the predictive power of high school GPA, and the structural flaw of the multiplication principle, it is also true that evidence is needed to prove whether or not AB 705 policies are effective. It behooves

reformers to conduct vigorous research to monitor the effects of AB 705 to ensure it achieves its intended goals and does not do more harm than good.

Similarly, some have cautioned against viewing corequisite models a one-size-fits all solution to remediation. Boatman and Long (2018), for instance, make the case against corequisite courses as the only option, arguing that corequisites might not serve all students, as some might need remedial coursework's more concentrated focus on developmental skills. Boatman and Long's (2018) suggestion, however, ignores the problem presented by Bartholomae (1993) that separating developmental and "normal" students at all has a segregationist and "other"ing effect, especially considering how remediation is disproportionately mandated for underrepresented minorities. Nor do Boatman and Long (2018) factor in the inevitable pipeline leak inherent in multiple-course developmental sequences, which threatens students' success (Adams, et al., 2009; Hern, 2010).

One of the first comprehensive overviews of early implementers of AB 705 is a report from the Public Policy Institute of California from 2018. Rodriguez, et al. (2018) found after interviewing staff and faculty at numerous early-implementors along with analyzing their student success data that despite drastically increasing student access to transfer level courses, course success rates have largely stayed the same, while throughput has increased. While Rodriguez, et al. (2018) explain that equity gaps still exist at compliant institutions, the reforms have consistently narrowed them. In their report, Rodriguez, et al. (2018) also addressed some of the concerns voiced by Almy

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(2017), including interviews with skeptical faculty, but they conclude that, especially upon having collegial, data-driven discussions where both sides were heard, faculty reported increased buy-in for curricular reform. Or, as one resistant faculty member put it, the "students actually did okay'" (Rodriguez, et al., 2018, p. 25).

Similarly, in their review of AB 705's implementation success, Hetts, Hayward, Newell, Willett, and Perez (2019) found that out of 4,332 students at thirteen colleges between fall 2016 and fall 2018, students passed their classes at a higher rate than those directly enrolled in the class or in remediation across every GPA level. Disaggregated by high school GPA based on the Chancellor's guidelines, 96% of students enrolled in a corequisite English course with a GPA of 2.6 or higher, 79% of students with a GPA between 1.9 and 2.59, and 45% of students with a GPA of less than 1.9 passed the course. While the lowest score of 45% for the lowest GPA bracket was somewhat troubling, as it only showed a two percent increase compared to students who directly enrolled in the course without the corequisite (43%), it was still a marked improvement over the throughput rate for students in traditional remediation, which was only 12% (Henson & Hern 2019; Hetts, et al., 2019).

Now that fall 2019 has come and gone, a clearer picture has emerged post-AB 705 compliance deadline. The Public Policy Institute of California estimates that, if fall 2019 is any indication, the state can expect an increase in student transfer from approximately 50-70% in over the next six years (Johnson

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& Cuellar Mejia, 2020). And while more data will become available in future years, early results from fall 2019 have largely confirmed the predictions of advocates of AB 705. For instance, Henson (2020) reports staggering numbers from a subset of twelve colleges who offer 90% or more of introductory sections as transfer-level courses. Henson (2020) shows that across those colleges, one-term completion of transfer-level English increased by more than double from fall 2015 numbers (32% to 65%). Comparing the numbers for students who previously took one remedial course in fall 2015 to those who those who took the corequisite in fall 2019, the success rates were 35% to 60% (Henson, 2020). Most staggering in the early data are the implications for equity. In English, for instance, Black students' completion rose from 24% to 51%, Latinx students from 26% to 61%, and white students from 44% to 73% (Henson, 2020). While all racial groups benefited from the changes, and equity gaps still persist, the gaps have narrowed substantially. For instance, while the success rate for Black students in English used to be 54% of that of white students, it is now approximately 69% of the rate of white students (Henson, 2020).

It is important to note, however, that this data is not always universally positive. For instance, Henson (2020) also shows how across the twelve colleges surveyed, the average single-semester success rate in transfer-level English dropped from approximately 66% to 63%, meaning that a larger percentage of students taking English failed the course. However, considering the dramatic increase in the total number of students taking the course, and factoring in

throughput, this decrease seems less alarming considering the one-year

completion numbers are so much higher (Henson, 2020). Furthermore, Hern

(2020) highlights that despite the disappointing decrease in success rates, and

the perpetuation of equity gaps from fall 2019 data, that the increase in

throughput and the narrowing of equity gaps are promising, especially

considering the fact that "statewide data has not identified any students who are

better off starting in remedial English or math – no racial/ethnic, economic,

gender, or disability group" (p. 4), and that even the most disadvantaged groups

still benefit statistically from the changes of AB 705.

Additionally, Hern (2020) cites dramatically different individual course

success rates as evidence of andragogical factors at play vs. just the structural or

curricular changes mandated by AB 705: "Instead of rushing to the old deficit-

based conclusion that students are not prepared, colleges should investigate

what some faculty are doing that enables more than 80% of students to pass,

while less than 40% pass their colleagues' classes down the hall" (p. 5).While all

of this early data is promising, most of it is indeed preliminary, based largely on

fall 2019. Further data over the next several years (also adjusting for the impact

of Covid-19) will likely be necessary for long term assessment of AB 705's

traditional success markers.

Restructuring Classes to Serve Student Needs

While the evidence supporting AB 705's early effectiveness documents the big-picture scale of this curricular change, the results of andragogical innovations are substantially harder to measure. As critics of AB 705 like Almy (2017) have mentioned, simply getting rid of remediation will not suddenly make struggling students successful. Hope (2018) extols the need for co-curricular support, meaning anything that can help students succeed in courses while they are in college-level work, rather than prior-to. While this co-curricular support can (and often does) include a variety of existing student support services, including learning communities, tutoring, supplemental instruction, counseling, advising, and sometimes even child care, (Bettinger, et al. 2013), the most common major change has been to provide co-curricular support in the form of a corequisite course. According to the RP Group's (2019) survey of 104 of California's 116 community colleges about their planned AB 705-compliance strategies for fall 2019, 79% of colleges surveyed said they would be offering co-requisite English courses, 90% would be offering co-requisite statistics courses, and 80% would be offering corequisite pre-calculus courses; supplementing the corequisite courses, 94% of colleges would be offering tutoring in both English and math, 75% would offer supplemental instruction, 74% embedded tutoring, and 32% learning communities. By the end of fall 2019, 99 of the 116 CCCs offered some form of corequisite support in math, English, or both (CCO, 2019b).

These courses vary in size and scope, but the essential premise is the same: mainstream "remedial" students by allowing them to take unit-bearing, college-level work while helping them remediate simultaneously, so they do not lose any additional time. The Chancellor's Office issued stipulations about which students should be encouraged and/or required to take advantage of this co-curricular support (Hope, 2018). For English, their guidelines are relatively simple: students with a high school GPA of 2.6 or higher should be enrolled in the regular course, students with a GPA of 1.9-2.6 should/could be recommended to take the additional support, and students with less than a 1.9 high school GPA should be strongly recommended (and can be required, legally) to take co-curricular support (Hope, 2018). For math, the requirements are similar, but the GPA cut-offs differ slightly based on statistical likelihood of course success based off high school GPA, and also factoring math courses taken in high school (Hope, 2018). Students who do not have high school records typically are referred to a form of guided self-placement (Rodriguez, et al., 2018).

For English, what these courses look like largely depends on the college; Cuellar Mejia, Rodriguez, and Johnson (2019) describe four different categories of support courses: linked, modified ALP, enhanced transfer-level course, and combined. Of the 36 colleges Cuellar Mejia, et al. (2019) surveyed, 27 of them were linked, meaning select sections of first-year composition had an attached co-requisite course taught by the same instructor. Four colleges had an enhanced transfer-level course, meaning the corequisite was a higher-unit

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version of the traditional course; three colleges used the modified ALP model, or "Baltimore Model" of Adams, et al. (2009), wherein traditional and corequisite students are mixed together; and two colleges used a standalone remedial course to be taken concurrently with the standalone first-year composition course.

While adoption of corequisite math courses has been slower, and often factors in student major (i.e. STEM vs. humanities and social science majors) to determine the optimal math for students to take, the principle is pretty much the same: corequisite models, one way or another, allow students to enroll in college-level work with concurrent curricular support (Rodriguez, et al. 2018; Cuellar Mejia, et al., 2019). Initial data from nationwide research on corequisite models in both math and English have been positive (Rodriguez, et al. 2018; Jaggars, Hodara, Cho, & Wu, 2015). Perhaps most impressive has been the randomized control trial of Logue, Watanabi-Rose, and Douglas (2016), in which students at CUNY opted in to be randomly assigned a corequisite math course or traditional remediation, and the intervention achieved a better-than-hypothesized effect; overall, the corequisite model of mathematics produced higher student success and also resulted in more credits accumulated after one year (Logue, et al. 2016). In a follow-up study three years later, Logue, Douglas, and Watanabe-Rose (2019) found that their corequisite group not only passed more math courses, but also succeeded in other disciplines and demonstrated significantly higher graduation rates. Building on this foundation, Miler, et al. (2020)

conducted a similar randomized control study in English with 1,482 participants in five community colleges in Texas applying various different corequisite strategies. Miller, et al. (2020) found that students who were placed into corequisite courses were 21% more likely more likely to pass transfer-level English within one year, more likely to pass a second-semester English composition course, and on average accumulated more units than the control group, but equally likely to persist in the short-term; they also found that benefits were shared across demographic groups.

Teaching Approaches in Corequisite Courses. While corequisites are the weapon-of-choice for AB 705 compliance statewide, this calls into question what they will look like beyond course structure. Hern (2020) points out how differing success rates between different course sections as indicative of faculty being an understudied but salient variable. Huntsman and Henson (2020) similarly highlight the "instructor factor" which "leads to the widest variety in students' success" (p. 6). Unsurprisingly, these authors—all three part of CAP—echo the philosophy that CAP has advocated since its inception. CAP has spent considerable time advocating for andragogical and curricular reform in addition to changing class structure.

For CAP, the end goal was never just to reform developmental course structure and placement, but fundamentally transform it from a curricular level as well. Hern and Snell (2013) outlined the pillars of accelerated courses, including "backward design from college-level outcomes" (p. 9), (the design of a remedial

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course keeping the ideal finished product in mind. For non-remedial courses, this would mean structuring backwards from an advanced course); "just-in-time remediation" (p. 14), the idea that students need remediation, for example, learning how to use a semicolon, only as-needed while editing a paper versus an entire lecture dedicated to semicolons; "low-stakes, collaborative practice" (p. 19), where class time is spent actually doing a desired skill (i.e. working through ungraded math problems in small groups vs. watching the professor do it alone on the board); "relevant, thinking-oriented curriculum" (p. 12), which structures the class content around culturally-responsive, real-world issues instead of abstraction or formulaic assignments; and "intentional support for students' affective needs," (p. 23), which recognizes the non-cognitive barriers to student success, including fear, stereotype threat, learned helplessness, and out-of-school factors.

While CAP's five pillars have been widely discussed, other research has shown similar trends have proven effective. In English, Barhoum (2017a) investigated the most promising practices from 245 publications from over 450 authors, to determine which developmental English practices were most effective for student success. Barhoum (2017a) identified four domains for innovation in developmental writing: 1. structural, which has to do with course design, meeting times, and unit load; 2. curricular, which refers to the particular course requirements, outcomes, and subject matter of courses; 3. andragogical, or how instructors teach students in the classroom; and 4. relational, which focuses on

how students feel, and the types of relationships they develop with their courses, their professors, and one another.

Both Hern and Snell (2013) and Barhoum's (2017a) frameworks for effective reform focus on similar, if not identical issues. While Hern and Snell (2013) advocated for accelerated or corequisite models, Barhoum (2017a) points out that the structure of the course is key, citing the Baltimore Model as the most well-rounded and well-researched model available. Furthermore, Barhoum's (2017a) domain of the "curricular" is quite similar to Hern and Snell's (2013) concept of "relevant, thinking-oriented curriculum" as both focus on rigorous and culturally relevant course content designed to introduce students to new and challenging ideas of the academy and the real world. Additionally, Barhoum's (2017a) domain of andragogy identified teaching strategies such as incorporating grammar into wholistic writing instruction, metacognitive activities, and revision, among others, while Hern and Snell's (2013) concept of low-stakes collaborative practice strikes similar chords, as they advocate for more student activity and participation in the class, including group-work, debate, and group discussion as opposed to pure faculty lecture or participation from a small group of vocal students.

Finally, for Barhoum's (2017a) domain of the relational, he cites several studies that pointed to students' needs for professors to express that they care, citing teachers' willingness to be patient, explain concepts, answer questions, and spend time with students as evidence of teachers showing they care

(Dunning, 2009, Froelich, 2014 as cited in Barhoum, 2017a). Meanwhile, Hern

and Snell (2013) explain similar practices, as part of addressing the "affective

domain," advocating that teachers practice "intrusive intervention," which they

define as intentionally going out of one's way to support struggling students

though simple practices such as sending an e-mail to an absent student to check

in and offer help, or initiating a one-on-one conference for struggling students.

Hern and Snell (2013) caution instructors who might believe students "should act

like college students," (p. 26) or that "it's the students' responsibility to stay on

top of their work," (p. 26) that for developmental students, small gestures like a "a

quick email or five-minute conversation" (p. 26) can show students the professor

cares, and subsequently give them a reason to re-engage.

As demonstrated through these similarities, both between Hern and

Snell's (2013) suggestions but also the synthesis of the material Barhoum

analyzed, a holistic approach is necessary. As Henson and Hern (2014) state,

"No single reform initiative can address all of these challenges" (p. 15), and

similarly, Barhoum (2017a) argues that the most effective college reformers,

"look at their entire program" (p. 806) with a willingness to retool what they do

according to data. Overall, research indicates all four of Barhoum (2017a)'s

domains and attention to the whole class in addition to the whole student, is

necessary.

The Overlooked Role of the Andragogical and Relational

One place where Barhoum (2017a) is critical of the prevailing academic

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conversation, however, is in the attention given to the andragogical and relational domains. Barhoum (2017a) illustrates that because professors have the most contact with students, it makes sense that focusing on their practices might be the most salient area for reform. Edgecombe, Cormier, Bickerstaf, and Barragan (2013) argue that structural and curricular changes are prioritized because they are easier to enact (as cited in Barhoum, 2017a). However, Barhoum (2017a) maintains that these conversations about teacher practices are incredibly important because individualization and adaptability are hard to learn, but important for student learning; the difficulty involved in acquiring this skillset, however, often inspires pushback from resistant faculty. Barhoum's (2017a) point is important in the current context as AB 705 has already addressed the majority of the structural challenges associated with the multiplication principle and inequitable assessment outcomes. Furthermore, departments can mandate what goes into a given course outline of record, dictating how many essays students must write and what kinds of texts they must read and write about. But changing andragogy is not something that is easily dictated by fiat.

Beyond the andragogical, Barhoum (2017a) highlights the even more neglected arena of the relational, noting how research as far back as Roueche (1981) has shown that "Paying attention to student's feelings has rewards" (as cited in Barhoum, 2017a, p. 805), and these rewards include success, persistence, and retention. Not only does Barhoum (2017a) point to the value of the relational domain, but he underscores how a great body of existing research,

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combined with some of the most promising research coming out of the current conversation in community college reform also point to the importance of the relational domain.

        <u>The Andragogical Domain: Teacher Expectations and Student Ability</u>. Expectations, of both teachers and students, are powerful forces. But expectations are not as easily addressed by a course outline of record or a piece of legislation. Yet decades of research have proven that what teachers, instructors, coaches, and professors think about their students—from primary school to university—matters. While this might manifest in different ways depending on the age and academic level of the student, the principle is the same. The power of teacher expectations was perhaps most famously revealed by Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1968) now-famous Pygmalion studies. In their landmark study, Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) sought to reproduce with children previous experiments they had done with rats, where whether participants believed they were training a "smart" rat versus a "dull" rat was significantly predictive of whether or not the rats successfully ran a maze. Applying a similar structure to elementary school students, Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) told a group of teachers that a random control group of students were predicted to be more intelligent than other students. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) concluded that children whose teachers expected more from them demonstrated more intellectual growth and autonomy. The intervening fifty years of research on teacher expectancy effects has been large,

and the research is clear that teacher expectations have a profound and understudied effect on students, though the degree to and mechanisms by which teacher expectations are conveyed have been subject to debate (Murdock-Perriera & Sedlacek, 2016; Timmermans, Rubie-Davies, & Rjosk, 2018).

The salience of the Pygmalion effect is palpable in light of some of the troubling attitudes professors have toward their students, particularly basic skills students. Grubb and Gabriner (2013) document a parade of disparaging, deficit-focused conceptions of students, criticizing everything from their lack of skills, to the quality of their work, to their study habits, to their interest and motivation in school, to their perceived ability to read complex texts, to the quality of their high school education, to their cultural literacy, to their overall potential to succeed. Almost paradoxically, Grubb and Gabriner (2013) found that these comments and opinions were often held by otherwise caring and committed professors; their interviews demonstrated a deficit mindset even when their classroom behavior demonstrated knowledge of and empathy and concern for students and their academic and out-of-school struggles.

Part of this discussion of the Pygmalion effect and the deficit mindset of instructors has given rise to a rethinking of student capacity through concepts such as "grit" and "mindset." Duckworth, Peterson, Matthews, and Kelly (2007) define grit as, "perseverance and passion for long-term goals" (p. 1087). In recent years, thanks in large part to Duckworth's work, grit has become a popular

buzzword in academic circles, especially when it comes to reform (Muenks, Wigfield, Yang, & O'Neal, 2017; Rose, 2015; Schectman, DeBarger, Dornsife, Rosier, & Yarnall, 2013).

Even more influential than Duckworth, perhaps, is Carol Dweck's concept of "mindset." A 2008 article, "Brainology," in which Dweck summarizes the concepts of mindsets, has become omnipresent in CAP-affiliated composition syllabuses on the recommendation of the CAP co-founders (Hern & Snell 2013). In it, Dweck (2008) discusses how students with a fixed mindset believe that intelligence is finite and cannot grow, while students with growth mindsets believe that intelligence can grow through challenges and learning.

This concept of mindset has been a key not only for teachers to help their students realize their abilities, but also (perhaps more importantly) in reference to teachers' concepts student ability and potential. In fact, according to Canning, Muenks, Green, and Murphy (2019), the mindset of faculty toward their students is quite predictive of their student success—a spiritual successor to the Pygmalion effect. Surveying 150 faculty at a large public university, and analyzing longitudinal data from over 15,000 students, the authors found that faculty members with fixed mindsets not only gave lower grades to their students, but also created larger racial equity gaps in their classrooms (Canning, et al., 2019). Perhaps even more interesting was that fixed faculty mindset was equally distributed among faculty, not unique to a particular gender, age, experience-level, race or ethnicity; furthermore, the faculty mindset was the most predictive

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factor for student success—more important than any demographic factor of the professors (Canning, et al., 2019). This study was followed by a subsequent series of studies where Muenks, Canning, LaCross, Green, Zirkel, Garcia, and Murphy (2020) examined this phenomenon from the student perspective. Unsurprisingly, Muenks et al. (2020) found that student impressions of the faculty's beliefs about student capacity for learning were highly correlated to student success and psychological vulnerability; if students believed that their professors believed they could learn and grow, they were more likely to do so—and this effect was exacerbated for marginalized students such as women or racial minorities in STEM. From these studies, some of the largest it is clear that mindset is powerful for the instructor.

Yet grit and mindset have not been without their critics. Rose (2015) critiqued both grit and Duckworth, explaining that while perseverance is important, focusing on it too much can ignore the very real hurdles facing low-income students. This concern over structural inequalities, is echoed by Nieto and Bode (2018) who claim that character and grit, "ignore the structural conditions of inequity that influence children's learning" (p. 217). Furthermore, in Hilton's (2017) interview with scholar J. Luke Wood, the latter critiqued Carol Dweck's concept of growth mindset, stating,

> I appreciate the concept, I really do, but I also believe this myopic
> perspective perpetuates a cancerous idea that tells students you can
> succeed as long as you work hard while depriving them from messages

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that affirm their abilities or recognize the external challenges such as

racism and oppression that often inhibit their ability to do so.

A commonality exists in both Rose (2015) and Wood's (as cited in Hilton, 2017)

criticisms of Duckworth et al. (2007) and Dweck (2008): they both acknowledge

that grit and growth mindset can be positive tools to teach students, and they can

be tools for instructors to see capacity in their students; but both Rose (2015)

and Wood (as cited in Hilton, 2017) point out how the concepts can morph into a

one-size-fits-all pull-yourself-up-by-the-bootstraps philosophy that can hurt the

most marginalized communities. As Wood describes these philosophies, "While

they are well-intentioned they are sordidly incomplete" (as cited in Hilton, 2017).

One way to "complete" the philosophies of grit and mindset when it comes

to teacher expectations of student ability is so-called strength-based or asset-

based education. Asset-based education, as Rios (2015) argues, involves

"changing the way we label young people from 'at-risk' to 'at-promise'"—

specifically for those marginalized students highlighted by Rose (2015) and

Wood (as cited in Hilton, 2017). To do this, Rios (2015) argues for educators to

rid themselves of the deficit perspective of students that sees them as products

of cultures of violence and poverty, that do not value education, but rather "help

them be proud of who they are, because our education system welcomes their

families, their cultures, their communities and the skill set they've learned to

survive." Boykin and Noguera (2011) explain that these assets inherent in

students can be personal, cultural, experiential, or intellectual, but that honoring

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students' experiences, skills, and identities can be the key to helping them succeed academically.

Lopez and Louis (2009) describe a similar (if not synonymous) philosophy, which they call strength-based education, which encourages faculty to examine what they themselves do best, but also help students identify what their strengths are as well to help them achieve even more. As they describe it, strength-based pedagogy consists of five basic principles: measuring student educator strengths, personalizing the learning experience by individualizing education to play to unique student strengths, developing personal relationships with students to recognize strengths-based successes, applying strengths within and outside of the classroom, and intentionally developing strengths by simultaneously developing areas of weakness (Lopez & Louis, 2009). Ironically, however, Lopez and Louis (2009) caution against too much of a focus on student assets, citing, of all concepts, mindset. For strength-based approaches to work, faculty sometimes must address students' fear of new experiences and applying effort due to their beliefs about the malleability of their abilities (Dweck & Molden, 2005, as cited in Lopez & Louis, 2009). Thus, the best practice would seem to be a balanced andragogy that underscores students' capacity to grow and improve their skills and intelligences, in line with Duckworth et al. (2007) and Dweck (2008), but also recognizing the assets that students already bring to the table, in line with Rios (2015), Boykin and Noguera (2011), and Lopez and Louis (2009). Yet taken together, the complete picture is, as Barhoum (2017a) indicated, that what

instructors believe about their students and how those beliefs are manifested in the classroom, carry weight.

While student deficit mindset often applies to students' academic abilities, it can also manifest as a cultural deficit mindset, as stated by Rios (2015). Writing to the primarily white audience of American teachers, Emdin (2016) explains how to white teachers, students of color often look and behave in ways that seem incongruent with traditional school cultural norms, and as a result, students of color are often viewed as intellectually or academically inferior to white students. Emdin (2016) argues for a number of culturally responsive practices that honor not only the culture of students of color, such as incorporating cultural artifacts like language, family traditions, clothing, and music—often seen as unacademic—as integral parts of students' identity, and therefore their education. Furthermore, Emdin (2016) advocates for instructors to radically experiment with instructional methods, incorporating student-led team-teaching, student-designed lesson plans, and student-facilitated class discussion to give the means of instruction back to students, deconstructing the authority paradigm in the classroom.

Similarly, Doran (2017) envisions an "Empowerment Framework" for Latinx students in developmental education, building on some of the principles driving the Puente program. Doran's (2017) model calls on instructors to be honest and frank with students about the various power dynamics at work in the educational system. Rather than ignore them or shield students from the present

and historical injustices that shape education, Doran (2017) argues that instructors should discuss them openly and directly to help marginalized students thrive in a system that "was not built for them" (p. 145). Furthermore, Doran (2017) advocates for the intentional engagement of students' culturally rich history and wealth of knowledge and experience, along with an encouragement of codeswitching (between languages but also various discourses such as school, home, and work) to build students' confidence to thrive in predominantly white spaces—allowing them to develop their identities as college students without abandoning their other identities.

In addition to the more big-picture culturally responsive approaches of Emdin (2017) and Doran (2017), even small-scale changes to classroom instructional methods can also make a big impact on student learning. Grubb and Gabriner (2013) advocate for the use of constructivist teaching methods, which involves students actively participating in the classroom to create their own understandings as opposed to passively listening to information conveyed by the instructor. Benefits of constructivist teaching, according to Grubb and Gabriner (2013) include their statistical effectiveness in the literature, their documented effectiveness in engaging students with diverse learning styles, their ability to connect small skills with big picture concepts, and their mitigation of racial tension between students, their classmates, and the professor. For specific practices instructors could adopt, Grubb and Gabriner (2013) turn to students, whose concepts of "good teaching" included incorporating humor into lessons,

calling individually on students, acknowledging different viewpoints, patience, willingness to slow down or stop and explain concepts, some group work, and a challenging difficulty level. The same students' conception of "bad teaching" included reliance on lecture, PowerPoint slides, going over the textbook, overuse of the blackboard, turning the teacher's back to the class, going too quickly or slowly through the material, failure to respond to student questions, talking down to students, dumbing down the curriculum, a reliance on handouts, and expressing impatience or exasperation (Grubb & Gabriner, 2013). While some of these classroom practices are easier to adopt or avoid than others, Grubb and Gabriner's (2013) suggestions mirror the recommendations of Hern and Snell's (2013) call for more low-stakes collaborative practice and student participation in the classroom.

Summarizing much of the debate about social-emotional reforms like grit and growth mindset over the last decade when stacked up against more critical approaches, Noguera and Syeed (2020) argue for a bit of a middle ground, recognizing that while social-emotional strategies do not address the structural inequities of society alone, they can still be useful as a way to build practical strategies that can reinforce student agency. Noguera and Syeed (2020) highlight Barile's (2015) critique of grit, "Will students who don't triumph over poverty be blamed for lacking grit?" (p. 45) by noting how, "while these character-building efforts may appear more pragmatic in developing behaviors that can support student success… they tend to minimize the significance of structural

obstacles" (45). The difficulty, as Noguera and Syeed (2020) mention, is that too much reliance on grit and mindset does "not compensate for the effects of structural racism" (p. 46), but too little denies student agency. Noguera and Syeed (2020) write, "potential for agency and resistance must be recognized and acknowledged… we must never lose sight of the possibilities for action and change" (p. 47). The ideal approach, Noguera and Syeed (2020) argue, is "Social-emotional learning that is trauma-informed, community-oriented, and engages racial injustice in concrete and practical ways" (p. 47) because while social-emotional strategies cannot stop the effects of racism, "they can, to some degree, mitigate them" (p. 46).

Ultimately, whether it is philosophical beliefs about student capacity, cultural sensitivity to diverse student populations, or adoption of more engaging classroom practices, the andragogical domain is a salient one, even if it is often overlooked. As Barhoum (2017a) stated, andragogical reforms are hard to enact. Grubb and Gabriner (2013) point to how difficult it is to reform andragogy at the college level considering the fact that most colleges do not require any formal training in teaching, but just a Master's degree in the required field, that most reforms are developed independently and informally among teachers who do not collaborate or adopt each other's best practices, that professional development opportunities are under-initiated and underfunded, and that all of these issues are exacerbated for adjunct faculty who are excluded from or do not have time for what little collaboration and professional development there is.

To help rectify issues like this, CAP continues to hold its annual communities of practice (one each, annually, in Northern and Southern California) in addition to encouraging and providing instructions and leadership training for more and more colleges to establish their own local communities of practice to reach even more instructors (Polakoski & Huntsman, 2019). Furthermore, the RP Group (2019) found that of the 104 colleges it surveyed about AB705 implementation, 94 colleges will be providing some form of professional development to faculty, 56 would be implementing faculty mentoring, and 50 would be establishing faculty learning communities. While these developments are promising, focus on the andragogical domain is nowhere near universal despite its salience.

The Relational Domain. While these andragogical shifts in teacher philosophy and practice are important, another key factor, and perhaps the most overlooked, is the relational domain. As Barhoum (2017a) mentioned, educators have known about the relational role of the instructor for decades, going as far back to Bloom's *Taxonomy*. More than half a century ago, Bloom (1964) recognized the powerful effect that teachers and school climate could have on students, critiquing punitive, fear-based school policies, which he claimed could hurt teachers' attempts to bring about learning. Bloom (1964) recognized that how students feel about school and their teachers has profound motivational effects on their success in school, as whole humans are both logical and emotional creatures.

Elsewhere in the bourgeoning psychological field in the mid-twentieth

century, the importance of thoughts, feelings, actions, and beliefs of both teacher

and student were also explored. Rogers, (1959), for instance, asserted the need

for congruence on the part of the educator—to be a "real person," in-touch with

his or her feelings and emotions. Rogers (1959) holds that such an ideal teacher

"is a person, not a faceless embodiment of a curricular requirement, or a sterile

pipe through which knowledge is passed from one generation to the next" (p.

287). Here, Rogers (1959) highlights the need for transparency and personhood

on the part of the educator. Rather than a cog in the machine, the instructor must

be a real person with real thoughts and feelings in order to adequately convey

information to the students. Rogers (1959) then posits that this acceptance of the

whole person must also be mutual, maintaining that professors must accept their

students and empathize with their feelings—including fear, anxiety, and

discouragement—and to do so is just as important to teaching subject matter like

"long division or the geography of Pakistan" (p. 288).

While the theories of Rogers (1959) and Bloom (1964) are not the only

ones addressing the non-cognitive and relational aspects of learning for both

teacher and student, their work certainly reinforces the idea that a focus on

feelings is nothing new. Spiritual successors to Bloom (1964) and Rogers (1959)

have long been advocating for the role of relationships in student success, but in

the context of the current conversation, they have been given a push by more

contemporary educators like Cox (2010), who explored the role that fear plays in

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the way that professors and students in colleges and universities can

misunderstand one another, and how the emotions permeating college culture

can become obstacles to student success and professor-student relationships.

Ideas like Cox's (2010) have been further popularized by reformers like Hern and

Snell (2013) who have recommended the inclusion of excerpts of Cox's (2010)

The College Fear Factor in course syllabuses to help teachers and students

directly engage in those conversations about affective issues. Hern and Snell

(2013) note how fear often manifests as self-sabotage on the part of students, as

"After all, it doesn't hurt to fail if you barely tried" (p. 24). Such a renewed focus

on the affective domain has been a crucial component of the reforms surrounding

AB 705. In addition to sharing the philosophies of Bloom (1964) and Rogers

(1959), Hern and Snell (2013) offer practical advice that instructors can

immediately implement to assuage student fear and address their affective

needs, including offering lenient and somewhat flexible deadlines (but not

unlimited lenience so as to enable self-sabotage), along with intrusive

intervention, including regular after-class or e-mail check-ins with struggling

students to offer a helping hand to get them back on track. Hern and Snell (2013)

hold that these actions, as evidenced by students' self-reflection questionnaires,

demonstrate "that the teacher *cares"* (p. 26).

Hern and Snell's (2013) use of the word "care" points to the larger topic of

teacher "care," which in and of itself has a broad literature. Noddings (1988), one

of the leading voices in teacher care, holds that "Moral education, from the

perspective of an ethic of caring, involves modeling, dialogue, practice, and confirmation" (p. 222), where teachers will demonstrate their care to students and encourage it in return, maintain open dialogue in the classroom where everyone's voice has value, encourage students to support one another in their studies, and practice confirmation by imputing the best possible motives for student shortcomings. In doing this, Noddings (1988) states that teachers can simultaneously teach students to be more complete, moral persons while also teaching their subject matter. Similar to Rogers (1959), Noddings holds that "This is not a zero-sum game. There is no reason why excellent mathematics teaching cannot enhance ethical life as well" (p. 223).

However, this culture of caring is often easier said than done. As Valenzuela (1999) writes, building off of Noddings's (1988) work, demonstrating care is difficult for both parties, as teachers and students inevitably misunderstand each other and misconstrue what it means to care—be that instructors caring about students, or students caring about school. Valenzuela (1999) argues that due to the inherent power imbalance between instructor and student, that teachers must be the initiators of caring relationships. Valenzuela's (1999) teacher and student participants demonstrate that such relationships can be fostered by simple actions such as working out individual arrangements for struggling students to complete work. This strategy is similar to what Hern and Snell (2013) call "intrusive support." Such personal gestures—Hern and Snell's (2013) "quick email or five-minute conversation" (p. 26)—can often mean the

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difference between a student succeeding or failing.

While the role of the relational is important for all students, such flexibility and compassion is especially important in light of poverty-related out-of-school factors (OSF) facing some of the most marginalized populations of students. In his critique of Duckworth, Rose (2015) points to very real challenges "poor kids," face, which pose very real obstacles to their success. Berliner (2009) has also explored the effects of poverty-related OSF's on students, citing lack of health care, the environment, family stress, and neighborhood safety, among others factors, as palpable obstacles to the success of students. Recent measures have shown how strong the needs for even food and shelter are for community college students In their study of nearly 40,000 students from fifty-seven California community colleges, Goldrick-Rab, Baker-Smith, Coca, and Looker (2019) found that 50% reported marginal or high food insecurity within the last thirty days, 60% reported housing insecurity within the last year, and 19% reported homelessness within the last year, and rates of housing and food insecurity were even higher for students with children. Vasquez, Vang, Garcia, and Harris (2018) highlight similar findings, noting that these food and housing insecurities are often even more acute for men of color. These statistics, combined with the fact that the majority of community college students are from low-income backgrounds (Núñez, et al., 2011) show a further need for safe relationships, flexible policies, and intrusive intervention between instructors and their students to help them succeed.

Validation and Faculty-Student Engagement. While the andragogical and relational domains have been widely researched, Barhoum (2017a) suggests that emphasis on the relational, or of "positive, affirming, and trusting relationships" (p. 805) is a salient, and potentially the most salient factor for student success and persistence. Worth noting, however, are two key theoretical frameworks that inform much of the literature on the role of the relational: validation (Rendon, 1994), and student engagement (Kuh, 2003).

Of first note, however, is the role (or lack thereof) of Tinto's (1975, 1993) work in the current literature. It is true that much scholarship on student success and equity at the community college is informed by Tinto (Harris & Wood, 2013). However, many have criticized the way that Tinto's work expects students to assimilate to college culture (Tierney, 1999 as cited in Wood & Harris, 2013), along with its overemphasis on student responsibility as opposed to institutional variables in student success (Bensimon, 2007, as cited in Harris & Wood, 2013). Furthermore, others have critiqued Tinto's body of work for focusing on predominantly white student populations, and predominantly white institutions, whereas these patterns might not be applicable to students of color, for whom assimilation on a culturally white campus has entirely different implications (Kuh, Kinzie, Buckley, Bridges, & Hayek, 2006). Furthermore, as Garcia (2019) notes, even racially minoritized institutions such as HSIs, students of color—even when they are in the majority—are participating in Eurocentric systems that are culturally white, even if demographically diverse.

Abrica, García-Louis, and James Gallaway (2019) further explore this phenomenon, noting how even Hispanic Serving Institutions are dominated by whiteness, which they define as "a set of cultural, discursive, and ideological structures and practices that privileges and valorizes whites while subordinating racialized 'others'" (p. 2), which "maintains its dominance and power in large part by its perceived normality and nonexistence" (Hikido & Murray, 2016, as cited in Abrica, et al., 2019, p. 2). In this context, as students of color interact in systems that were not built for them and frequently other them, Tinto's conception of students at predominantly white institutions fails to adequately address the needs of students of color.

 While it is worth noting that this rejection of Tinto is not universal, nor complete, as some have credited his theories for revealing aspects of the relational domain (Barhoum, 2017a; Barnett, 2011), it is also worth noting that Tinto's ideas are not uniform, unchanging, or monolithic either, as Tinto (2017) has more recently acknowledged the institution's role in ensuring equity and seeing to it that students feel the institution is "welcoming and supportive" (p. 4). But much of the research supplements Tinto's ideas or replaces them with alternative frameworks that more accurately address the relational domain for increasingly diverse populations of community college students.

One key framework that researchers have used as an alternative to Tinto's is Rendon's (1994) concept of validation. While recognizing that student engagement is associated with satisfaction with education and persistence,

Rendon (1994) critiques how under much of Tinto's work, involvement is "something that students are expected to do on their own" (p. 43) while the institution itself remains passive. The flaw in this conception, Rendon (1994) explains, is that the primary transformative agent in student lives often occurs when members of the institution reach out to affirm and support them. Considering the aversion of some students, particularly men of color, to seek help or reach out to make connections (Bukoski & Hatch, 2016; Cabrera, Rashwan-Soto, & Valencia, 2016; Harris & Harper, 2008; Saenz, Bukoski, Lu, and Rodriguez 2013), it would make sense that when institutional agents made the first move, it would be more effective at serving men of color. Rendon (1994) explains that validation comprises in-and-out-of-class agents fostering both academic and interpersonal development, showing students they are capable of learning, not crippled or mistrusted. Rendon (1994) explains that while out-of-class validating agents can be friends, relatives, or romantic partners, in-class validating agents include faculty or staff at the institution. Examples of faculty validation could include demonstrating concern for a student, being friendly, individualizing instruction, affirming a student's identity, offering clear feedback and support, meeting with a student one-on-one, or even saying hello outside of class (Rendon, 1994). Furthermore, Rendon (1994) maintains that validation is a process, not an end in and of itself, and one that must be initiated by the institutional agent, ideally early in a student's academic career for best effect.

Putting Rendon (1994) to the test, Barnett (2011) measured intent to

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persist as it relates to faculty validation, sampling 333 demographically representative students from an urban midwestern community college. Using intent to persist as a dependent variable, Barnett (2011) used an instrument to measure faculty validation during normal class time during select freshman English classes, later analyzed using multiple linear regression analysis. As a result, she was able to categorize faculty validation into four distinct components: "students known and valued, caring instruction, appreciation for diversity, and mentoring" (Barnett, 2011, p. 212). Furthermore, Barnett (2011) notes that after controlling for a variety of other demographic variables, faculty validation strongly predicted students' sense of integration, "with *caring instruction* as the strongest predictor" (p. 21). It is worth noting that Barnett (2011) did not find Tinto's theory of integration as wholly at odds with Rendon's (1994) theory of validation. Barnett (2011) states that while Rendon "offered validation as an *alternative* to integration, it may also be viewed as a *precondition* for integration. In other words, faculty and others may reach out to students in validating ways that lead them to feel more integrated" (p. 196). Regardless of the merits of Tinto's ideas, research indicates that Rendon's (1994) theory, at the very least, provides a good complimentary supplement.

Another alternative/supplement to Tinto's framework common in the literature is Kuh's (2003) conception of student engagement. Kuh's (2003) definition of student engagement involves both the time and energy students devote to their education, but also the actions of the institution to invite students

to engage. This differs from Tinto's (1993) generally more "passive" conception of the role of the institution and Rendon's (1994) more active role when it comes to validation. Kuh, et al. (2006) specifically criticize Tinto's integration model as incomplete or overly-broad, noting, that it "artificially separates student experiences" (p. 12) from the institution, oversimplifying the complex interactions between students and institutional forces that affect persistence. While Kuh, et al. (2006) document a number of institutional practices that can help students, they find that the role of the faculty member is often key, highlighting how Rendon's (1994) conception of validation can "induce 'transformational changes' in students, accompanied by an increased interest and confidence in their capacity to learn" (p. 67). Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, and Whitt (2011) further elucidate the importance of the instructor in student-engagement, noting that even when students interact with faculty members, be that through discussing an assignment, discussing career plans, or working on a project together, even once or twice per semester, it can be enough to leave a lasting impact on their success in and after college. Overall, these theoretical frameworks—validation, and faculty-student engagement—are some of the most common and effective frameworks for assessing the relational domain.

The Andragogical and Relational Domains in Corequisite Courses. As the literature demonstrates, the andragogical and relational domains can be powerful areas for serving students. Barhoum (2017a) documents some of these best practices, often seen in corequisite classes, pointing to research on

the power of encouragement, including instructors encouraging students to value their work and persevere in the face of challenges (Adams et al., 2009; Froehlich, 2014; Perun, 2015; Rochford, 2003, as cited in Barhoum, 2017a). Furthermore, talking to students as opposed to at them, including physically moving desks for students and the instructor to look at each other, was associated with improving teacher connection (Zipperian, 2012, as cited in Barhoum, 2017a). Simply put, paying attention to the andragogical and relational domains is *working* for the colleges that are focusing on them. Furthermore, this curricular redesign is emphasizing the role of the faculty member.

In Jaggars, et al.'s (2015) study of accelerated programs across three states, they also found that intimate faculty involvement in the development of the courses and focus on the affective non-cognitive needs of students—including cultural awareness in regard to equity issues—contributed to the success of the courses; and Walker (2015)'s study of faculty perception of curricular reforms in Baltimore County documented the rapport developed between professors and students due to extra time with them in the courses was a key motivation for both professors and students. As one faculty member put it, "You get to know them better due to spending more time with them. The students start to believe they are family" (Walker, 2015, p. 25). This rapport and support from faculty is likely a significant contributing factor to the continued success of the remedial reforms mandated by AB 705.

Education in California - A History of Discrimination

To understand racial and gender equity gaps in the California education system in the twenty-first century, one must understand the historical context of racial discrimination in California. California is a state whose very inception is fraught with racial tension, discrimination, and violence (Moore, 2003). From romantic fictions popularized by nineteenth and twentieth-century historians of European colonizers bringing God and civilization to native populations, to the subsequent domination of white Americans over Spanish and Mexican peoples, laced with notions of so-called manifest destiny and racial and cultural superiority, race and racial conflict has palpably shaped the development of the nation and state (Moore, 2003). As more white Americans came to California in the mid-nineteenth century, they dominated the sociopolitical landscape, displacing and exploiting the culture and peoples of the Spanish and Mexican colonists (who had previously displaced and exploited the indigenous populations) along with delegitimizing all other ethnic groups in the state, including indigenous, Black, and Asian people, among other Californians of color (Moore, 2003). Thus, when California entered the union in 1850 with an Anglo-dominated government, it did so already as a battleground of race, language, politics, and culture (Moore, 2003). In its founding, racism was built into California's original constitution, with whiteness being a prerequisite for franchise (Moore, 2003). While franchise was later technically bestowed upon Mexican peoples, this did not stop widescale discrimination against Mexicans and

Mexican Americans, as evidenced by judicial corruption leading to confiscation or transfer of over 40% of Mexican landholdings to white Americans (Moore, 2003). This is to say nothing of other ethnic groups in California, who were disenfranchised from the inception of the state (Moore, 2003). For Black Californians in particular, while California entered the union as a free state, evidence points to this opposition to slavery stemming more from frontier labor competition with slavers than any sense of the humanization of Black peoples (Moore, 2003).

While the state's origin is one of racial conflict, the development of the state's social institutions, including the workforce, healthcare, housing, criminal justice, and education, is one rife with discrimination. While Black Californians have been a part of the state's ecosystem since its inception, World War II was perhaps had the biggest impact on the Black population of California, as between the years of 1940 and 1950, the Black population of California skyrocketed due to wartime economic opportunities and the perception of a less hostile racial climate compared to the South (Ruffin, 2019). Yet California was only slightly less hostile than the south; instead of Jim Crow, Black immigrants to California met "James Crow, Esquire (racial discrimination not by law but by deliberate custom) in housing, employment, education, and police misconduct" (Ruffin, 2019, p. 39). Despite their growing population, Black Californians faced myriad forms of *de jure* and *de facto* discrimination, disproportionate post-war layoffs, hurdles to unionization, redlining, and segregation in public education (Ruffin,

2019). However, the growing Black population, manifesting in unions, politicians, activists, and coalitions with other minorities led to several prominent victories in the pursuit of civil rights including the Rumford Fair Housing Act (Ruffin, 2019). Yet while there were victories for Civil Rights for Black Californians, there were just as many defeats, such as 1964 California Proposition 14, repealing Rumford and re-legalizing racial discrimination in housing, along with most notably, unrest in Watts in 1965, which proved that "the California dream was no more than a mirage for most African Americans" (Ruffin, 2019, p. 60).

While the plight of Black Californians came to the national forefront in 1965, the intervening decades continued the cycle of a bigger and bigger Black population, some legal victories against *de jure* discrimination state and nationwide, and the perpetuation of de facto discrimination, poverty, crime, and incarceration (Broussard, 2019). Broussard (2019) describes a Black population feeling trapped in intergenerational poverty, poorly-performing schools, unemployment, and hopelessness, exacerbated by the increasing role of illegal drugs in inner cities and suburbs. In the last thirty years, mass-incarceration filled the nation's prisons—over two million in the year 2000—with over half of those prisoners being Black, and a plurality hailing from California (Broussard, 2019). Overall, while fewer and fewer laws have allowed for *de jure* discrimination against Black Californians, the long history of discrimination—*de jure* and *de facto*—in education, housing, and the criminal justice system, resulting in inter-generational poverty, crime, and drug abuse, has led to a modern day where

Black families have the highest poverty rates and the shortest life expectancies of any other demographic group in the West (Broussard, 2019).

For Latinx Californians, while a Latinx population has always been a part of California's racial makeup due to the state's origin of military conquest and annexation from Mexico, immigration and xenophobia have long been a consistent theme in California history (Donato, 1997). Between 1910 and 1930, war and economic instability forced approximately 10 percent of Mexico's whole population, mostly unskilled laborers, to migrate to the United States, usually to face harsh discrimination from white Americans in an increasingly competitive and saturated labor market (Donato, 1997). World War II and its resulting labor shortage led the American government to enact the bracero program, whereby hundreds of thousands of temporary Mexican laborers entered the United States, with an approximately 250,000 laborers entering the country every year well into the 1960's (Donato, 1997). The history of demographic shift in California is one of increasing prominence of the Latinx population and a receding domination of white non-Latinx peoples (Gey, Jiang, Stiles, & Einowski, 2004). While exact numbers of Latinx population are somewhat difficult to aggregate prior to 1980, as Latinx peoples were grouped together with white people prior to 1980, it is estimated that in 1950, the Latinx population in California was approximately 750,000, or about 7% of the population, 167,000 of whom were foreign-born (Gey, et al., 2004). This percentage has grown rapidly to 37.6% in 2010; for 2020, it is expected that the Latinx population will be approximately 39%, having

surpassed the white non-Latinx population (by about 3%) for the first time in the

State's history (Gey, et al., 2004; McGhee, Bohn, & Thorman, 2018).

With regard to Latinx students, an under-observed phenomenon is the

widespread segregation of Latinx children into "Mexican Schools" (Donato,

1997). Unlike discrimination against Black students, discrimination against Latinx

students (Mexican and Mexican Americans being the largest contingent

demographically) was not just race-based, but also based on the Spanish

language and Latinx culture (Donato, 1997). Although no laws mandated

segregation, state and local governments along with school district administrators

frequently had the power to segregate in order to meet "the special needs of a

linguistically and culturally distinct community" (Gonzalez, 1990). By 1930, the

vast majority (more than eighty-five percent) of children of Mexican and Mexican

American origin in the Southwest were attending school in segregated

classrooms or schools; the prevailing educational opinion of scholars like Milo

Hogan held that due to the linguistic and cultural differences between Latinx and

white children, a separate educational environment for Latinx children was

preferable for both parties (Donato, 1997). Other educators were more overtly

racist, maintaining that Latinx children were "dishonest, immoral, and violent"

(Donato, 1997, p. 16), along with a host of other racialized stereotypes including

"irresponsibility, imitativeness, thriftlessness, sex-consciousness, individualism,

and procrastination" (Donato, 1997, p. 16). Also rampant during the pre-*Brown*

era of Latinx education in California and other southwestern states was a wave of

white supremacist IQ testing, consistently placing Latinx children several points below their white counterparts in intelligence; such policies helped proliferate the stereotype that Latinx people were mentally inferior to whites, and led to widespread vocational tracking of Latinx students (Donato, 1997).

One of the most prominent educational touchstones not only in California history, but also U.S. history, is the story of *Mendez et al. v. Westminster Board of Education*. In 1945, several parents of minor children denied access to predominantly white schools in Orange County California lobbied for their children to have the same advantages of white Americans (Gonzalez, 1990). *Mendez* was a landmark case partially because it used the testimony of social scientists to establish that segregation was harmful to society, and partially because it was directly used as a "dry run for the future" (as cited in Gonzalez, 1990, p. 28) for the *Brown v. Board of Education* case a few years later. Yet despite the success of defeating de jure racial segregation in California schools, Gonzalez (1990) laments that de facto segregation largely still continued, especially with the proliferation of bilingual education.

Bilingual education also significantly impacted the education of Latinx students in California. By the time of the civil rights era, the poor academic performance of Latinx children continued due to negative teacher attitudes, culturally insensitive curricula, and poor English language development (Donato, 1997). Bilingual education gained popularity during this time, as many parents felt this would be a solution to their limited English proficiency (LEP) children

falling behind their English-proficient counterparts (Donato, 1997). Throughout

the 1970s, bilingual programs proliferated throughout California, but difficulties in

implementing them, struggles with recruiting faculty, and vocal opposition from

white community members and white faculty who feared, among other concerns,

that bilingual schools would breed mediocrity, led to bilingual schools and

classroom being almost exclusively utilized by the Latinx community, reinforcing

segregation (Donato, 1997).

De jure segregation in the school system has been illegal for Black

Californians since 1890, Latinx Californians since 1947's *Mendez* case, and all

other racial minorities since 1948 when all legislative provisions for racial

segregation in public schools were repealed by Governor Warren (Martinez

HoSang, 2013). However, generations of corruption, racial gerrymandering, and

residential discrimination perpetuated *de facto* school segregation and

discrimination against both Black and Latinx Californians well into future

generations, much of which still exists today (Martinez HoSang, 2013).

Throughout the 1960s, for instance, 80% of Black students in the Los Angeles

Unified School district attended overcrowded, underfunded, and predominantly

Black schools, whereas 50% of Latinx students were also enrolled in segregated

schools with similar conditions, while the majority of white students attended

white majority schools (Martinez HoSang, 2013). Despite mandatory

desegregation of schools and busing taking effect in the late 70's, various racial

groups in California were split on the implications of such desegregation

(Martinez HoSang, 2013). While white groups often opposed forced integration with charges that it forced "white flight," doomed white children to inferior schools, or was unnecessary because the segregation in question was not legally mandated, Black groups supported busing largely because it gave Black students access to better schools; meanwhile, many prominent Latinx leaders opposed forced integration, arguing it made it harder for Spanish-language and bilingual education programs to function in largely Mexican American schools and that desegregation threatened Mexican American self-determination (Martinez HoSang, 2013). In 1979, Proposition 1, under the slogan "We Love All Kids," eventually emerged victorious in a landslide, outlawing busing; most Black voters opposed it, whereas most white and Latinx voters supported it (Martinez, HoSang, 2013).

Despite these battles over racial segregation of California schools in the 70's, twenty-first century schools are often more segregated than their mid-twentieth-century counterparts for many of the same reasons (Kucsera, Siegel-Hawley, & Orfield, 2015). This phenomenon is not unique to California, as nationally, in many cities, racially separate schooling has actually increased in the past 30 years, especially in urban areas (Noguera & Syeed, 2020). But in Southern California, in 2008-2009, 31.1% of Black students and 41.2% of Latinx students attended school in a de facto segregated (90%-100% minority) school, whereas only 1.9% of white students did so (Kuscera, et al., 2015).

Unsurprisingly, these minority-majority schools are overwhelmingly

underfunded, overcrowded, have teacher shortages and/or underqualified teachers, poor access to college-preparatory resources, far-below-average math and English proficiency scores, and far lower graduation rates (Kuscera, et al., 2015). Kuscera et al. (2015) explain that these bleak statistics "do not show an ambiguous pattern" (p. 564), but rather a systemic deprivation of resources and opportunities compared to schools with more white and Asian students, who are all far more likely to graduate and attend college. Kuscera et al. (2015) put it bluntly: "These are two very different channels of opportunity and they are linked powerfully to race" (p. 564). As Noguera and Syeed (2020) noted considering this divide between race and resources in schooling, "not only has the United States failed to live up to the promise of *Brown,* it has continued to fail to deliver on the promise of *Plessy:* separate but equal" (p. 19). From both a historical and a contemporary view of the problem, the consequences of racial discrimination in education have palpable effects. While these racial inequities and segregation described by Kuscera et al. (2015) apply to the K-12 system in California, not community colleges, it is vital to recognize that college is not a blank slate. The average student in California comes to community college having been conditioned to an inequitable, segregated system for over twelve years. Regardless of what California community colleges do, students already have prior experience with racial inequality in the education system, and it is through this lens that the college must operate.

<u>The Criminalization of Black and Latino Boys in Education and Society</u>

Beyond the overall discrimination against Black and Latinx Californians in the form of *de facto* and *de jure* segregation in public arenas lies the exacerbated discrimination against young male Black and Latino individuals in both the educational and the criminal justice systems—which also has deep racist historical roots with modern-day manifestations. Chávez-García (2012) writes that while youths of color, primarily Black and Latinx boys, compromise 38% of the U.S. population, they comprise 72% of incarcerated juveniles. While not every Black or Latino boy necessarily ends up in the criminal justice system, widespread perceptions of Black and Latino criminality are measurably real phenomena. Sheldon (2015) explains how prior to the nineteenth century in the United States, the responsibility of dealing with juvenile "delinquency" was relegated mostly to parents and the community, and while this led to widespread mistreatment of children, it was largely not something the state involved itself in. By the nineteenth century, with bourgeoning cities and urban poverty, more and more social institutions arose to combat juvenile crime and "immorality" (Sheldon, 2015, xxv), with juvenile incarceration becoming legal in 1826 after the case of *Ex Parte Crouse* (Sheldon, 2015).

Early-to-mid-twentieth-century flashpoints have scarred the collective memory of California of the legacy of mistrust between the criminal justice system and young men of color: in 1915, Black Californian activists protested the film *Birth of a Nation* for its detestable portrayal of Black people as savage,

lecherous, menaces (Ruffin, 2019); in the 1940's, young Latino pachucos, or zoot suiters, faced continual conflict with the criminal justice system, most infamously when seventeen boys were wrongly convicted of murder in the Sleepy Lagoon trial and deemed biologically criminal menaces to society; shortly thereafter violent street fights erupted between zoot suiters and white servicemen (Chávez-Garcia, 2012); the 1965 Watts unrest sparked by the beating and arrest of a young Black man by a white CHP officer, which many believed widened the racial gap in Los Angeles (Abu-Lughod, 2007); or the 1992 Los Angeles unrest following the not-guilty verdict for the officers charged with the brutal beating of Rodney King, an event building on some of the same tensions of the Watts riots (Abu-Lughod, 2007).

While these major racial touchstones stand out in the memory of Californians for their scale and the national attention they received, Abu-Lughod (2007) wisely explains that these violent episodes of racial tension were neither the beginning nor the end of racial animus between Black and Latino men and the criminal justice system; similarly, Mazón (1995) explains that the Zoot Suit Riots in particular became famous much less for the injuries or criminal convictions that resulted, but from the way zoot-suiters, and Latino men more generally were "symbolically annihilated, castrated, transformed, and otherwise rendered the subjects of effigial rites" (p. 1). In addition to being significant in their own rights, these events were violent manifestations of the widespread pathologizing of young men of color, a pathology reinforced by many of

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California's social institutions.

For instance, Chávez-Garcia (2012) documents the development of California's juvenile justice system from the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, paying close attention to the role of reformatory institutions like the Whittier State School, which used overtly racist scientific and eugenic theories to criminalize, racialize, and pathologize young men of color as delinquent, unintelligent, sexually promiscuous, and criminal. While Chavez-Garcia (2012) admits that many of this generation of young men of color who left these reformatories later found a life in military, career, or family, a significant portion of them found themselves in Folsom or San Quentin. While not every Black and Latino boy found himself incarcerated during the twentieth century, the stereotypes of low intelligence and criminality were mainstays of the public education system. Prevailing eugenic theories of differing inherent characteristics including intelligence, criminality, and career aptitude pervaded California schools in the twentieth century, with most Black and Latino boys deemed incapable of achievement and placed in vocational tracks, or as Rose (1989) called it, "a euphemism for the bottom level" (p. 24). Donato (1997) reports that the evidence is unequivocal in how vocational education was used to train working-class, immigrant, Latinx and Black children into manual labor through a variety of "scientific" methods such as intelligence and aptitude tests, but also deliberate sorting by race and gender.

While the history of stereotyping Black and Latino boys as criminal and

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unintelligent has deep historical roots, these beliefs still pervade the educational system from elementary school all the way through college. In discussion of the school-to-prison pipeline, Raible and Irizarry (2010) discuss the ways that students, largely Black and Latino boys, are disproportionally the subject of surveillance and behavior management by their teachers. Normalizing and "expectation of incarceration" (Raible & Irizarry, 2010, p. 463), the United States routinely suspends and expels an inordinate amount of students, most of whom are Black and Latino boys, with over three million suspensions and over one thousand expulsions in the 2002-2003 schoolyear alone; these disciplinary actions have clear links to disengagement from school, dropping out, and future incarceration (Raible & Irizarry, 2010). Raible & Irizarry (2010) point to the clear correlation between Black and Latino male children overrepresented in special education and school discipline, overrepresented in the juvenile justice system, and Black and Latino men's overrepresentation in the American prison system, making up less than one quarter of the total U.S. population, but comprising three quarters of incarcerated persons in America. To combat the racial impact, Raible and Irizarry (2010) point to the demographics of teachers—that 85% of K-12 teaching candidates are middle-class white women; while Raible and Irizarry (2010) argue that this demographic characteristic is not necessarily the problem in and of itself, they subsequently advocate for teaching programs to mirror the racial demographics of their service populations.

However, while this disproportionate disciplinary impact on Black and

Latino boys has a strong racial component, Raible and Iriarry (2010) do not

account for the fact that this discipline is also gender-based. As Carr-Chellman

(2010) reports, drawing on findings from Mortenson's (2011) "The Boys

Initiative," drawn largely from NCES and census data, for every 100 girls that are

suspended from school, there are 250 boys; for every 100 girls expelled, there

are 335 boys; for every 100 girls in special ed, there are 217 boys; for every 100

girls diagnosed with a learning disability, there are 276 boys, and for every 100

girls with an emotional disturbance, there are 324 boys. Carr-Chellman (2010)

rightly notes that these gaps are even higher for poor or minority boys, or boys

who attend overcrowded schools. While both Raible and Irizarry (2010) and Carr-

Chellman (2010) recognize that race is certainly a strong factor in this disparity,

Carr-Chellman (2010) shows how this is not *solely* a racial issue, but also a

gender disparity, with long-ranging consequences in higher education, the

workforce, and society; Mortenson (2011) elaborates that at every level of higher

education, women outperform men; that young men are between five and six

times more likely to kill themselves than young women; and that young men are

between eight and fifteen times more likely than young women to be

incarcerated. Carr-Chellman (2010) points largely to a K-12 system where boys

feel devalued and unwelcome at schools for three main reasons: excessive zero

tolerance policies pathologizing common interests of boys (i.e. video games,

physical activity, aggressive play); a lack of male role models in education, with

women comprising more than 90% of elementary teachers (the majority of that

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majority being white); and unrealistic academic expectations for boys at a young age, disproportionately labeling them as slow compared to their female counterparts, relegating them to special education classes.

The sad truth behind this criminalization of young men, particularly young men of color, is that "throughout the United States, schools most frequently punish the students who have the greatest academic, social, economic, and emotional needs" (Noguera, 2008, p. 111). Noguera (2008) too documents the persistent ways Black and Latino boys are disciplined and criminalized; for instance, one principal Noguera spoke to pointed to a young child, commenting on how he expected the child to end up in San Quentin Prison. To rebut the principal, who pointed to the child's family history of incarceration, Noguera (2008) asked, "Given what you know about him, what is the school doing to prevent him from going to prison?" (p. 112). Noguera (2008) documents how the such common responses, weeding out disruptive children, is not only counterproductive for the bad apples, but also lacks evidence that it improves educational outcomes for the rest of the students. Noguera (2008) cites the examples of some schools who service primarily low-income students of color where academic excellence is expected and school discipline is rare. The common denominator, Noguera (2008) explains, is a culture where faculty and staff act as advocates for children as opposed to wardens or prison guards. In other words, where criminal behavior is expected, it is often encountered. And just as is the case with segregation in the K-12 system, the criminalization of

young men of color has lasting effects when students come to college.

One attempt to support formerly incarcerated adults enrolled in community college includes programs such as Laney College's Restoring Our Communities (ROC), a program designed for formerly incarcerated students and students whose family members are currently or formerly incarcerated. As part of the program, ROC provides students a "safe space in a therapeutic learning community where… students can feel a sense of validation and belonging" (Restoring Our Communities [ROC], 2019).In addition to validation, the program also offers peer mentoring and advising to help formerly incarcerated and justice systems impacted students gain social capital, along with material benefits like public transportation passes and food vouchers (ROC, 2019). While this is just one program at one college, similar programs have continued to develop across the state as educators have shone a light on the needs of formerly incarcerated and justice systems involved students.

Whose Gap is it Anyway? Causes and Solutions to the Equity Gap. Programs such as ROC point to a crucial factor to examine when it comes to the disparate outcomes among male Black and Latino students from K-12 through college is the role of the equity gap. Simply put, inequities in schooling do not magically appear when a student enters college. The legacy of institutional racism in California and the rest of the country in the educational and criminal justice systems casts a long shadow over current educational practices. In the same way, practices in the K-12 system also impact what happens when men of

color attend college.

Noguera (2008) chronicles a number of the theories surrounding the equity gap facing boys of color, noting that despite the clear correlation between race and achievement, the cause of the gap is still confusing for many educators. Some theories Noguera (2008) shares include the oppositional identities that minority students develop in response to white cultural values, where academic success is equated with betraying the group by "acting white" (p. 9). While Noguera (2008) does not put so much stock into that hypothesis, he also shares the effect of stereotype threat on men of color, the hypothesis of Steele (2011), whereby students are susceptible to common stereotypes about the intellectual ability or criminality of their groups, which in turn lead to documentable stress and self-doubt.

Beyond stereotype threat, Noguera (2008) highlights sorting and de facto segregation as explanations for the gap, i.e. students of color disproportionately being tracked in remedial or special education programs, even in racially diverse schools. Noguera (2008) also highlights the "hidden curriculum" at many schools which does not explicitly call for segregation, but implicitly offers messages about what students can and cannot do based on who they are, leading, for instance, to Black boys gravitating toward more stereotypically acceptable activities like sports as opposed to excelling in academics. Judging from these myriad explanations, two conclusions can be made: 1. The equity gap is real, and race and racism are definitely part of the equation, and 2. The equity gap is

complicated, and multiple factors are likely at play. Yet as Boykin and Noguera

(2011) explain, despite the uphill battle of equity, complete with the horrors of

history and the intractability of politics, it is the job of schools to do what they can

to close the achievement gap and fulfil the mission of public education. Rather

than pointing the blame to another party—students, parents, the government,

history, economics, elementary schools, middle schools, high schools,

community colleges, universities, etc.—it is the job of educators to own the

problem and do what they can to combat the gap and the effects of racism on

students.

Yet there are those who still actively resist admitting that race or racism

have anything to do with the equity gap. In fact, the vast majority of people in

America, white or otherwise, do not consider themselves racist (Bonilla-Silva,

2003). But the problem inherent in such belief is that racist actions, racist

attitudes, and racist outcomes, all occur, whether people believe they are racist

or not. Bonilla-Silva (2003) establishes several frameworks for how color-blind

racism takes place in twenty-first century society. First is abstract liberalism,

where concepts of equal opportunity, economic free choice, and individualism

are emphasized, shifting responsibility from society's systemic racism to matters

of individual choice (Bonilla-Silva, 2003). Second is naturalization, or explaining

phenomena like segregation and ingroup bias as natural, unavoidable

phenomena (Bonilla-Silva, 2003). Third is cultural racism, blaming defects in

culture or biological factors for societal disparities (Bonilla-Silva, 2003). And

finally, there is the minimization of racism, including but not limited to attitudes exonerating modern society of racism because today is better off than the 1960s under Jim Crow (Bonilla-Silva, 2003). Thus, whether the dominant culture believes it is racist or not, racist outcomes often prevail.

Boykin and Noguera (2011) explore some of these prevailing theories as they apply to education, including an assimilationist approach, where the dominant (white) culture seeks to inculcate culture and values to minority students, and the color-blind approach which holds that the best way to educate students is ignoring racial differences. Boykin and Noguera (2011) hold that while both methods are flawed and rightly supplanted in the mainstream academic discourse (though both are still widely practiced), they actually have their merits. Boykin and Noguera (2011) explain that while the assimilationist approach is often culturally insensitive and xenophobic, the reality is that the dominant culture requires certain skills (such as learning English) in order to be successful, and the assimilationist approach was sadly realistic. Furthermore, Boykin and Noguera (2011) explain that while color-blindness is ultimately a naïve impossibility in a society rife with ethnocentrism, racism, and classism, simple acknowledgement of racial differences does not necessarily narrow the gap, and worse, can lead to lower expectations and standards being applied to poor and minority students.

Yet Boykin and Noguera (2011) caution that even though proponents of multicultural education—a teaching philosophy focused on systemic injustice and

racial and cultural history—have "won" the ideological battle for how best to teach students, "Unfortunately, winning the struggle over how to prepare teachers has not guaranteed that teachers even those who graduate from programs that embrace multiculturalism, are fully prepared for, much less effective at, teaching students from diverse backgrounds" (p. 32). Boykin and Noguera (2011) conclude that sadly, awareness of the problem does not necessarily mean progress, especially when the status quo becomes normalized, and poor outcomes for minority students comes to be expected as inevitable.

While the effects of teacher expectations on students has been well documented (Canning, et al., 2019; Grubb & Gabriner, 2013; Muenks, et al., 2020; Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968)), these expectations—especially as they relate to racial minorities—can be some of the most salient forms of implicit racism in academia. And changing these expectations and associated practices is something entirely within the academy's control. Boykin and Noguera (2011) quote President George W. Bush who called for an end to "the soft bigotry of low expectations" (p. 34), noting that despite what one feels about the former president and his slogan, what educators feel about the racial achievement gap has a profound effect on how it is approached, noting, "Whenever educators blame low student achievement on some factor they cannot control, there is a strong tendency for them to reject responsibility for those factors they can and do control" (p. 34).

Similarly, Drew (2011) comments on the systemically racist outcomes of

low expectations, writing of discouraged poor and minority students, rather than expressing overtly racist sentiments, teachers' "good intentions (combined with pernicious expectations) suggest that disenfranchised groups cannot master [their subjects]. The cycle continues when students themselves incorporate this false expectation, lower their own self-assessments, and limit their aspirations" (p. 195). Such negative expectations also have palpable, if not necessarily conscious racial components. For instance, Emdin (2016) writes of a game played between teachers during welcome day, where they would attempt to identify good and bad students, where even the expectations of teachers of color were often clouded by racist stereotypes of student potential, and "phrases like 'these kids' or 'those kids' were often clearly code words for bad black and brown children" (p. 33). While Bonilla-Silva (2003) asserts that most teachers would not admit that there is a racial element to low expectations, the fact of the matter is that—whether conscious or not—the racial element undeniably contributes to the problem. In fact, as Steele (2011) explains, whether conscious or unconscious racial discrimination is present in an academic situation, student perception that it might be at play is often enough to negatively impact student performance. In a study of Black and Latino students, the more they worried about potential discrimination for their identities, the worse they performed (Steele, 2011).

Common-Humanity vs. Common-Enemy Identity Politics

But the problem of racism (conscious or unconscious) and the soft bigotry of low expectations leads to a separate problem of how to fix it. Raible and

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Irizarry (2010), for instance, suggest establishing a teaching force that matches the demographics of the students they teach, an idea that has become increasingly popular. Steele (2011) too comments on how stereotype threat is often neutralized when minority students have professors of their same race. Furthermore, Noguera and Syeed (2020), highlight that research clearly shows teachers of color can have a positive impact on academic outcomes for students; yet despite these outcomes, teachers of color only make up 18% of the workforce nationally, and in California, students are 73% nonwhite, whereas teachers are only 29% nonwhite. Still, many educators and students of color believe that the teaching force should match the racial demography of the school, ideally, and most administrators publicly state their desire to hire more teachers of color (Noguera & Syeed, 2020).

Unfortunately, diversifying the teaching force is easier said than done for a variety of reasons. First, the causes for this broken educator pipeline are just as numerous as the equity gap in student success, and often just as self-perpetuating. As Noguera and Syeed (2020) explain, some factors include inequitable higher education attainment, onerous credential requirements, and poor teacher retention. In fact, in English, the American Academy for Arts and Sciences (2019) found that in 2014, non-white students earned 23% of bachelor's degrees, 15% of master's degrees, and 10% of doctorates; for the BA and MA level, those were record highs, and for doctorates, it was down from the 2005 record high of 15%. As a matter of mathematics, the overwhelming majority

of teachers in many subjects (like English) are and will continue to be white

simply because the majority of people who meet the minimum requirements for

the job are white. Furthermore, in many locations, state and local non-

discrimination laws prohibit educational leaders from hiring teachers based on

race, as has been the case in California for several decades (Smith, 2020).

Beyond these logistical hurdles are ethical and philosophical hurdles.

First, a teacher of the same race as the students does not guarantee the teacher

will be effective at serving those students (Boykin & Noguera, 2011; Nieto &

Bode, 2018). Second, even if the pool of teachers demographically matches the

pool of students exactly, unless the school is monoracially segregated, there is

no guarantee that a student of color will always learn from an instructor of the

same race. Third, a call for a more diverse teaching force offers no solution for

what to do with the (overwhelmingly white) pool of teachers the academy already

has. Transforming the racial makeup of the teaching force could take generations

as new diverse teachers join the academy and more white teachers retire;

therefore, immediately actionable equity solutions will rely on white teachers as a

matter of necessity.

Here, Bonilla-Silva (2003) and those who use similar rhetoric are not

particularly helpful; while acknowledging the fact that most teachers do not

consider themselves racist, Bonilla-Silva's solution will likely exacerbate it. In

combatting color-blind racism, Bonilla-Silva (2003) suggests that the beliefs of

white people (even the well-meaning ones) are not just erroneous—they

constitute "a racial ideology, a loosely organized set of ideas, phrases, and stories that help whites justify contemporary white supremacy" (p. 178) and their flawed ideologies "set whites onto paths of no return" (p.179). Bonilla-Silva (2003) continues, essentializing white people and excoriating their hypocrisy:

> Accordingly, my answer to the strange enigma of "racism without racists" is as follows… Modern racial ideology does not thrive on the ugliness of the past or on the language and tropes typical of slavery and Jim Crow. Today there is a sanitized, color-blind way of calling minorities niggers, Spics, or Chinks. Today most whites justify keeping minorities from having the good things of life with the language of liberalism ("I am all for equal opportunity; that's why I oppose affirmative action!"). And today, as yesterday, whites do not feel guilty about the plight of minorities (blacks in particular). (p. 181)

Bonilla-Silva (2003) argues that "successful movements must make *broad appeals* and, at least, gain the sympathy of the majority to be victorious" (p. 184-5). However, he paints white people—the majority of the teaching force in the United States—as hypocritical at best, and irredeemable at worst, which seems to be antithetical to the claim that broad appeals are needed to end racism. Equating a naïve belief in equal opportunity to the use of racial slurs is not a "broad appeal"; it is nothing less than a character assassination to many white people who genuinely desire to be part of the solution.

While it's undeniable that many white people knowingly and unknowingly

contribute to systemic racism in education, accusing them of not caring for the plight of minorities—from a strictly motivational standpoint—is counterproductive. DiAngelo (2018) elucidates why Bonilla-Silva's (2003) non-answer is so counterproductive by illustrating the "good/bad binary" to which many white people ascribe. DiAngelo (2018) writes, "After the civil rights movement, to be a good, moral person and to be complicit with racism became mutually exclusive. You could not be a good person and participate in racism; only bad people were racist" (p. 71). This problem, DiAngelo (2018) continues, begets an even thornier problem: by equating racism with immorality, most white people consider accusations of racism as character assassination, leading them to defend their character rather than self-reflect. DiAngelo (2018) writes that this good/bad binary makes it "effectively impossible for the average white person to understand—much less interrupt—racism" (p. 72). Simply put, by telling white people that they do not care about minorities, tacitly support white supremacy, and have beliefs that equate to the use of racial slurs, or are beyond the point of no return—essentially labeling all white people as deplorables—antiracists in search of equity are likely to create more defensive white enemies than prompt introspection and soul-searching.

While DiAngelo (2018) dedicates several chapters seeking to rehabilitate the term racism form the good/bad binary in order to encourage white people to discuss it more openly, I do not believe she will be successful with the majority of white educators, as most white people, as even DiAngelo (2018) claims, will not

readily shake the belief that "Nice people, well-intentioned people, open-minded middle class people… could not be racist" (p. 71-72). While racism is undeniably a factor in educational inequity, pragmatically achieving equity will require the sympathy of the majority white teaching force, and methods that appeal to their good nature, not assassinate their character, will be needed. This is not to say that all white teachers will eventually (or are even capable of) being convinced to change their minds or teaching practices. It is to say that for better or worse, they are the majority, and many are willing to become (or already believe they are) allies to the cause of achieving equity for students of color.

This problem then leads to another problem: how to get white buy-in from educators without alienating them. The first step involves treating educators with as much respect as they are expected to extend to students: with a capacity, rather than deficit mindset. Nieto and Bode (2018) write, "teachers cannot be singled out as the villains responsible for students' academic failure…. Most teachers are sincerely concerned about their students about their students and want very much to provide them with the best education possible" (p. 5). This point—that most teachers genuinely want to help their students—cannot be understated. However, this also does not mean that they cannot be racist in their interactions with students, as Nieto and Bode (2018) explain, all teachers, even non-white teachers, can be ineffective teachers, fail to communicate with diverse students, and engage in racial stereotypes with inequitable outcomes. But taking this into consideration—the fact that teachers can simultaneously be well-

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meaning and perpetuate racism—the question of how to appeal to them remains.

To answer this question, Lukianoff and Haidt (2018) compare two approaches: common-enemy identity politics and common-humanity identity politics. Defining identity politics as the tendency for political movements organized around group characteristics such as race, gender, and sexuality, Lukianoff and Haidt (2018) differentiate common-enemy identity politics as one that rallies groups against other groups they see as an enemy. Bonilla-Silva's (2003) rhetoric, excoriating white people as irredeemable, serves this function. Rather than common-enemy identity politics, Lukianoff and Haidt (2018) advocate for common-humanity identity politics, which is targeted at changing the hearts and minds of others by highlighting injustice, but doing so in a way that does not demonize their opponents; rather, it humanizes them and appeals to that humanity.

To illustrate this principle, Lukianoff and Haidt (2018) share a political ad from 2012 in support of same sex marriage, where an episcopal priest argues on behalf of his gay veteran son, stating, "Our son fought for our freedoms. He should have the freedom to marry" (p. 62). Unlike the Bonilla-Silva's (2003) rhetoric, this message does not villainize, but appeal to the patriotism and values of its audience; as Black, queer activist, Murray (1945) argued, "When my brothers try to draw a circle to exclude me, I shall draw a larger circle to include them" (as cited in Lunkianoff & Haidt, 2018, p. 61).

While the latter strategy of common-humanity identity politics will not

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always work, it appeals to the humanity of racists who do not consider themselves racist by appealing to what they *do* value. As Chavez (2009) argues, "various ethnic and gender groups often share language and priorities" (p. 60) and in order to effect change, one must "learn to speak the language and priorities of those you wish to persuade" (p. 60). Common-enemy identity politics does not accomplish this, however justified authors like Bonilla-Silva (2003) might be in their arguments against color-blind racism. In order to create allies in educators—white or otherwise—demonizing them does not speak to their values. Only arguments that do will be successful in provoking a change.

And there are arguments that do speak to the better natures of teachers of all races, focusing on how to solve the problem of the equity gap in a proactive manner without demonizing large swaths of the teaching force. And these solutions are far from color-blind naivety. Noguera (2008) states "[Race] will continue to shape where we live, pray, go to school, and socialize. We cannot simply wish away the existence of racism, but we can take steps to lessen the ways in which the categories trap and confine us" (p. 16). Here, Noguera (2008) acknowledges racism, but in a common-humanity identity politics manner that sees its worst effects as escapable. Most importantly, Noguera (2008) uses the word "we." Unlike Bonilla-Silva (2003) who consistently essentializes and demonizes "whites," Noguera's (2008) rhetoric is group-minded and invitational. The "we" Noguera (2008) refers to is not only educators, but broader humanity— showing it is possible to talk about the pernicious role of racism in that society

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with an invitational tone.

Similarly, Emdin (2016)—in an entire book dedicated to white instructors teaching in primarily Black and Brown communities—uses the power of the first-person plural. Describing several incidents with ineffectual white teachers who were scared of getting too personal with students of color, or worried that they would become violent, Emdin (2016) calls their behavior out for being rooted in bias; but Emdin (2016) does not condemn these teachers as irredeemable racists. Emdin (2016) empathizes with their fears, stating that in order for teachers to be effective, they "must unpack the indoctrination that we have all been subject to… for me, this meant taking the time to analyze why I was initially scared of my students and moving beyond that fear" (pp. 40-41). Here, Emdin (2016), a Black educator, appeals to the common humanity of these white teachers, not castigating them, but using the first-person plural, inviting them to confront their biases and fears of students, even as Emdin has confronted fear and bias personally.

Questions of how to systematically create a culture among faculty to combat the racial equity gap are also difficult to answer. For instance, Boykin and Noguera (2011) explain that while many schools, colleges, and universities, advocate for multicultural education and diversity training, these practices do not necessarily provide teachers with the "social and emotional skills required to relate and establish rapport with students from diverse backgrounds" (p. 32). For instance, Fergus, Noguera, and Martin (2014) explain that too often cultural

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relevancy and sensitivity is interpreted as the inclusion of "culturally relevant" texts like books about civil rights leaders or the analysis hip-hop lyrics to appeal to students of color. Fergus, et al. (2014) relate stories of instructors failing to engage their minority students with lessons on slavery in Latin America, Kanye West, Emmet Till, and Harriet Tubman, stating that "even when their students were able to 'see themselves' in the material, it was not always enough to get them involved in the learning process" (p. 86). While Fergus, et al. (2014) do not consider this evidence that culturally relevant curriculum is bad or counterproductive, they note that culturally relevant subject matter alone is insufficient to close the equity gap.

Thus, it is not just professional development on multicultural education and diversity that is important, but the methods explored in said training. Emdin (2016), for instance, insists that for instructors to be effective at conveying information, they need to allow space for students to make connections to and bring personal context to what they are learning, and that teachers must welcome nontraditional ways of understanding material, create space in a classroom for students to ask questions to explore this nontraditional exploration, reward and incentivize this kind of inquiry, and frame content where both teachers and students are learning together, not fearing a class drifting away from what the teacher already knows, but embracing the learning process together. Furthermore, Steele (2011) comments on how simultaneous messages of high expectations and standards combined with messages of high support and

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student capacity can mitigate the effects of stereotype threat.

Perhaps the most powerful common denominator in all of this discussion of culturally competent teaching is the relational component. Fergus, et al. (2014) hold that "the degree to which students were intellectually interested in school was determined by the degree to which they felt supported by teachers" (p. 185). This relational component should not be understated, and it should be incorporated as a vital part of professional development and teacher preparation. For instance, Emdin (2016) discusses bringing in a Black barber to teach teachers about cultural and relational engagement. The barber, Marcus Harvey, explained, "my responsibility is to ensure that the client leaves the barbershop having had a personal experience with me that makes them want to come back. It's bigger than just a haircut" (as cited in Emdin, 2016, p. 57). While not every teacher training program need to bring in barbers as teachers, the emphasis on the relational is key.

Boykin and Noguera (2011) also chronicle some of the best research studying the relational domain, or as they classify it, teacher-student relationship quality (TSRQ), particularly in its power to narrow equity gaps, finding that all students, but especially Black and Latinx students, are more responsive when teachers who balance genuine caring with high expectations. Boykin and Noguera's (2011) conclusion that TSRQ—from first graders to graduating seniors—is a significantly predictive metric to understanding student success lends credence to the overlooked power of the relational domain. Furthermore,

while Raible and Irizarry (2010) advocate for a teaching force that matches the ethnic demographics of the student population, Noguera (2008) counters, stating, "Differences in race, gender, or sexual orientation need not limit a teacher's ability to make a connection with a young person… They tend to respond well to caring adults regardless of what they look like" (p. 15). This comment echoes the findings of Canning, et al. (2019) who noted that teacher expectations of students was more predictive of student success than race or gender, and Nieto and Bode (2018) who noted that even teachers of color teaching students from their own ethnic background can demoralize their students. Noguera (2008) wisely notes, however, that students "can also tell if the adults who work with them are sincere, and those acting out of guilt and faked concern can generally be detected" (p. 15), demonstrating that relationship-building is often easier said than done. The bottom line is that while the majority-white teaching force might face an uphill battle in closing the equity gap, their most powerful tool—building relationships— does not hinge only on the color of their skin.

Finally, then, comes the question of bad or incompetent teachers. While it is generally true that teachers genuinely want to help their students succeed (Nieto & Bode, 2018), it is also true that some teachers will be better than others at achieving that goal, and some teachers more than others will contribute to the perpetuation of the equity gap. Boykin and Noguera (2011) suggest a solution for teacher evaluation similar to their philosophy on students: focus on assets and relationships. Boykin and Noguera (2011) that teachers can be improved through

training and professional development, but that this training needs to be individualized to teacher needs, not based solely on general measures of student test scores or pass rates. Rather, Boykin and Noguera (2011) advocate for direct teacher evaluation, peer mentoring, peer evaluation, and the inclusion of student intellectual and relational engagement in evaluation criteria for instructors.

Sadly, common-enemy identity politics has seemed to take the lead in both the academic and popular spheres in recent years, spearheaded by the aforementioned DiAngelo's (2018) *White Fragility* and Kendi's (2019) *How to Be an Antiracist*, both of which center common-enemy identity-politics in the form of reductionist, essentialist, and unfalsifiable claims about race and racism at the cores of their arguments. In 2020, with the killing of George Floyd by Minneapolis police officers, both texts ascended to the top of the best sellers lists and reading lists for anti-racist diversity equity and inclusion initiatives across the country (McWhorter, 2020c). And elements of their ideologies are spreading.

For instance, while Noguera (2008) exemplifies common-humanity identity-politics, Noguera and Syeed (2020), citing an example of DiAngelo's (2018) concept at work, recount the story of a white teacher at a professional development seminar who "broke down in tears because they felt as if their role, good intentions, and passion were being diminished because of their race" (p. 61). Noguera and Syeed (2020) state that "meaningful discussion on the topic of diversity in the teaching profession was vacated to make room for the teacher's emotional reaction" (p. 61) and "the powerful place of Whiteness overtook an

attempt to center the concerns of non-Whites" (p. 61). In this situation, Noguera

and Syeed (2020) essentialize the white professor, treating them not as an

individual, but as a stand-in for the entire race.

McWhorter (2020c) describes DiAngelo's (2018) philosophy as

counterproductive, as under her paradigm, "Whites aren't even allowed to say, 'I

don't feel safe.' Only Black people can say that. If you are white, you are solely to

listen as DiAngelo tars you as morally stained." And this problem, ultimately, is

that it leads to an ideology so pure that white people cannot effectively become

allies, as McWhorter (2020c) asks "how a people can be poised for making

change when they have been taught that pretty much anything they say or think

is racist and thus antithetical to the good. What end does all this self-mortification

serve?" Pragmatically speaking, if white people cry and leave the room when

asked to adopt DiAngelo's philosophy, it is counterproductive in creating allies of

the majority of the teaching force. Valdary (2018), similarly critiques this

approach for its counterproductivity, and essentialism, stating,

> DiAngelo holds that all whites are complicit in racism by virtue of their skin
>
> color. To argue otherwise is racist; to object to the label proves that the
>
> label fits. This racial double bind negates King's belief that "the important
>
> thing about a man is not the color of his skin or the texture of his hair but
>
> the texture and quality of his soul." For DiAngelo, no distinction exists
>
> between skin and soul. She and other purveyors of such thinking embrace
>
> a reductive and repellent vision of racial guilt.

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Not only does this philosophy castigate the majority of the teaching force as irredeemable—it does so by committing some of the same essentialism it is trying to fight by equating skin and soul. Valdary's (2018) ultimate point, however, is that such thinking is counterproductive to problem-solving, as DiAngelo's ideas do not result in "human beings working through conflict—racial or otherwise" but rather "a hierarchical inversion, in which one group of people is favored over another, which is perpetually castigated for sins." Practically speaking, this thinking creates enemies, not allies.

Kendi's (2019) dichotomist thinking similarly divides, with an incredibly narrow vision of antiracism that separates anyone who opposes it into the category of "racist." Kendi (2019) writes, "there is no such thing as a not-racist idea, only racist ideas and antiracist ideas" (p. 20). The difficulty with this concept is that Kendi's (2019) definition of racism is so incredibly narrow, with sweeping pronouncements such as "the only remedy to present discrimination is future discrimination" (p. 20) or "Capitalism is essentially racist; racism is essentially capitalist… and they shall one day die together from unnatural causes" (p. 163), that to disagree with a line item in Kendi's philosophy is to count oneself in the category of "racist." Rather than drawing a "larger circle" to include his opposition, like Murray (1945), or learning "to speak the language and priorities of those you wish to persuade" like Chavez (2009), Kendi's (2019) narrow philosophy seems to, in the words of McWhorter (2020a), be "fashioned as a way

to afford people of Kendi's orientation a handy way to tar as many people as possible as racists."

I do not predict this strategy to be a winning one, as it will create as many enemies as it will allies. Case in point, in late 2020, President Donald Trump even singled out Kendiist antiracism and critical race theory, saying, "Teaching this horrible doctrine to our children is a form of child abuse in the truest sense of those words" (as cited in Crowley, 2020). Admittedly, making an enemy of Donald Trump is a low bar; but purveyors of ideas like DiAngelo's and Kendi's make enemies of many potential allies as well, which is seemingly counterproductive. As Baldwin (1964) put it, the one of the sources of racism in white people is profound self-loathing, externalized on non-white people. Baldwin (1964) writes, "White people in this country will have quite enough to do in learning how to accept and love themselves and each other and when they have achieved this – which… may very well be never – the Negro problem will no longer exist, for it will no longer be needed" (p. 17). While it is understandably frustrating and feels unfair to have to cater to the emotions of white people when for so long, white people have casually dismissed the emotions of others, it serves a pragmatic purpose. Having studies Islamic jihadists as well as white supremacists, Khan (2019) explains that racists and extremists "feel shunned in their lives, in their personal lives or in wider society… [I]f we shout at them, if we condemn them, that completely feeds into that. And then the monster gets bigger, not smaller."

Angelou (1997) too echoes this sentiment in the form of a warning: "If a person — any human being — is told often enough, 'You are nothing… I have no visibility of you…' the person finally begins to believe it... and becomes even lower than he or she is accused of being." As evidenced by Trump's (2020) comments, common-enemy identity politics emboldens racists, not to mention leaves potential allies crying and leaving the room. Noguera and Syeed's (2020) attitude in their account of the crying white teacher, saying, "Whiteness overtook an attempt to center concerns of non-Whites," (p. 61), dehumanized the teacher. To Noguera and Syeed (2020), this was not a human being so much as an embodiment "Whiteness." Such characterization effectively says, in Angelou's (1997) words, "You are nothing. You are nothing. You account for nothing. You count for nothing. You are less than a human being. I have no visibility of you. You are nothing."

Especially considering the logistical reality of a majority-white teaching force (for the foreseeable future due to the broken educator pipeline), research like Canning, et al. (2019) indicating that andragogy, not race, is the most important factor for student success, and Noguera's (2008) earlier assertion that white faculty can make meaningful connections with students regardless of color, these divisive tactics seem ill-advised. At best, they preclude white teachers from becoming allies, making them feel attacked, devalued, and dehumanized; at worst, they could backfire and make them monster grow "bigger, not smaller" (Khan, 2019), as evidenced by reactions like that of the Trump administration.

Noguera and Syeed (2020) later (perhaps unintentionally) acknowledge this might be the case, stating, "Although racial bias among educators may indeed be an issue that should be addressed, there is no evidence that cultural sensitivity training will lead to… significant school improvement in the areas where change is needed most" (p. 126). Furthermore, Noguera and Syeed (2020) acknowledge that, sometimes even measures with the best of intentions have "produced unintended consequences… These measures have done little to improve conditions for teaching and learning in schools, and even less to improve the lives of the most disadvantaged" (p. 130). It is my contention that the strategies of common-enemy identity politics espoused by DiAngelo and Kendi are exactly these kinds of measures.

Ultimately, Bonilla-Silva (2003), Noguera (2008), Emdin (2016), DiAngelo (2018), and Kendi (2019) all agree that race, racism, and color-blind discrimination on behalf of (mostly white) teachers are salient issues perpetuating the equity gap. However, the solutions advocated by Noguera (2008), Boykin and Noguera (2011), Fergus, et al. (2014), and Emdin (2016) combat racism using a common-humanity identity politics and asset-based strategy of humanizing and building on the good motives of white instructors. Unlike Bonilla-Silva (2003), DiAngelo (2018), and Kendi (2019), they invite and include white faculty into the fight for equity, not castigating them for their (often willful) ignorance of their role in racial inequality. Common-humanity reformers tackle the issue of race while providing tangible solutions and tangible

opportunities for all instructors—including white instructors—to participate in

reversing the trends of racial inequity. And while the work of Boykin and Noguera

(2011), Emdin (2016), Fergus, et al, (2014), and Noguera (2008) is primarily

directed to serving students of color in the K-12 system, the core principles—

emphasizing the relational—are exactly the same principles advocated by

college-level scholars like Barhoum (2017a), Kuh (2003), and Rendon (1994). As

such, they are just as powerful when applied to addressing equity in the

community college.

Equity in Community College – The Case of the Missing Men

While equity is and has been a primary concern of developmental

educators for decades (Bartholomae, 1993; Hope, 2018; Soliday, 2002), an

understudied equity gap is that of men in higher education, more specifically at

community college. As Carr-Chellman (2010) and Mortensen (2011) report,

educational equity gaps for men begin in elementary school, but they become

most pronounced in higher education. According to National Center for Education

Statistics, in 2015, at two-year institutions, 2.82 million men and 3.67 million

women were enrolled (National Center for Education [NCES], 2017). So

approximately 43% of all two-year college students are male. Not only are more

women more likely to enroll in college, but they are also much more likely to

receive an associate's degree, with 396,613 degrees conferred to men as

opposed to 617,358 conferred to women in the 2014-2015 academic year, with

women earning approximately 61% of associate's degrees (NCES, 2017). While this difference is less pronounced in higher levels of degree attainment, women still outnumber men at every stage of education, with approximately 57% of bachelor's degrees, 59% of master's degrees, and 52% of doctoral degrees conferred in the 2014-2015 academic school year (NCES, 2017).

This disparity has caused many to examine the reasoning why men under-enroll and underperform in higher education. In addition to bemoaning the lack of information on community colleges specifically as opposed to four-year universities, Harris and Harper (2008, 2010) lament how attention is rarely given to the gender identity of men, especially considering the assumption that male privilege is universal for all men in college. Similarly, Bukoski and Hatch (2016) explore the lack of research on men as gendered beings through a feminist lens, noting how most studies presuppose maleness as non-salient due to male privilege.

Both Harris and Harper (2008) and Bukoski and Hatch (2016) build on the existing literature surrounding O'Neil's (1981) concept of male gender role conflict (MGRC), defined as negative consequences arising from the difference between men's true selves as opposed to the socially-constructed cultural norms of masculinity and manhood. Some of the negative consequences of MGRC include but are not limited restricted emotionality; socialized control, power, and competition; and obsession with achievement and success; which produce self-sabotaging and sometimes even violent behavior (Harris & Harper, 2008).

Worth noting, however, is that both Harris and Harper (2008) and Bukoski and Hatch (2016) agree that masculinity in and of itself is not necessarily to blame for some of these issues related to MGRC, and that masculinity can have many positive qualities. Bukoski and Hatch (2016), for instance, highlight several normative masculine traits such as perseverance in the face of personal and academic struggle as a positive contributor to their success, while Harris and Harper (2008) point to how the internalized role of the breadwinner can spur some men to take on responsibility and seek educational aspirations. This nuanced view of MGRC as a theoretical framework is shared by Saenz, et al. (2013), whose findings show "quasi-positive" (p. 14) effects of normative masculine behaviors such as competition and pride being motivating factors for Latino men but also recognize potentially unhealthy manifestations of masculinity as well. From these voices, it is clear that masculinity and MGRC are complicated; they can have some detrimental effects, but also some positive or quasi-positive effects. Despite the age and relative incomplete nature of O'Neil's (1981) framework, Bukoski and Hatch (2016), Harris and Harper (2008), and Saenz, et al., (2013) all agree it is a useful framework or starting point for viewing the state of men and masculinity in college.

One other key component of reaching men in higher education, however, is explored by Bukoski and Hatch (2016), who build on a concept from Chickering & Reisser (1993): "meeting men where they are" (p. 113). Bukoski and Hatch (2016), Saenz, et al. (2013), and Harris and Harper (2008) all

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acknowledge the destructive nature of some aspects of hegemonic patriarchal masculinity, resulting in mental unhealth, legal trouble, violence against women, and homophobia. However, some of the recent academic of discussion of masculinity has been more pathological in nature, such as the much-ballyhooed concept of toxic masculinity, emphasizing destructive, misogynistic, homophobic, and violent male traits (Kupers, 2005). In the discussion of masculinity, public discourse—from news stories to razor commercials—has focused on how boys and men "learn the language and lessons of patriarchy and male privilege" (Harris & Harper, 2008, p. 27). However, pathologizing masculinity entirely as a sickness to be cured does not help the perception of school as a feminine domain, unwelcoming to men, or as one student put it, "School is for girls and sissies" (as cited in Harris and Harper, 2008, p. 32), and could exacerbate the worst of MGRC. In meeting men where they are, Bukoski and Hatch (2016) argue that institutions should "accept the reality of their masculine normative behaviors" (p. 113). While Bukoski and Hatch (2016) also advocate challenging men's self-perceptions of masculinity, they recognize that men bring many positive qualities to college, but often lack the skillset to succeed, so colleges need to see the potential in men and provide them necessary support. Such an asset-based approach will likely be more effective at helping men achieve their goals in community college.

A Compounded Effect for Men of Color in College and Major Voices in the Field. California's systemically inequitable educational system, from its *de jure*

racist history to its *de facto* racist low expectations and criminalization of Black

and Latino boys, has failed men of color. When it comes to college, the logical

conclusion is more of the same: vast inequity. As Harris and Harper (2008) note,

while "gendered attainment disparities exist across all racial groups," the gap is

widest for men of color (p. 25). Bukoski and Hatch (2016) explain, drawing on

the intersectional lens of Kaufman (1999), that men of color are simultaneously

privileged and disprivileged by different aspects of their identities (for example

granted sexual power for being male, but penalized for it for being Black)

describing this phenomenon as "troubled positionality" (p. 111).

Not only is this conflict present psychically in the narratives of men of

color, but it is also demonstrated through equity gaps—some of the largest in the

country—with the gender gap disproportionately affecting men of color (Bukoski

& Hatch, 2016). In fact, for every one Black man who earns a degree, two Black

women do, and for every two Latino men who earn a degree, three Latina

women do (Aud, Fox, & Kewal Ramani, 2010, as cited in Bukoski & Hatch,

2016). As Harris and Wood (2013) note, from a review of dozens of studies of

men of color by Lee and Ransom, (2011), men of color have essentially six

options when leaving high school: college, military service, employment,

unemployment, incarceration, and death, but are grossly overrepresented in the

last three. Furthermore, to investigate this phenomenon, especially as it impacts

community college students, Harris and Wood (2013) note that MOC research in

higher education typically focuses on 4-year institutions, even though most MOC

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in college started in or continue to attend community colleges. Not only this, but the needs of two-year college men of color differ substantially from their four-year counterparts (Bush & Bush, 2010; Wood, 2013, as cited in Harris & Wood, 2013).

To remedy the dearth of educational research on men of color in community colleges, Harris and Wood co-direct the Community College Equity Assessment Lab (CCEAL), an organization out of San Diego State University dedicated to empirical research on underrepresented and underserved students, along with professional development and research for serving students of color, all at the community college level (Community College Equity Assessment Lab [CCEAL], 2018). While not alone in their study of men of color at community colleges, Harris, Wood, and their various teams and associates at the CCEAL have been some of the most prominent sources of research about men of color at the community college. Another prominent source of information about men of color at the community college is the Texas Education Consortium for Male Students of Color (TECMSC), dedicated to improving equity for men of color through research, policies, and programs dedicated to serving male students of color (Texas Education Consortium for Male Students of Color [TECMSC], 2018). Headquartered at the University of Texas at Austin, the initiative, along with its executive director, Victor Saenz, provide vital information on men of color in community colleges.

Altogether, Wood, Harris, Saenz and their associates provide pivotal insights; theoretical frameworks; validated, qualitative and quantitative data; and

recommendations for structural, curricular, andragogical, and relational reforms to best-serve male students of color in community colleges.

The State of Black and Latino Men in Community Colleges

In the Campaign for College Opportunity's (2019c) publication, "State of Higher Education for Black Californians," the authors outline some good news and bad news when it comes to addressing educational issues for California's 2.2 million Black residents. For good news, they note that record numbers of Black Californians are graduating from high school, 34% of Black adults have an associate's or bachelor's degree, and 66% of Black adults have attended college; however, they highlight glaring disparities facing Black Californians, including how Black students are the lowest-performing racial/ethnic group in California high schools, how only 3% of Black students transfer from a community college to a four-year institution within two years, and 35% within six years, and that almost 50% of Black students who attended college left without a degree (CCO, 2019). Perhaps most troubling, the authors demonstrate that the numbers for Black students at community colleges are getting worse, citing how the equity gap between Black and white students in the CCC actually grew from 16% to 17% over the past six years (CCO, 2019). This information establishes a foundation for the problem facing Black students in community college, further complicated by the fact that of those already alarmingly-low numbers, Black male students fare even worse statistically (Bukoski & Hatch, 2016).

To help explain some of the unique challenges facing Black students,

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particularly Black men, Abrica, et al. (2019) chronicle the history of antiblackness in higher education, which they define as "the systemic, institutional, social or cultural disregard of Black bodies" (p. 2). Manifestations of Black male antiblackness in higher education include, but are not limited, to Black men feeling racially isolated, alienated, microaggressed, stereotyped, and subjected to hostile learning environments, along with the rejection of the Black male intellect juxtaposed with the commodification and idolization of Black male athletic prowess (Abrica, et al. 2019). Abrica, et al. (2019) explain that the literature on Black men in higher education are replete with contradictory narratives of Black resilience, self-determination, and resistance, and a fatalistic focus on real problems facing Black men, such as mass incarceration and police brutality, which run the risk of perpetuating a "Black male crisis narrative" whereby Black men are treated as "a population needing to be saved from themselves" (Brown and Donner, 2011, as cited in Abrica, et al., 2019, p. 4). Abrica. et al. (2019), through their qualitative study of fifteen Black male students at a California Hispanic serving community college, explored some of the common experiences of Black men in California community college campuses, including attacks on (or appropriations of) their intellectual contributions, feeling invisible or hypervisible in the classroom, and the constant threat psychological violence and microaggressions on campus. These findings by Abrica, et al. (2019) echo similar findings to that of Steele (2011) and Gardenhire-Crooks, et al. (2010) who note how pervasive stereotype threat and sensitivity to fulfilling (or

not fulfilling) negative stereotypes can take a massive psychological toll on Black

students. Stereotypes against Black men as criminals or sexual aggressors

further compounds the hostile learning climate experienced by Black men on

campus (Abrica, et al., 2019; Gardenhire-Crooks, et al., 2010).

Similar to their publication on Black Californians, the Campaign for

College Opportunity (2018) published a report on the state of the 15 million

Latinx Californians when it comes to education. The report highlights some of the

achievements and challenges associated with Latinx people in California, which

comprise nearly 40% of the population, and are expected to achieve a

demographic plurality by 2060. In terms of "good news," the report highlights a

91% increase in Latinx college attendance in the past twenty years, with over 1.3

Latinx students going to college, record numbers of Latinx students transferring

to four-year institutions from community colleges, and narrowing of the equity

gap between white and Latinx students' completion rates at community colleges.

In terms of "bad news," the report points to the gap in bachelor's degree

attainment between Latinx and white students *increasing* in the past ten years,

horribly slow community college transfer rates (2% in two years and 31% in six

years), and a demographic disproportionality between largely white faculty and

college leadership from a frequently plurality or majority Latinx student body.

While enrollment, completion, and transfer rates have all risen in recent years for

Latinx students, the gap between overall degree attainment between Latinx and

white students has actually increased, and this gap is actually most pronounced

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in California than any other state, and it has grown by two percentage points in the past two decades (CCO, 2018). As previously stated for Black students, the equity gaps for Latinx students are heightened for Latino men because of the compounded equity gap for Latino men, whose Latina counterparts regularly outperform them in terms of academic success, and complicating cultural factors (Saenz, et al., 2013).

To help explore some of the unique challenges facing Latino men, Saenz, et al. (2013) examine the cultural phenomena of *machismo* and *caballerismo* to help explain the uniquely Latino cultural factors intersectionally compounding general MGRC experienced by Latino men. Unpacking some of the literature dedicated to Latino masculinity, Saenz, et al. (2013) explain, referencing work by Arcinega, Anderson, Tovar-Blank, and Tracey (2008) that while Latino men exhibit many harmful stereotypically masculine traits (i.e. self-reliance, homophobia, sexual objectification of women, etc.) that make up the concept of machismo, not all traditionally Latino masculine traits are harmful. Arcinega, et al. (2008) hold that caballerismo, focusing on chivalric, family-centered values, can help students connect emotionally and solve problems (as cited in Saenz, et al., 2013). Key to this discussion of Latino masculinity is the fact that it has both positive and negative characteristics, and the contradictory nature of these cultural signals interact—especially in educational contexts. These differences also mark a large difference between the experiences of Latino men as opposed to their Latina woman counterparts (Cerna, Perez, & Sáenz, 2009; Gloria,

Castellanos, Scull, & Villegas, 2009; Sáenz & Ponjuan, 2009, as cited in Saenz,

et al. 2013). For instance, whereas many Latinas see education as a means of

escape from traditional gender oppression, Latino men have often experienced

school as racially oppressive or unaccommodating (Cammarota, 2004 as cited in

Saenz, et al., 2013). This gender divide—not just from success numbers, but a

fundamentally different experience in college—points to the need for an

understanding of Latino men as explicitly gendered individuals.

  While the literature reveals several arenas in which faculty, administrators,

and staff can help Latino students, the relational domain once again seems key.

Saenz, Rodriguez, Ortego Pritchett, Estrada, and Garbee (2016), for instance,

stress the importance of role models and mentors (preferably male alumni,

faculty, or staff), who can provide experience, positive reinforcement, and

feedback in a safe environment, so that students can understand how to be

successful by seeing the success of others they can trust. Ultimately, therefore,

the research on Latino male students points once again to relationships being

key to aiding them in their academic aspirations.

  In many ways, however, specific themes that emerge in the literature

facing Latino college students are just versions of the same struggles facing all

male students at the community college. Issues facing Latino men, from trouble

seeking help or admitting difficulty, intense fear of failure, and pressure to

achieve status, often tied to familial expectations and breadwinner status (Saenz,

et al., 2013), are reflections of the same pressures from cultured norms

experienced by men across a wide variety of races due to MGRC (Harris and Harper, 2008), even if unique racial struggles and racial anxiety along with difficulties adapting to the academic rigor of college compound for students of color (Cabrera, et al., 2016).

A common theme among Latino students also includes the downplaying of struggle and emotion, even in the face of intense challenges. Cabrera, et al. (2016) write of the Latino male students they interviewed presented a misleading confidence in the face of struggle, downplaying the role of external conflicts, seeing academic challenges as conquerable obstacles, but with no clear solution to the problems. But again, these struggles are not culturally specific to Latino men; rather, they reinforce the research on MGRC which shows how men across the racial spectrum often exhibit a nuanced, somewhat contradictory self-concept, with students willing to take responsibility and work hard, but doing so sometimes in self-defeating ways (Harris & Wood, 2016). As Saenz, et al. (2013) put it, all of these themes, including the more nurturing and family-oriented aspects of masculinity can draw men away from school and toward dropping out to fulfill more socially conforming forms of masculinity.

A Critical Framework for Assessing Needs of Men of Color

While Black and Latino male students both have unique needs, recent research—both qualitative and quantitative—has focused on shared needs between all men of color at the community college. Building on their previous Five Domains model (Wood & Harris, 2014), which focused specifically on Black

students, Harris and Wood (2016) created the Socio-Ecological Outcomes (SEO)

Model, which attempts to frame the experiences of all men of color, including

Black, Latino, Native American, and Southeast Asian men. Harris and Wood

(2016) point to commonalities among men of color that help explain their shared

experiences. The other key factor of the SEO model is that it has been field

tested through extensive field research through the Community College Success

Measure (CCSM), formerly titled the Community College Survey of Men, which

has been administered to over 4,000 male community college students at over

ninety colleges (CCEAL, 2018; Harris & Wood, 2016).

The CCSM and its underlying SEO model, therefore measure the most

important factors for student success outcomes for male community college

students of color (Harris & Wood, 2016). The SEO Model, informing and

measured by the CCSM, according to Wood, Harris, and Xiong (2014),

comprises seven key constructs. The SEO model first begins by accounting for

inputs, which include 1. Background factors, such as age, income, and time

status, and 2. Societal factors such as stereotypes and criminalization (Wood, et

al., 2014). Next, the model explores four socio-economic domains, including 1.

Non-cognitive, which includes intrapersonal factors like self-efficacy, locus of

control, and intrinsic interest along with salient identities such as gender, race,

and religion. 2. Academic, which includes faculty interaction, use of student

services, and commitment to education. 3. Environmental, including outside

mediating factors and commitments like finances, transportation, employment,

and family stress, and 4. Campus Ethos, including a sense of belonging, student-faculty interaction, the campus's racial climate, campus resources, and validating agents such as faculty and staff (Wood, et al., 2014). Finally, the SEO model accounts for student success outcomes, including persistence, degree attainment, goal accomplishment, transfer, and employment (Wood, et al., 2014).

The comprehensive nature of the SEO Model in exploring the experiences of men of color provides a powerful framework by which to study men of color as whole individuals—gendered, racialized, spiritualized, etc.—with a variety of experiences, affected by multiple forces on their road to success. The SEO model looks at the big picture of student experiences, and likewise the CCSM is designed to measure different aspects of the SEO model quantitatively. The massive amount of both qualitative and quantitative data collected under this model by the CCEAL in qualitative studies and also quantitative studies using the CCSM (which has undergone a substantial validity process) make both the SEO model and the CCSM valuable tools in understanding how better to serve men of color (CCEAL, 2018; Wood, Harris, & Roesch, 2017).

Promising Evidence for Validation and Men of Color. Part of what makes the SEO model important, especially paired with other frameworks like Rendon's (1994) or Kuh's (2003), for understanding men of color is the evidence of their efficacy when it comes to increasing success for male students of color. Rendon (1994) points to some initial qualitative effects of validation on men of color, noting how students responded well to teachers perceived as caring. But

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beyond Rendon's (1994) initial research, further research has shown how

validation can be powerful for male community college students of color.

Applying validation more specifically to men of color, researchers using

Wood and Harris's CCSM data have further assessed the effectiveness of

validation. Bauer (2014), for instance, used two-way factorial analysis of variance

to examine faculty validation and time status for 289 urban Black male

community college students. Hypothesizing that Black male full-time students

would be more likely than Black male part-time students to engage with faculty,

Bauer (2014) concluded that feelings of faculty validation were positively related

to students' engagement with college, and that full-time students were not more

likely to engage with faculty than part time students, underscoring other literature

that indicates that, especially for men of color, faculty-student relationships do

not occur passively (Bauer, 2014).

Similarly, Palacios (2014) examined how male community college

students of color experienced faculty validation as it related to race, degree

utility, and stressful life events. Using Mason (1998)'s findings that "the greater

men perceived that school was a worthwhile endeavor; the more likely they were

to persist" (as cited in Palacios, 2014, p. 164), Palacios (2014) sought to

measure the effects of validation, race, and stressful life events on degree utility.

Using CCSM data from 1,415 multiethnic urban community college men, and

after performing a three-way factorial analysis of variance, Palacios (2014) found

that the more validation men received from faculty, even when experiencing high

degrees of stress, the higher they scored in degree utility. While the benefit applied to all races in Palacios's (2014) analysis, the results are consistent with both Wood and Harris's (2016) SEO model and Rendon's (1994) conception of validation, specifically as a powerful tool in serving men of color (Palacios, 2014).

Additionally, Newman, Wood, and Harris (2015) used hierarchical linear regressions on CCSM data to determine how racial-gender stereotypes held by faculty members, faculty validation, and faculty student engagement affect respondents' perceptions of belonging with faculty members. Drawing on psychological studies like Steele's (2011) concept of stereotype threat, Newman, et al. (2015) explain that Black men often internalize perceived stereotypes and stigmas related to their academic performance, which negatively affects their outcomes. Using data from 364 Black men from 17 community colleges in six states, they found that while respondents' perceptions of racial stereotypes held by their professors had a significant effect on their sense of belonging, validating messages from faculty mitigated these effects. Ultimately, validation in this case was able to help overcome perceived racial tension and anxiety experienced by students, reinforcing its power in effectively serving male students of color.

Wood and Newman (2017) later followed this study up with another, determining to predict faculty-student engagement for Black men in community college. Once again pulling from the CCSM, they looked at 340 Black men from sixteen urban community colleges across four states, using non-nested, hierarchical linear regression to examine predictors of faculty-student

engagement. While their research found multiple variables that contributed to faculty-student engagement, they concluded that validation was the most significant contributor to faculty-student engagement. While this supports the findings of Palacios (2014) and Bauer (2014), Wood and Newman (2017) suggest that validation is the strongest determining factor of urban men's engagement in school, especially because validation seemed to curb the perceptions of many students that faculty were uninterested in engaging with them in the first place (Cotton & Wilsonm 2006, as cited in Wood & Newman, 2017).

Alcantar and Hernandez's (2018) qualitative study of nine Latinx students revealed further benefits of validation on students' sense of belonging. While their sample included both men and women, the male respondents reported positive benefits from validating experiences from faculty (Alcantar & Hernandez, 2018). Furthermore, as part of their study, Alcantar and Hernandez (2018) highlight the demographic characteristics of the instructors involved in validating experiences; while their findings show how positive relationships can form between male students of color and male faculty of the same race, they also note how all faculty—regardless of race and gender—can serve this validating function for men of color, as some of their male students of color reported strong validating relationships with female professors and/or faculty of other races. These findings, similar to Wood and Newman (2017), demonstrating how validation can often cut through the perceptions of racial stereotypes, a hostile

climate, or even just helping students to overcome their fear of help-seeking,

show how important validation can be for men of color—not just from an

anecdotal, but from an empirical point of view.

Promising Evidence for Student Engagement and Men of Color. While the

above studies specifically examined the validation as conceptualized by Rendon

(1994), Kuh's (2003) work takes a similar, complimentary approach to the role of

the institution and the faculty in student success. Regarding the role of the

faculty member, Kuh, et al., (2006) maintain from their review of the literature,

that "the more interaction with faculty the better" with both in-class and out-of-

class faculty interaction positively influencing their experiences, attitudes toward,

and satisfaction with college (p. 41). Furthermore, beyond the classroom, Kuh,

et al., (2006) even note that student-faculty interaction positively correlates to

other qualities such as leadership and self-esteem (Astin, 1993, as cited in Kuh,

et al., 2006). Considering the widely-documented positive effects of faculty-

student interactions, along with the role of the institution in ensuring student

engagement and success, a number of authors have examined student

engagement, specifically faculty-student engagement, sometimes using Kuh's

specific framework, but most come to similar conclusions regarding the role of

the faculty member and the relational domain as a whole for men of color in

community college.

For instance, in their mixed-methods study, Bush and Bush (2010)

examine how institutional factors relate to Black men and their perceptions of the

community college. Using student records and admissions questionnaires, Bush and Bush (2010) examined the responses of 200 students from four racial categories (Black, Asian, white, and Latinx), followed by interviews of 742 students. Descriptive, correlation, and multiple regression statistics were used to quantitatively assess the data, whereas a focus group of six African American male students helped supplement the data qualitatively (Bush & Bush, 2010). In the final analysis, Bush & Bush (2010) found that faculty-student interaction was a significant predictor of retention, higher GPA, and likelihood to transfer for Black male students. Overall, according Bush and Bush (2010), while a variety of variables contribute to student achievement, once again, faculty interaction is paramount.

Another oft-cited study, by Gardenhire-Crooks, Collado, Martin, Castro, and Orr (2010), used intensive qualitative methods including individual and group interviews among other observations with 87 male students of color enrolled in developmental courses over the course of the 2007-2008 academic year to measure faculty-student engagement. Gardenhire-Crooks, et al. (2010) found that while students often had initial positive interactions with faculty and staff on campus, those perceptions often soured after negative interactions; furthermore, they report that few of the men in their study reported close relationships with college faculty or staff, but that they often appreciated caring attitudes and willingness to explain concepts. Above all, however, was male students of color's need to feel respect from faculty and staff. In fact, the authors found that even "a

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single negative experience in which the men felt disrespected — for who they were and what they were doing by attending college — could make them decide never to return for assistance" (Gardenhire-Crooks, et al., 2010, p. 37).

Yet Gardenhire-Crooks, et al. (2010) did not find all bad news, as when students felt they received respect, which was rarer, the students engaged. The most common way to demonstrate that respect, according to Gardenhire-Crooks, et al. (2010), was care, and those students who did have such experiences with professors tended to better engage with the material, ask questions, and seek help. Ultimately these qualitative insights are incredibly helpful because they show some insights into why and how men of color interact (or do not interact) with faculty and vice versa, and how that impacts their academic experiences.

Wood (2014) provided more valuable qualitative data that echoed the findings of Gardenhire-Crooks, et al. (2010). Examining qualitative interviews with 28 Black men from a public two-year college in the southwestern U.S., Wood (2014) explored factors students felt affected their academic engagement, with faculty-student interactions playing a big role in student disengagement. Whereas Gardenhire-Crooks, et al. (2010) pointed to respect as key for men of color, Wood (2014) points more to anxiety about inferiority, or being perceived as "dumb" by faculty and staff. Wood (2014) found that negative classroom interactions can lead Black men to disengage. Wood (2014) also found that students expressed anxiety about embarrassing themselves by sharing an unpopular opinion in class, or were too timid to ask a question when prompted by

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the professor. Overall, these interactions—the negative, the positive, and the nonexistent—show how powerful faculty-student relationships are, for good or for bad, or even when they do not even occur.

Beyond the valuable qualitative data of Gardenhire-Crookes, et al., (2010) and Wood (2014) other researchers have used quantitative data to get a similar picture of faculty-student engagement with male students of color. In Harrison and Palacios's (2014) study, they assessed differences in student engagement with faculty members based on the faculty members' welcomeness and imbuement of belonging. Using analysis of covariance, the researchers used CCSM data from 212 Black men from a large urban district in the western U.S., and they measured faculty-student engagement as the outcome variable, with faculty belonging, faculty welcomeness (in-class), and faculty welcomeness (out-of-class) as independent variables, all derived from various questions on the CCSM. Their results showed that faculty behavior, in and out of the classroom was vital, stating the faculty's demonstration of interest—even by informal gestures such as waving, saying hello, or checking in on academic progress—can facilitate students to engage. This student data shows how even simple gestures by faculty can have a profound effect on ensuring Black men have a positive experience in college.

Other quantitative data point to similar findings with Latino students. Palacios, Wood, and Harris (2015), for instance, interviewed some Mexicano community college students about their experiences in school, along with

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analyzing data from the CCSM. Similar to Wood (2014) and Gardenhire-Crookes, et al. (2010), the students interviewed by Palacios, et al. (2015) were similarly anxious, prideful, and hesitant to ask for help or be perceived as inferior by faculty. Palacios, et al. (2015) also indicate how much of the anxiety of Mexicano students is tied directly to work and family responsibilities and their concept of being breadwinners for their families. Palacios, et al. (2015) show specific examples of male faculty members reaching out personally to students to help demonstrate the power of acknowledging student experiences. Quantitatively, Palacios et al., (2015) examined data using multiple linear regression from the CCSM from 337 Mexican and Mexican American men from seventeen community colleges in four states, with faculty-student engagement as the outcome variable, and hours worked per week and other masculine domains as secondary variables. Unsurprisingly, Palacios, et al. (2015) found that work was negatively related to faculty-student engagement, but that professors could mitigate the negative effect through "intrusive instruction" practices like requiring students to attend the instructor's office hours to get needed feedback on their progress.

One final study by Wood and Ireland (2014), notable for its large national sample size, analyzed data from the Community College Survey of Student Engagement, using data from 11,384 Black male respondents from 260 community colleges using hierarchical multilevel modeling. Wood and Ireland (2014) found, among other factors, that older Black students had higher levels of

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faculty-student engagement, parental education was not significantly linked to faculty-student engagement, and that participation in orientation, reading remediation learning communities, and study skills courses all were positively associated with faculty-student engagement (Wood & Ireland, 2014). Furthermore, the negative perception of campus climate seemed to be mitigated by positive in-class experiences with faculty members (Wood & Ireland, 2014). In other words, positive interactions with faculty in a particular classroom can influence the way students perceive the larger campus.

Overall, while the above studies are not exhaustive of the topic of faculty-student engagement, they point to a common theme: the role of the faculty member, faculty-student engagement, and faculty-student interaction are all important in serving men of color at community colleges. When positive faculty-student interactions are present, so is persistence, completion, and achievement. When it is absent, whether due to students' aversion to help-seeking or real or perceived negative experiences and attitudes associated with faculty, students are more likely to withdraw, check out, and perpetuate the statistical status quo.

Finding the Gap in the Research
AB 705 as a Means to Validation and Equity for Men of Color

In his examination of promising research in developmental English, Barhoum (2017a) lamented a lack of research in the relational domain in developmental education, especially considering the body of literature demonstrating its salience for students of color due to their overrepresentation in

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basic skills. While Barhoum (2017a) specifically refers to the greater pool of research coming from the CCEAL, he is right that there is little connective tissue bridging the research of authors like Saenz, Bukoski, Hatch, Wood, Harris, and others directly to English classes. In fact, Barhoum (2017a, 2017b, 2018) himself occupies that space most prominently in the research. For instance, Barhoum and Wood (2016) studied the use of collaborative learning techniques in the developmental English classroom. In line with the concept of student engagement from Kuh et al. (2011), Barhoum and Wood (2016) focus on how the institution (i.e. the faculty) and the students in the classroom can interact to create meaningful learning. Barhoum and Wood (2016) specifically measured how students asked questions, worked on group projects, presented in class, tutored each other, or discussed ideas from class outside of class. Such indicators of active and collaborative learning are often advocated by those, like Hern and Snell (2013) who advocate for low-stakes collaborative practice, and Barhoum (2017a) who advocates for attention to flexible, varied, and innovative andragogical practices.

In Barhoum and Wood's (2016) study of 34,148 students across 916 colleges from the data from the CCSSE, they used factorial ANOVA to examine both students who had taken developmental writing courses and those who were planning to, to determine how taking developmental writing affected their active and collaborative learning. Barhoum and Wood (2016) recommend that instructors apply similar practices to all student populations because such a

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variety of collaborative practices might better serve a variety of diverse students and help individualize professors' approach to the classroom. Again, the authors' findings point to similar conclusions from the rest of the literature—that classroom practices that involve student and faculty interaction and varied and individualized attention have positive effects on students from all ethnic groups.

However, Barhoum and Wood's (2016) study is perhaps most useful in the areas it does not cover. For instance, in addition to further exploration of how these educational practices impact different ethnic groups, Barhoum and Wood (2016) note how their study of developmental writing is increasingly moot with innovations and laws like AB 705. Barhoum and Wood (2016) explain that with innovative strategies such as acceleration, corequisites, and mainstreaming, more research is needed; furthermore, a comparison of developmental writing and transfer-level writing could also be useful, partly to examine how various writing pathways might disproportionately affect different racial/ethnic groups. All of these areas for future research—the effect of professors' andragogical strategies in corequisites courses, comparing corequisites to transfer-level courses, and the focus on specific impacts on ethnic groups are all areas my study will attempt to cover.

Finally, Barhoum (2018) points to the ways that reform-related strategies from across the country, many of which are encouraged or mandated by CAP and AB 705, might pave the way for increasing student success for men of color. In a nationwide study of community college developmental writing faculty,

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Barhoum (2018) investigated the most promising practices and techniques in writing programs across the nation. Using his own conceptual framework (Barhoum, 2017a; Barhoum, 2017b), Barhoum (2018) focused on the structural changes in developmental writing, and the emergence of corequisite support classes was quite salient, noting how professors report that they use the extra time in corequisite courses to engage with students, answer their questions, and explain the material, individualize instruction, and address students affective needs. This overview of corequisite developmental writing classes is vital to my study. As Barhoum (2017a, 2017b) indicates, a broad focus on all four domains—structural, curricular, andragogical, and relational—is needed to succeed in developmental English reform.

However, as Barhoum (2018) illustrates above, this structural change— one essentially mandated by AB 705—is proving to be a key tool to addressing all four domains. Barhoum's description of corequisite courses also indicates that they can provide some of the important functions that other authors have suggested men of color need in the form of a study skills courses or other apparatuses (Saenz & Ponjuan, 2011; Wood & Ireland, 2014). In other words, corequisite courses might just be the key to merging the various bodies of research discussed in this literature review. This structural change—removing the fence—might be the key to making significant equity gains. And that is where my study joins the conversation.

Taking all of these factors together—development, structural benefits, and

early evidence of success for AB 705, along with the importance of and benefits seen from focusing on andragogical and relational domains, the reforms consistent with the theories and practices surrounding AB 705 are promising. While problems still remain, the available evidence points to these curricular reforms at least being a step in the right direction. Furthermore, these structural, curricular, andragogical, and most importantly relational changes facilitated by AB 705 are demonstrating important results for men of color, especially in the ways they shine light on the role of the professor and the non-cognitive aspects of the course. The primary goal of AB 705 is to help students succeed more broadly (Hope, 2018). But the secondary goal is the elimination of equity gaps (Hope, 2018). Some have hoped AB 705 would be a rising tide that would lift all boats, and the fact that early data shows gains across demographic groups (with some of the strongest gains for men of color) seems to prove it to at least partially be true (Rodriguez, et al., 2018). But AB 705 will fail in its mission if it fails to narrow equity gaps. Thus, more research is needed to determine—in practice, not just theory—if AB 705 will provide the desired effects on student achievement, faculty-student relationships, and equity for men of color.

Summary

Ultimately, the literature discussed in this chapter has established the following points: 1. The mission of the community college is to provide open access education to wall who can benefit, and a majority of community college

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students enter community college to further their education, employment, and upward mobility (CSDE, 1960; Cohen, et al., 2013). 2. Developmental education has failed to provide community college with access; rather, multi-semester remedial sequences and high-stakes placement have served as a barrier to student success—which has disproportionately affected the poor and people of color (Adams, et al., 2009; Bartholomae, 1993; Grubb & Gabriner, 2013; Hern, 2010). 3. Black and Latinx Californians have been systemically discriminated against in the educational system for the entirety of the state's existence, and while de jure racism was outlawed years ago, de facto racism—conscious or unconscious—has helped perpetuate segregation and inequality, which is most pronounced for men of color (Bonilla-Silva, 2003; Boykin & Noguera, 2011; Chavez-Garcia, 2012; Donato, 1997; Kuscera, et al., 2014; Noguera, 2008; Steele, 2011). 4. Men of color are an understudied and underserved group of community college students, disproportionately affected by equity gaps, who have unique needs (Bukoski & Hatch, 2016; Harris & Harper, 2008; Saenz, et al., 2013). 5. Research shows that creating personal relationships with students— whether in the K-12 system or college—has positive effects on student success and the closing of equity gaps, specifically for men of color (Barhoum, 2017a, 2017b, 2018; Boykin & Noguera, 2011; Kuh, 2003; Noguera, 2008; Wood, et al., 2017); Rendon's (1994) validation theory is a powerful framework for understanding this relationship-building. 6. Barhoum (2017a, 2017b, 2018) established that the structural, curricular, andragogical, and relational domains of

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education reform in English are all vital to achieving student success and equity, and that changes in one domain can have salient impacts on other domains. 7. AB 705 was designed to rectify the broken remedial model and close equity gaps, primarily through mandating changes to the structural domain, based on preliminary data that also show promising results for the other domains (Hope, 2018; Henson & Hern, 2019; Rodriguez, et al., 2018).

My study addresses all seven of these separate points by specifically exploring how the structural changes mandated by AB 705 might affect the relational domain, viewed through Rendon's (1994) framework of validation, and how that impacts equity outcomes for Black and Latino male students, with the ultimate goal of improving the California community college system's ability to help all people—regardless of race and gender—achieve knowledge, career skills, and social mobility.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Purpose and Hypotheses / Research Questions

Having examined the disparate bodies of literature leading to this specific

point in time—the evolution of developmental education, the legacy of racism in

the California school system, validation's promising role in attaining equity, and

the unique needs of male students of color, the purpose of this study was, using

Barhoum's (2017a) framework, to see how the structural and curricular changes

associated with AB 705 might affect the andragogical and relational aspects of

the course, and how those outcomes manifest in the experiences of male Black

and Latino students.

A sequential explanatory study was be used, and it involved collecting

qualitative data after a quantitative phase to explain or follow up on the

quantitative data in more depth. In the quantitative phase of the study, an

instrument measuring faculty validation in the classroom was collected from a

representative sample of students in both traditional first-year composition as

well as corequisite first-year composition at Patterson College, a large, urban,

California community college, through an in-person survey administered to

students during class time. These scores, along with student demographic data

(self-reported in the instrument) and final grade (provided after the semester's

end by Patterson's office of institutional effectiveness with the informed consent

of the students) helped in explaining how validation and course grade relate to student gender, race, and placement in either a traditional or corequisite composition course.

The second, qualitative phase, was conducted because while total validation can be measured, the specifics of what constitutes a validating or invalidating experience, or which specific classroom behaviors, interactions, or attitudes between faculty and students can constitute validation cannot. For this reason, in the exploratory follow-up, the classroom experiences of male Black and Latino students were explored with nine Black and Latino men at Patterson College, including some who passed the course, some who failed, some who took the corequisite course, and some who took the standalone. The qualitative phase consisted of semi-structured interviews. While the ultimate goal of the exploratory follow-up hinged on the findings in the quantitative phase, the reason for this exploratory follow-up was to add dimension and specificity to the general levels of validation expressed by students in the quantitative phase, and to learn which classroom experiences in particular foster or stifle validation. Ultimately, this study attempted to measure and explain the relationships between faculty validation, student final grade, and course category (i.e. traditional or corequisite), race, and gender at Patterson college, a large, urban California community college.

An overarching research question guided this study, along with two specific hypotheses and four qualitative research questions:

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Overall Research Question – What relationship, if any, can be discerned between structural changes in first-year composition and the relational experiences of male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California community college?

Hypothesis 1 (H1) – On average, male Black and Latino students in a corequisite English class will report higher levels of faculty validation than those in traditional classes.

Hypothesis 2 (H2) – faculty validation will be positively related to the final grade in the course for male Black and Latino students in both traditional and corequisite course models.

Research Question 1 – What relationship, if any, can be discerned between course grade and experiences described by male Black and Latino students in a first-year composition course at a large, urban California community college?

Research Question 2 – What relationship, if any, can be discerned between course placement (traditional or corequisite) and experiences described by male Black and Latino students in a first-year composition course at a large, urban California community college?

Research Question 3 - How do male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California community college describe validating and/or invalidating experiences with their first-year composition instructors?

Research Question 4 – What validating and/or invalidating experiences

from their English professors do male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California community college consider most salient?

Setting

The setting of my research was Patterson College, a large, urban, community college in southern California.[2] In fall 2019, Patterson served approximately 21,000 students, 71% of whom were part-time and 29% of whom were full-time.[3] Demographically, the population was 58% female and 42% male. When it comes to completion, 31% of female and 26% of male first-time, full-time students finished their program (associate's degree, certificate, or transfer) within three years (fall 2016-fall 2019). 73% of students at Patterson were under the age of 24, whereas 27% of students were over 25. Racially, Patterson is a Hispanic-serving institution, with a Latinx population of 62% in fall 2019. Populations of Patterson's other ethnic groups include white at 17%, Black at 7%, Asian at 5%, two or more races at 2%, and non-resident aliens at 1%. Overall success rates (associate's degree, certificate, or transfer) within three years for first-time, full-time freshmen at Patterson was approximately 35% for students who began in fall 2015, which is lower than California's average, which is around 40% (Clark, 2012). Furthermore, most of the available data on

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[2] The names of the college, specific course numbers, and any and all staff or faculty members are pseudonyms.
[3] All school numbers are taken from the National Center for Education Statistics and internal numbers from the research site, but a specific citation for this information is not given so as to protect the identity of the research site.

Patterson is for full-time, first-time students, with full-time students only comprising 29% of the student population. Numerous equity gaps exist at Patterson, but the biggest gaps affecting the biggest number of students are for Black and Latinx students, specifically male Black and Latino students. Therefore, my study focused on these groups in particular.

When it comes to preparing for AB 705, Patterson had already been well on its way to adapting for the state-mandated changes. The California Acceleration Project (CAP) began its statewide push for developmental math and English reform in 2010 (Hern, 2010). By 2013, Patterson had sent representatives to CAP's community of practice and had developed English 98, a six-unit accelerated basic skills course designed to accelerate the remedial sequence by allowing students to complete remediation in one semester. By 2016, Patterson had piloted MMAP, placing students in math and English based on their high school GPA rather than assessment scores. In fall 2018, Patterson severely scaled down its offerings of remedial courses, effectively eliminating its remedial sequence except for a handful of sections for extenuating student circumstances. Meanwhile, Patterson also piloted two sections of English 100, its four-unit first-year composition course with English 99, a co-requisite course taught by the same instructor. For spring 2019, the number of corequisite sections was increased to nineteen. Based on the state-mandated MMAP formula, students with a 2.6 or higher high school GPA (HSGPA) were encouraged to enroll directly in English 100. Students with between a 2.0 and 2.6

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HSGPA were encouraged to enroll in the corequisite course. And students with a

HSGPA of 1.9 or lower were required to enroll in the corequisite course. While

Patterson was compliant with AB 705 by spring 2019 in English, fall 2019 was

the first semester where AB 705 was the law of the land, and a brand-new class

of first-year students right out of high school enrolled in first-year composition.

Also new for fall 2019 was a massive informational campaign, coordinated with

the counseling and welcome centers at Patterson to inform new students of the

changes coming with AB 705, including a YouTube video of student volunteers

informing other students of the purpose and nature of AB 705's changes in

English, along with a campus-wide visual advertising campaign in signs, posters,

banners, and sandwich boards alerting students to the new placement and

course structure changes.

Outside of the structural components of course design and placement,

Patterson has engaged in a massive professional development push, partially

funded by California's recent transformation grant for basic skills. As part of this

push, from 2015-2019, Patterson sent over twenty different part-time and full-

time faculty members to CAP's summertime community of practice, a three-day

curriculum and andragogy workshop, along with their annual conferences to

share best practices across the state. Locally, Patterson appointed an AB 705

coordinator beginning in fall 2018 through the spring 2020 term (recently

renewed through spring 2022) with a .3 release time. This coordinator's job

included but was not limited to hosting local trainings in student-centered

curriculum and andragogy, including formal training days, informal brown bags and info sessions, and longer-form training opportunities. Topics included but were not limited to information on the legal changes, overview of curricular modifications, best practices for course design, culturally responsive teaching practices, and best practices for in-the-classroom activities. From fall 2018 through fall 2019, Patterson offered (in conjunction with its AB 705 coordinator alone) over fifty hours of professional development to its English faculty (sometimes in conjunction other disciplines). Most commonly, this consisted of 1-2-hour workshops attended by anywhere between five and thirty-five faculty members, but sometimes it involved longer-form training, such a two-day weekend retreat in fall 2018 attended by over thirty full-time and part-time English faculty members.

Patterson's office of institutional effectiveness was also actively involved in monitoring the success rates and equity impacts associated with the new changes in placement and course structure. Throughout 2019 and into 2020, the English department at Patterson also engaged in a department-wide informal qualitative research as they adjusted to the new changes, complete with a series of community of practice workshops. In conducting this study, I worked with Patterson's department chair in English, AB 705 coordinator in English, and Dean of Institutional Effectiveness. The department chair in English wrote my proposed research in to the Patterson English department's program review and plan for fall 2019-2020 and helped me explain my research to the department

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and to help recruit participants. Considering the fact that much of the professional

development engaged in by both full-time and part-time faculty at Patterson has

focused not just on curriculum (i.e. thematic courses, culturally relevant texts),

but also on the andragogical and relational domains (i.e. class activities, just-in-

time remediation, student-centered language, validating intrusive support, etc.), I

was curious to see if the desired effects of making first-year composition a more

engaging, validating, and successful experience for students—particularly the

most marginalized students—was achieved.

Looking at the traditional success rates for English 100 at Patterson

(specifically enrollment, retention, and course success) a good picture of the

evolution of English 100 can be seen. Looking at averages from fall 2015, fall

2016, fall 2017, and fall 2018, an average of 1821 students enrolled in English

100 every fall—803 men and 1,018 women. While overall retention and success

rates were 84.3% and 63.2% respectively, the retention and success rates for

African American men were 80.9% and 44.7% and the retention and success

rates for Latino men were 81% and 57.6%.

Fall 2019's data were strikingly different from the previous four-year

average. In fall 2019, 3,258 students took English 100—nearly double the

previous four-year average—including 1,884 women and 1,374 men. Overall

retention remained relatively steady at 82.7%, and success dipped to 58.6%.

While this is a decrease, the decrease is belied by the massive increase in

students. Simply put, in the previous four-year average, hundreds of students

were in remedial courses which were eliminated by fall 2019. This is perhaps most noticeable for groups such as male Black and Latino students. For instance, in fall 2019, 126 Black men took English 100, and 54 of them passed the course for a success rate of 42.9%. For Latino men, 936 of them took the course, and 494 of them passed, leading to a total of 52.8% success.

These success rates seem like they're going in the wrong direction compared to previous semesters without factoring in throughput. While from 2015-2018, Black men passed at a 44.2% rate, only 21 Black men passed the class on average every semester. In fall 2019, while Black men passed at a slightly lower rate, the total number of Black men who passed the class (54) more than doubled the previous four-year average. The same goes for Latino men. The previous four-year average had approximately 286 Latino men passing the course every semester at a rate of 57.1%. In fall 2019, 494 Latino men passed English 100 at a rate of 52.8%. While the success rate is technically lower, the throughput is dramatically higher, meaning substantially more students finished English 100 than they did before AB 705. While 40-50% success rates are hardly something to celebrate, the reality of the situation at Patterson is that substantially more students are passing English 100. As fall 2019 is just one snapshot, Patterson will have to continue to monitor its data, but the initial results do indeed look promising—at the very least a step in the right direction. Beyond this traditional marker of success (i.e. passing the course), my study sought to examine other, more non-traditional markers of success.

Methods

<u>Overall Design</u>

This study used a mixed-methods approach under the premise that "the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone" (Creswell & Clark, 2007, p. 5). Specifically, this study used a sequential-explanatory design, which consisted of two phases: a quantitative phase followed by a qualitative phase. In this design, a researcher first gathers quantifiable data and analyzes it, followed by a qualitative phase with textual data to help explain the results of the quantitative phase (Creswell & Clark, 2007). The second phase builds on the first phase by providing specific insight and elaboration to the more general numerical data (Creswell & Clark, 2007). Overall, the purpose of modeling the design as such was to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the problem, with the quantitative data providing the majority of the data, and the qualitative data serving to explain and interpret it (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

This study in particular employed a mixed methods sequential explanatory design; the quantitative portion took the form of a quasi-experimental study, and the qualitative portion took the form of a phenomenology. The purpose of choosing this design was as follows: the overall purpose of the study was to assess how structural changes in first-year composition (i.e. placement in a corequisite English course) affected the overall level of faculty validation experienced and reported by students. As the goal was to measure this

phenomenon as it applied to 3,258 students (the entire population of the fall 2019 semester English 100 / English 100+99 population at Patterson College) and analyze the data for trends and generalizable results, the study lent itself best to quantitative research; however, as faculty validation is a subjective, interpersonal subject, quantitative data was ultimately insufficient. With a quantitative survey, general patterns of faculty validation were measured, but with even a small amount of qualitative data, the lived experiences of students themselves helped explain the trends observed in the quantitative data.

Research Paradigm

The research paradigm that undergirds this study was probably best classified as pragmatism, as I approached the study without commitment to any one system of philosophy or reality, I am primarily interested in the utility of my research, and I intended to use different forms of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2014). The research paradigms typically used with mixed-methods studies have been the subject of considerable academic debate: while some advocate for pragmatism as the ideal paradigm for mixed methods studies, others argue that researchers can use multiple paradigms, or that the paradigm used will be dictated by the specific mixed-methods design (Creswell & Clark, 2007). I agree with Patton (2002), recognizing the significance of paradigmatic debate, but also recognizing how this debate unnecessarily oversimplifies and distorts philosophical issues, locking devotees to a particular paradigm into unconscious patterns of perception and behavior. For this study, I adopted

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pragmatism as, in line with Creswell and Clark (2007) and Patton (2002), and as such, this study rejects the concept of an adversarial relationship between quantitative and qualitative research, in favor of more of a "dialectical position" (Green and Caracelli, 1997 as cited in Creswell and Clark, 2007). Due to this study's sequential-explanatory design, focusing primarily on quantitative data, this study will incorporate elements of postpositivism (Creswell and Clark, 2007). As such, this study assumes that while an objective reality can be measured and apprehended to some extent, absolute truth cannot be comprehended fully; furthermore, all forms of measurement are fallible, and all researchers are inevitably biased by myriad factors, so therefore certainty when it comes to studying human behavior is impossible (Glesne, 2016; Phillips & Barbules, 2000 as cited in Creswell, 2014). Following principles of postpositivism, this study hopes to explain the situation in question through relevant and accurate statements, and it holds that being as objective as possible is desirable (Creswell, 2014).

This study also adopts aspects of critical quantitative inquiry. Critical quantitative inquiry describes research that uses quantitative methods to explore systemic inequity, whose models, measures, and analytical practices challenge the status quo in the name of equity (Stage & Wells, 2014). My study employs aspects of critical quantitative inquiry because I am asking relevant questions about equality and power, disaggregating my analyses by race and gender, am employing challenging and enriching theories in multiple disciplines, and I am

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ultimately informing and challenging existing intuitional practices and decisions (Rios-Aguilar, 2014).

Finally, as this this a mixed-methods study involving a qualitative phase, it also borrows somewhat from the paradigm of interpretivism because I seek to discover how different people understand the situation at hand; I will allow for a variety of interpretations; I will ask questions and interact with my participants; and my final analysis will be very descriptive (Glesne, 2016).

Quantitative Phase

Quasi-Experimental Design

The quantitative phase attempted to answer H1(On average, male Black and Latino male students in a corequisite English class will report higher levels of faculty validation than those in traditional classes), and H2 (faculty validation will be positively related to the final grade in the course for male Black and Latino students). In order to explore potential correlations between validation, grade, race, gender, and course placement, a quasi-experimental design maked the most sense. This could not be done as a true experiment because of the logistical and ethical impossibility of randomly assigning students to either traditional or co-requisite courses (as this is determined mostly by students' high school GPA). Thus, this classifies the study as quasi-experimental, as it still seeks to assess potentially causal relationships but does not involved randomized groups.

Instrumentation and Data Collection

This study will use an adapted version of the "College Experiences Survey" designed by Barnett (2007, 2011) (see Appendix B). Barnett's (2007) dissertation involved the creation and validation of this instrument because "no previous survey research had been conducted on faculty validation" (Barnett, 2011, p. 217). In June 2019, I contacted Barnett via e-mail to inquire about using the instrument. On June 6th 2019, I spoke with Barnett on the phone, and Barnett granted me permission to use the instrument—as well as to adapt it to better fit my study—provided I include adequate citations to the original work.

Barnett's (2007, 2011) instrument measures faculty validation, intent to persist in college, and academic integration, or "competent membership"—a hybrid of academic self-efficacy and belonging in college. For the intent to persist variable, Barnett's (2007, 2011) instrument has one simple question designed to measure student intentions: ("I am planning on returning to this college for the Fall 2006 semester"). For the academic integration variable, Barnett (2007, 2011) adapted with permission six items from Roeser, Midgley, and Urdan (1996)'s study on the academic self-efficacy of middle schoolers, which achieved an alpha of .76. Barnett (2007, 2011) later included three items developed by Hurtado and Carter (1997) to study Latinx college students' sense of belonging and campus racial climate. Barnett (2007, 2011) explains that the items as used by Hurtado and Carter (1997) achieved a .94 alpha, and were incorporated into Barnett's instrument exactly as they appeared in Hurtado and Carter's (1997) study, only

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adapting them from an eleven-point Likert-type scale to a seven-point Likert-type scale.

To measure the faculty validation variable, Barnett (2007, 2011) could not find an existing scale for the measurement of faculty validation, though Barnett did find a number of instruments measuring faculty-student interaction; however, as Rendon (1994) is explicit in stating that validation involves instructor-initiated action, Barnett chose to create a scale. To create and validate the instrument, Barnett (2007, 2011) explains developing items based on the literature, sending these items for review by national experts in the field, selecting items, and ultimately assessing their performance via multiple measures. Barnett (2007, 2011) describes the process of developing 55 items, sending them to ten experts in the field, and receiving feedback on the instrument from all ten scholars, including both Kuh and Rendon. Barnett (2007, 2011) subsequently chose the best-rated items of the original 55 to settle on 27 items. From there, Barnett (2007, 2011) correlated the results of the instrument with another, more well-established survey, measuring faculty-student interaction (but not validation); the result was a moderate correlation, indicating related scales (in that they were measuring similar items) but ultimate difference in what was being measured. Finally, Barnett (2007, 2011) ran item-to-total-score correlations for all items in the instrument, and there were no items with less than .5. Pope and Muller (2000) suggest reconsidering any items that are not well-correlated (less than.2), so Barnett did not remove any (Barnett, 2011). Kuh (2001) suggests reassessing

any items with a skewness statistic over 1.0; while Barnett had one item slightly

surpass that number (1.04), the item was not removed (Barnett, 2007, 2011).

While this study did not focus on intent to persist or academic integration

specifically, I decided to leave those variables on the adapted instrument in the

nature of consistency in order to change the instrument only insofar as it was

necessary for this study. There are a few changes to the instrument I did make,

however:

1. Any reference to Barnett's research site institution has been replaced

   with a reference to Patterson College.

2. Any reference in Barnett's instrument to college in general has been

   rephrased to reference the student's English course specifically.

3. I have updated Barnett's instrument's language on demographic

   questions to be more inclusive (i.e. adding an "other" option to gender

   and replacing "Latino" with "Latinx").

4. Barnett's (2007) instrument ends with a number of questions to

   determine control variables. I ended my instrument similarly, just with

   different control variables. Barnett (2007) was interested in paternal

   and maternal educational achievement, and I streamlined that question

   as it is not of particular interest to me in this study. Furthermore, I

   added questions on A) Whether the student is enrolled in a section of

   English 100 with a 99 corequisite and whether the student opted into,

   was recommended to, or was required to take the English 99

corequisite course (if applicable). B) Number of tries the student has attempted English 100. C) Whether or not the student is an English language learner. D) Student income level. E) Veteran status. F) Foster youth status. G) What level of math the student has most recently completed.

In addition to the instrument, I analyzed student records after the course concluded to determine their eventual grade in the course. This data is routinely collected by the Dean of Institutional Effectiveness, who provided it to me after the semester was over, with the informed consent of the students (see Appendix E). As in the instrument, all student data was anonymized except for student ID number during the data analysis.

Variables

In addition to the above control variables, the dependent variables of this study were the level of validation reported by students for hypothesis 1, and student grade for hypothesis 2. The independent variables include race, gender, and enrollment in an English 100 or 100 + 99 course. Because this was not an experiment, per se, I did not manipulate any variables. However, the variables for which I attempted to determine the influence were race, gender, and which class the student was taking; therefore, these were my independent variables, whereas the class grade and faculty validation were dependent variables because I am trying to measure how these are influenced by the other variables; finally, for

hypothesis 2, the level of validation becomes an independent, rather than dependent variable. Level of validation was determined by summing the scores on the instrument for the 27 questions directly related to faculty validation, dividing that score by the number of questions answered (to control for skipped questions), and standardizing the scores to Z-scores for simpler analysis; student grade (A-F, or Drop) was be measured based on student data obtained from the office of institutional effectiveness. Race, gender, and class placement were determined by student answers to the control questions.

Procedures

In late October 2019, upon acceptance of my IRB proposal (see Appendix L), the department chair of Patterson College and I sent notification to all English 100 and English 100+99 instructors informing them that they might be asked to participate in my research in early November 2019 (see Appendix C). As part of this notification, the chair and I took great care to explain the purpose of the study, clarifying that this research was not mandatory, nor was it designed to critique their teaching, assess their job performance, or determine their rehire status, assuring participants of the confidentiality of their information. Furthermore, I readily accepted any questions and spoke to several instructors to clarify the specifics of the study. In addition to this initial contact, I also spoke at the English department meeting in November 2019 to explain my research in more detail and answered some questions by attending faculty.

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I then created a spreadsheet of all sections of English 100 and English 99 based on the class schedule from Patterson College. There was a total of 108 sections of English 100, 22 of which were paired with an English 99 corequisite. In the Patterson College catalogue, the courses were numbered 1-108. I placed the section numbers of each course into Random.org's list randomizer. From there, I created a spreadsheet of my availability and I began to schedule classroom visits. Because of the nature of the instrument, measuring student attitudes involving their instructors, I had to ensure that I was the only individual with access to the data. Even though students identified themselves via their student ID number, a professor could feasibly deduce the identity of a student from his or her responses. For this reason, I had to be physically present to administer the survey every time. Therefore, due to the limitations of my schedule (i.e. being two places at once, attending to unavoidable work or school responsibilities, etc.) I had to find a way to visit as many classrooms as possible, but also try to remove myself as much as possible from the class selection process.

Upon randomizing the list, I began to contact instructors to schedule times to visit their classrooms in the order in which they were randomized. This meant that in the inevitable case that multiple classes met at the same time (i.e. Tuesdays and Thursdays from 8:00-10:05AM) I would attempt to visit a randomly selected class vs. choosing among the multiple classes meeting at that time. When it was logistically impossible for me to visit a class, I skipped it in the list. I

did the same if an instructor did not get back to me within a week of my first inquiry, or if an instructor declined to take part in my study. All in all, I visited 63 classrooms between November 8 2019 and December 6 2019 to administer the survey. At Patterson college, the first day of fall instruction was August 27 2019. The window of November 8 – December 6 placed the research after midterm, between weeks 10-15 of the sixteen-week semester.

I understand that this method is not completely random, and considering the quasi-experimental nature of the quantitative phase, that is not incredibly pertinent. I was not able to visit every time slot due to unavoidable responsibilities outside of the research (i.e. work, family, doctoral courses, etc.) during that timeframe, and sometimes last-minute scheduling conflicts affected my ability to visit a certain classroom. But the majority of the variation in the classes I did visit vs. the classes I didn't was from forces beyond my control vs. any intentional influence. It wasn't perfect, but it allowed me to mitigate selection bias and it resulted in a large, diverse sample—both of students and of faculty teaching them, along with the times and days of the week the courses were offered.

When the time came for me to conduct the study, I arrived to class at a predetermined time (pre-arranged with the instructor, typically at the beginning or ending of the class) and administered the survey. I first asked the instructor to leave the classroom. From there, I read from a pre-written script (see Appendix D). Next, I administered copies of the informed consent forms (see Appendix E). I

provided a pencil for any student without a writing utensil. Upon explaining the informed consent form, I gave the students a few moments to read and complete it. From there, after collecting the informed consent forms, I administered the survey. The survey took, on average, approximately twenty minutes for students to fill out. Once the survey was complete, I collected the responses, placed them in a manila envelope, and exited the classroom. While at the research site, physical data was kept on my person, or locked in a filing cabinet to which only I had access. When I left the research site, the data remained on my person, or locked in a filing cabinet in my own home at all times. It was never left unattended in a vehicle. On or by October 17 2022, I will destroy all physical data.

Following the survey, I input all of the data into SPSS for analysis. Once entered into SPSS, student information was identifiable by student ID number alone. After the initial collection of data, and once student information was added to the overall data pool, there was no way for me to identify which professor taught which student. This was done to reinforce the fact that this research is not designed to evaluate specific professors, but rather gather research on the effect of validating / invalidating experiences as a whole. The SPSS files were stored physically on my laptop computer, which is password protected, as well as on my cloud-based storage account, which is also password protected.

<u>Population, Sample, Participants</u>

Because it was the desire of the leadership at Patterson College to understand the shifting landscape of English instruction due to the passage of AB705, I had the blessing of the humanities division, English department, and office of institutional effectiveness to administer the survey to students enrolled in English 100 and English 100+99 during regularly-scheduled class times, as well as each individual instructor. While no instructor was required to allow me to administer the survey, campus leadership helped me get the word out about my research and encourage instructors to participate. My expectation was that the majority of faculty members would allow me to administer the survey, though there were some who did not respond to me, or declined. I visited 63 classrooms out of the total of 108 sections of English 100. There were eleven sections (all standalone) of English 100 that were excluded from the study for logistical reasons (i.e. they were an online-only course, they were short-term courses that had already ended, they met off-campus at a local high school, or unavoidable scheduling conflicts precluded me from visiting the classroom). The remaining 34 sections were not included in the sample because the instructor of the course either never responded to the initial or follow-up inquiry e-mails (most common), or declined to take part in the research (less common).

The total population consisted of every student enrolled in English 100 at Patterson in fall 2019. From institutional data, I know that number was 3,258 across all 108 sections of English 100—2,656 from standalone courses and 602

from corequisite courses. While the class cap at Patterson for English 100 is 30, this is an average of 30.167, indicating a slight over-enrollment, which is unsurprising considering how in-demand English 100 is at Patterson.

While each student in the class (with some exceptions) will be administered the survey, as the target population is Black and Latino men, I know the relevant numbers of these subsets of the population from institutional data. In fall 2019 at Patterson, 936 Latino men took English 100, 757 standalone and 179 corequisite; and 126 Black men took the course, 88 in the standalone, and 38 in the corequisite. Of particular note, the low number of Black men in the population necessitated me visiting as many classes as I could. I planned initially only to visit approximately 25 standalone classrooms and 8 corequisite classrooms. I ended up visiting 44 standalone classes and 19 corequisite classes. Despite my efforts, I found that a small sample size did impact my ability to make meaningful analyses of Black male students in particular.

My final sample of 1044 students total included 38 Black male students (18 standalone, 20 corequisite), and 241 Latino male students (184 standalone; 57 corequisite). Some factors influencing the sample were as follows: 1. Students under the age of eighteen were excluded from the study; a small subset of the population was under the age of eighteen. 2. Students who did not wish to fill out the survey and/or the informed consent form were not included in the sample. While most students filled the survey out, a small number chose not to. 3. Students who were absent or late on the day of class that the survey was

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administered were also excluded. 4. Students who had already dropped the course by the time the survey was administered were also excluded, as the survey was administered between the tenth and fifteenth week of the sixteen-week semester. While I hoped to get enough respondents to equal approximately half of the population, my final number of 1044 was a little less than one third—all things considered, a sizable number.

Data Analysis

Upon completing the quantitative portion of the study, I entered the student data from the collected surveys into SPSS to run quantitative analysis. To test H1, I employed independent sample t-tests to compare the means of different subgroups within my sample, and then measure the significance of the differences. For Hypothesis 1, "On average, Black and Latino male students in a corequisite English class will report higher levels of faculty validation than those in Standalone classes," I compared the means of all students in both classes, running a t-test to determine whether the differences between corequisite and standalone models were significant. Then I disaggregated my data by race and gender to see, specifically, if the differences in FVZ were significant between the standalone and corequisite course models.

To further test Hypothesis 1, "On average, Black and Latino male students in a corequisite English class will report higher levels of faculty validation than those in Standalone classes," I used Multiple Linear Regression to determine how much course type predicted FVZ compared to other variables. Cohen and

Cohen (1983) state that multiple regression is "a very flexible data-analytic system that may be used whenever a quantitative variable (the dependent variable) is to be studied as a function of, or in relationship to, any factors of interest (expressed as independent variables)" (as cited in Barnett, 2007, p. 92).

For Hypothesis 2 (H2), "faculty validation will be positively related to the final grade in the course for male Black and Latino students in both standalone and corequisite course models," I first used ANOVA to compare means of FVZ between different groups who received different grades—high pass (A/B), pass (C), and no pass (D, F, I, W).

To further test H2, I employed ordinal logistic regression (OLR). The main reason I chose OLR is because the dependent variable for H2 was ordinal in nature, and multiple linear regression was only suitable for continuous variables (Muijs, 2011). Unlike the Likert-type data from H1, the dependent variable for H2, course grade, had only three levels (high pass, pass, and no pass) and therefore could not meaningfully approximate a continuous variable. Had I been able to access student letter grades on a continuous scale (i.e. 0-100%) I could have used MLR for this part of my analysis. However, I used OLR because I was only able to access student letter grades (A, B, C, D, or F/I/W). For the purposes of this data analysis, I employed OLR, specifically using the polytomous universal model (PLUM), as it considered the probability of an event and all events that are ordered before it (Muijs, 2011).

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Qualitative Phase

Research Design - Phenomenology

For the second, qualitative phase, my research took the form of phenomenology, as I sought to understand the personal lived experiences of a small number of Black and Latino men as they made sense of their experiences with faculty validation in first-year composition in community college (Shinebourne, 2011). As such, I was interested in discovering potential patterns, similarities, and differences among my participants (Glesne, 2016). But overall, my work was phenomenological in nature as I desired to understand each participant's experience with the shared phenomenon of faculty validation "in its own terms" (Smith, Flowers, & Larkin, 2009, p. 1).

Data Collection

The means for collecting data in this study was a series of semi-structured interviews (see Appendix F). I chose this method of data collection because I wanted to be able to re-form and rearrange my questions throughout the research process, and to be able to ask a follow-up question when I felt it was needed (Glesne, 2016). The choice of semi-structured interviews over, say, conversational interviews arose from my desire to inquire about specific aspects of students' lived experiences with faculty validation (Glesne, 2016). However, my desire to hear students' experiences on their own terms led me away from a fully structured interview (Glesne, 2016). I briefly considered conducting focus groups as a means to hear if participants would respond to one another, perhaps

being emboldened to talk by the presence of other participants (Glesne, 2016).

However, as I wanted students to feel comfortable talking about potentially

sensitive issues such as their grade in the class and their relationship with the

instructor, I decided it was wise to keep the interviews one-on-one.

<u>Participant Selection and Sample Size</u>

Smith, Flowers, and Larkin (2009) suggest that for phenomenological

research, a small sample size (between three and six participants) is desirable,

as this provides enough points of comparison to make meaningful connections

when it comes to similarities and differences between participants, but for

doctoral work, they advocate for a sample size as large as eight depending on

the research question. Considering my goal was to understand experiences from

a variety of groups within my population, my goal was to interview at least eight,

but perhaps up to twenty-four students.

The sampling method I employed in this study was a combination between

purposeful or maximum variation sampling and snowball sampling. For the

purposeful side of my sampling, I was interested in understanding the

experiences of students from a variety of subgroups. I initially wanted to interview

at least four, but no more than five students from a traditional English 100 class,

and the rest from an English 100 class with an English 99 corequisite.

Furthermore, as I was focusing on both male Black and Latino students, I wanted

to interview at least four Black male students, preferably from both courses, even

though I recognized that demographically they are a much smaller contingent at

my research site than their Latino counterparts. Furthermore, I wanted to interview students who earned a variety of grades in their courses, with at least two students who did not pass their courses—at least one in traditional English 100 and one in English 100+99. Finally, I preferred that no more than two students came from the same class section, or shared the same professor. The final makeup of interview participants hinged on who volunteered for the study.

I first recruited participants as part of the quantitative phase, including an invitation to participate in the qualitative phase on the back of the quantitative instrument (See Appendix A). This is a form of purposeful sampling, as I intended on including follow-up interviews from the quantitative sample for the purpose of explaining the quantitative findings (Saldaña, 2016). In addition to this purposeful sampling, I employed snowball sampling to get in touch with additional students who met my research criteria (Black and/or Latino men at Patterson who took English 100 and/or 99 since the passage of AB 705) (Glesne, 2016). I sent a letter to faculty and staff in Patterson's Latino Student Engagement Center and Black Student Engagement Center (see Appendix I). as well as to Patterson's English faculty (see Appendix J) asking them for their help in recruiting interview subjects. From there, I provided them with another letter (see Appendix K) for them to send to potential interested students, explaining the purpose of my study and calling for volunteers. As part of all communication, I incentivized students by agreeing to complete the interview a time that was convenient to them, along with providing them with a $20 gift card to a local restaurant or retailer of their

choice, upon completion of the interview and related activities.

While the quantitative portion of the study proceeded largely as planned, global events impacted the qualitative phase of the study substantially. Interviews were planned for mid-March, 2020. My initial correspondence (See Appendix H) to the students who had given me their information to be contacted for a follow-up interview during the quantitative phase went out on February 28. Over 70 students gave me their follow-up information. I arranged for a room at the research site to conduct interviews, and I completed one interview, in person, on March 11. But by March 12, the research site ceased all face-to-face activities completely due to Covid-19. I followed up with several students to reschedule our interviews via video chat or telephone. By the end of March, I had only completed five interviews. In early April, I sent another round of correspondence (with identical messaging), asking students to participate in interviews, and I was able to complete a sixth interview. While I expected a low rate of return, I believe that the transition from face-to-face instruction to online, along with the myriad complications of the Covid-19 pandemic led to a decreased ability to conduct more interviews.

At this point, I knew that I was unlikely to gather more interviews as my study was initially designed. I was then able to amend the study with the Institutional Review Board to recruit students using faculty and staff. From there, I reached out to the faculty and staff of the Black student engagement center, and the Latinx student engagement center on campus for advice on recruiting

more students, along with assistance in spreading the word. The faculty and staff

shared similar concerns about their male students of color. In one

correspondence, a faculty member stated, "Thank you for reaching out. We are

having the same problem with getting students to respond. Some are very

depressed, stressed, disinterested, uninterested and the list goes on and on.

This pandemic has really put those who were already at risk more at risk"

(Personal communication), and another explained, "reaching students has been

quite challenging in this situation. I've been working with the [Black student

engagement center] counselor and ed-advisor to locate students that have

disappeared since the switch to online" (Personal communication). After I

reached out to the faculty and staff at the cultural engagement centers, I asked

the English faculty via e-mail to spread the word. A common sentiment amongst

the faculty and staff I spoke to was the overwhelming impact of the Covid-19

pandemic, and later, the killing of George Floyd and the subsequent protests in

response. Many students were overwhelmed, dropping out, or simply

disappearing from college altogether. Despite these difficulties in recruiting

participants, I was able to interview three more students in May and June, putting

my total to nine interviews.

Data Analysis

The data in this study bults off of the theoretical framework of validation

developed by Rendon (1994). While recognizing that student engagement is

associated with satisfaction with education and persistence, Rendon (1994)

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critiqued how student engagement was often seen as "something that students are expected to do on their own" (p. 43) while the institution itself remains passive. The flaw in this conception, Rendon (1994) explains, is that the primary transformative agent in student lives often occurs when members of the institution reach out to affirm and support them. Considering the aversion of some students, particularly men of color, to seek help or reach out to make connections (Bukoski & Hatch, 2016; Cabrera, et al., 2016; Harris & Harper, 2008; Saenz, et al., 2013), it would make sense that when institutional agents made the first move, it would be more effective at serving men of color. Rendon (1994) explains that validation comprises in-class and out-of-class agents fostering both academic and interpersonal development, showing students they are capable of learning, not crippled or mistrusted. According to Rendon (1994), while out-of-class validating agents can be friends, relatives, or romantic partners, in-class validating agents include faculty or staff at the institution. Furthermore, Rendon (1994) explains validation is a process, not an end in and of itself, and one that must be initiated by the institutional agent, ideally early in a student's academic career for best effect. For this particular study, I adopted Rendon's framework, focusing specifically on faculty members as validating agents.

Because this study worked from an established theoretical framework, I began by using provisional coding, with a preconceived set of items derived from the theoretical framework (Saldaña, 2016). As Saldaña (2016) cautions, I had to

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be careful not to distort my study to fit the preconceived notions of what I expect to find. In this research process, I expected to reconsider and change my initial provisional codes to better match my actual data (Saldaña, 2016). In the final result, I did not adjust the provisional codes related to faculty validation; I did, however, add additional codes to process student demographic information and student data that was unrelated to faculty validation. For faculty validation, I developed the following eight provisional codes by which I could classify students' responses about their instructors' validating behaviors:

Faculty demonstrating genuine concern for students

Faculty being approachable and/or friendly

Faculty individualizing instruction

Faculty affirming students' identities

Faculty having high expectations

Faculty offering encouragement and/or praise

Faculty offering clear feedback and support

Faculty interacting with students out of class

I also used a negative image of these eight codes in the form of eight invalidating behaviors demonstrated by instructors:

Faculty demonstrating indifference or contempt for students

Faculty being unapproachable or standoffish

Faculty failing to individualize instruction

Faculty being indifferent or hostile to student identities

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Faculty having low expectations or "dumbing down" material

Faculty offering discouragement or shame

Faculty offering little or unclear feedback and support

Faculty being unavailable outside of class

These codes were derived from a list of validating behaviors highlighted in a synthesis of Rendon's work (Rendon, 1994; Rendon, Jalomo & Nora, 2000; Rendon & Jalomo, 1995; Rendon & Garza, 1996; Rendon, 2002 as cited by Barnett, 2007). As I already had a notion of what validation can look like, my biggest curiosity in my research was which of these validating behaviors would be reported by students most often, or most saliently, and furthermore, what specific experiences reported by students might illustrate these broader categories. As such, I also wanted to know which specific invalidating professor behaviors that students would report.

Following the initial round of provisional coding, I applied a secondary cycle of focused coding. Focused coding "searches for the most frequent or significant codes to develop the most salient categories in the data corpus" (Saldaña, 2016), and as such, I used it to organize my participants' responses to determine the most salient validating or invalidating factors reported by students to present clear themes through which I analyzed and interpreted the data.

Trustworthiness

My study employed the following strategies to establish trustworthiness. First, my study was 100% confidential, and I used pseudonyms for all of my

participants, as well as for all potentially identifying factors in the study, including but not limited to the real name or location of the study site, as well as the names and numbers of the courses offered at the school. In the preceding procedures section, I listed a number of ways I kept student information confidential and divorced from any instructor information. While I could not guarantee anonymity to either students or professors, I could guarantee confidentiality, and that singling out professors for their specific validating or invalidating behaviors would not feature in my research. Furthermore, I used pseudonyms for all students and professors. Even in this chapter, any time specific information has been mentioned, it has been with pseudonyms.

The next step toward trustworthiness I used is working closely with department leadership at my research site, specifically when it comes to messaging when it comes to the research. Considering the sensitive nature of the research, I knew faculty were bound to be unconformtable or fearful that my research would be an evaluation of their teaching, especially when I relied on them to administer the instrument and for help in recruiting interviewees. Department leadership's help in accurately communicating the purpose and confidentiality of this study (see Appendices C and I) was of great help in this process.

From there, the next step in achieving trustworthiness was a comprehensive examination of my positionality and subjectivity, including my biases. This is included at the end of this chapter. My next form of

trustworthiness came in the form of triangulation, particularly the use of more than one kind of respondent (Glesne, 2016). By using purposeful and snowball sampling, I was able to interview a diverse pool of students, not just ethnically, but also in terms of academic background and performance. Beyond these steps, I engaged in member checking, giving each interviewee a chance to review their transcript and make corrections or ask that certain information be omitted from my analysis. Additionally, I was sure to include negative cases, or data that did not fall in line with the overall themes and conclusions, as I am committed to following the data where they lead. Furthermore, I attempted to imbue all my analyses with rich, thick description, as my goal was to clearly report my participants' experiences as accurately and authentically as possible. Finally, as this study was part of my overall dissertation, I engaged in an extensive peer review and debriefing process with my dissertation chair and dissertation committee.

Limitations

I have identified the following limitations as part of my study. For the quantitative phase, the first limitation I recognize is the non-random nature of both my research design and my sampling. Ideally, to learn how much the structural course design affects the relational components, I would have to isolate the course design as the only changing variable. However, that is logistically impossible due to the multitude of reasons students take each course and the inherent differences in history of academic performance (i.e. high school

GPA). Additionally, as I could not be several places at once to administer the survey (i.e. classes that met at the same time, classes that met while I was performing other unavoidable responsibilities), nor could I guarantee that every instructor I contacted about administering the survey would allow me to, my sampling method was non-random and somewhat self-selecting.

Finally, as this was a single test survey, I was not able to definitively measure how a student's experience in the class changed as a result of the validation experienced or not experienced from the specific instructor over time. For instance, I could have measured validation once at week three or four and again at week eleven or twelve, and it might have provided me a picture of the evolution of a student's experience in relation to validation.

For both phases, a limitation came in the form of assistance from the department leadership. While involving department leadership helped get the word out and add legitimacy to my work, it is also probable that the involvement of department leadership might have the opposite of the intended consequence of increasing my trustworthiness, making faculty members—particularly contingent faculty members—hesitant to help in the research. In their correspondence with me, some faculty members seemed very hesitant to open up their teaching to scrutiny from any outsider. Some faculty members— particularly part-time faculty members—seemed anxious that my survey included questions about them (despite the fact that I explained my research to them ahead of time) (See Appendix C). The involvement of the leadership might have

led faculty to be hesitant to participate, or potentially worse, feel coerced into participation. The best I was able to do was to clarify my message as best I could: that my research had absolutely no bearing on their employment, rehire status, or standing in the department, and that I would keep absolutely all information confidential, including from department leadership. However, while I tried to be as clear and transparent about my procedures as possible, I could not guarantee faculty would take my word for it.

For the qualitative phase, my biggest limitation was the matter of who responded to my call for participants. While over 70 Black and/or Latino men gave me their follow-up information for the interview, I was only able to complete nine interviews. Furthermore, the aforementioned complications of the Covid-19 lockdown during my qualitative research phase had an unpredictable and immeasurable impact on my ability to conduct interviews with students. I will never know how much Covid-19 impacted my study.

Furthermore, while I had a good idea of the kinds of students I would like to interview (Black students, Latino students, students from the standalone course, students from the corequisite course, and students who both passed and failed the course), I was at the mercy of whoever responded to my invitation. While I hoped to recruit at least eight participants, I was not able to recruit students who fit my desired criteria exactly. For instance, I hoped to interview more than two Black students, and to interview a student who failed the standalone course, but I was unable in both cases.

Another limitation for both phases is that while some students are required to take English 99, other students may take it as well for any number of reasons: it might have worked better in their schedule, they might have gravitated to a particular instructor, or they might have lacked confidence in their writing ability, so they opted for the extra support. This was a wildcard variable that will was hard for account for, but might have affect students' experiences nonetheless. For instance, one of the corequisite students I interviewed took the course solely because it fit his schedule.

Alternatively, students in English 99 are more likely to struggle academically, as it is the students with low GPAs who are required to take the course. Therefore, when examining the differences between students in English 99 and students in a traditional English 100, it was hard to tell what differences might result from the course design, placement, and professor, and what might be a result of other factors that might affect their experiences.

Delimitations

Some key delimitations in my study are as follows. First, I focused on the experiences of students, rather than instructors. Student perception of what constitutes a validating experience might differ dramatically from what a professor considers validating. The faculty perspective is a valuable one, but for the purpose of this study, I limited myself specifically to the student experiences.

Furthermore, I focused specifically on English, rather than math, or any other discipline. While AB 705 affects both English and math, and it will likely

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have ripple effects across the disciplines, this particular study focused on English. Next, this study focused specifically on two-year colleges, whereas AB 705 also has ramifications at the four-year level.

Another delimitation of my study is that it focused on men of color vs. all students. This decision is largely based on the fact that at Patterson College, equity gaps are often widest for men of color vs. any other racial or gender group. Finally, while not all men of color are Black or Latino, my study focused specifically on these two subgroups of men of color, as the population of those two groups at Patterson College were large enough to yield meaningful quantitative data for analysis.

Finally, in the qualitative phase of the study, I did not include any white-only students, or women in my sample for comparison's sake. While some would argue that interviewing white or female students would be necessary to meaningfully analyze Black and Latino men's lived experiences, Stanley (2007) holds that doing so is ultimately unnecessary in order to understand the experiences of the students I was studying.

Researcher as Instrument Statement

As I embarked on research, I realized the importance of taking inventory of the various ways my personal experience and identity might interact with the research I conducted. While the following areas are not the only ways my subjectivity might affect my research, they are the most likely.

First and foremost, I am an English professor. My research is investigated

the role and practices of English professors in the success of their students. As I measured faculty validation, I came with a strong andragogical bias that such validation is important. My research put me in some awkward positions with regard to how I saw my own practices reflected or not. In my research, I saw or heard of classroom practices I disagreed with vehemently on an andragogical level. Some of the professors in my study were great teachers I know I could learn from. At times, I felt defensive of some of the practices in my own courses when I heard students describe their frustrations with professors. At other times, I felt like my own methods and andragogy were superior to those I witnessed or heard described by students. These were vital factors to keep in mind. And I had to guard against such andragogical biases from clouding the results of my research.

However, my role as an English professor also provided some benefits. I have been in the shoes of an English professor. I know what it's like to try to engage students and to desperately want them to succeed. This gave me insight into which questions to ask—be those quantitatively or qualitatively—and that aspect of my subjectivity was an asset.

Adjusting to a large legislative change like AB 705 can things difficult for English teachers, as AB 705 and its related changes and educational theories have drastically altered the way we teach English. Many of us have felt self-conscious about the assertion that the "old way" of doing things—the teaching practices we have developed over years and sometimes decades—is somehow

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deficient, or worse, has harmed our students. And yet I measured faculty validation in teachers' classrooms. With recent California budgetary changes, part of community college funding is now tied to student success and equity (CCCCO, 2018). It is easy to see how this makes some faculty uneasy. Perhaps they would be found out as impeding student success now that the goal posts have shifted? This is particularly worrisome for contingent part-time faculty members whose job security is precarious already (Hsu, 2019). The last thing they needed was to have an outsider examining issues of validation and equity in their classes.

While I am familiar with the insecurity of being an adjunct faculty member, it has been quite some time since I had to brave the same multiple freeways that they must drive every week. Furthermore, while I am also anxious about changing my methods to adapt to AB705, my andragogical training requires a much smaller adjustment than some of the more senior faculty members, some of whom are twice my age and have been teaching since before I was alive. To help combat these issues, I made every effort I could to try to frame and explain my study to the faculty to help with buy-in—that my role was a friend and an asset to help, not critique any individual professor's teaching. I also went to great lengths to ensure confidentiality and to assure my participants—full-time, part-time, tenured, or untenured—that I would not reveal the data I collected to anyone, and that they need not feel pressured into participating in my study.

The next identity I needed to take stock of as I conducted my research on

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AB705 was the fact that I am what is called, in California community college circles, a "honey badger." The California Acceleration Project, a group of California two-year college educational reformers, and one of the largest driving forces behind the passage of AB705, has been perhaps the most profound shaper of my educational philosophy. Since its founding in 2010, CAP has dedicated itself to developmental educational reform, and since my time in graduate school, I have been privy to the development of their reform practices, many of which have directly shaped my own philosophy and practices (3CSN, 2012). As an inside joke and marker of pride, CAP has referred to its members— often facing large bureaucratic obstacles to their goals of reforms—as "honey badgers," a feisty mammal native to Africa and Asia, known for their toughness— even in the face of cobra bites—and immortalized in a popular internet meme (3CSN, 2012). Much of CAP culture has consisted of conferences, workshops, and social media pages devoted to "honey badgers" encouraging one another and regaling each other of victories and setbacks against "cobras" (their name for slow bureaucratic processes or any educational forces opposed to CAP). As a card-carrying honey badger, one who has attended several CAP events and even had dinner and drinks with the founders of CAP, I had a vested interest in AB705 "working." This is a reform that we fought for. In my own department, I often ensured I got into the meeting minutes by proposing or seconding some of our most impactful AB705-related votes like eliminating remedial courses from our catalogue or adopting our new AB705-compliant coursework. I believe in

AB705, its mission, and its theoretical underpinnings. This is not a blind belief, and I know the adjustment will be hard, but I ultimately think it will be a net positive. Part of that belief is grounded on the data-driven foundation of these changes—including the data of my study. But now I realize that I was part of the research conversation, and I could have easily been swept away in the revolutionary fervor of the honey badger. It was possible that I would not like the results of my research. This was a contingency I had to prepare for, and I had to dedicate myself to following the research wherever it led, not to where I hoped it would lead.

Another identity intrinsically tied to my research is my identity as a man. As my research focused on the experiences of men, I share much in common with my participants. Harris and Harper (2008) describe male gender role conflict (MGRC) as "an empirically grounded phenomenon that helps to make sense of the gender and identity-related challenges with which college men must content" (p. 29). MGRC occurs when a man sees himself as failing to live up to his culturally-shaped image of masculinity. Some of the phenomena associated with MGRC include a fear of being perceived as feminine, a drive for competitive achievement, a fear of failure, a reluctance to ask for help, an over-developed sense of responsibility and conception as a bread winner, and the view of academics as a feminine domain (Harris & Harper, 2008). While sometimes individuals from different racial and ethnic backgrounds experience MGRC differently, for all races, experiencing MGRC in academia is "more common than

atypical, which makes understanding the unique issues and gendered experiences of college men urgently important" (Harris & Harper, 2008, p. 33). While I am no longer a man in community college as a student, I once was. And even as a professor, I experience MGRC, constantly—consciously or subconsciously—comparing myself to my preconceptions of what I believe a man is supposed to be and how he is supposed to act. I believe that this part of my identity was at times an asset to me as it allowed me to identify with my participants' experiences in meaningful ways.

Finally, one of the most important positionalities in my study is its focus on equity. Simply put, I am white, and I primarily studied students of color. As a member of the majority group in the U.S., I have no conception of the experiences of minorities. As much as I can learn from listening to, speaking with, and reading about people of color, I will never be one. I will never experience their experiences firsthand. While each individual is different, race and racism are salient factors in American society, influencing a number of our experiences. This brought along a host of complications and anxieties to my research on men of color. On one hand, men of color have statistically wider equity gaps than their white counterparts. On the other hand, I did not want to view—or be perceived as viewing—men of color as a "problem" that needs fixing, or somehow deficient. On one hand, I wanted to be an ally and advocate for men of color and equity. On the other hand, I did not want to be—or be perceived as being—a "white savior" who was attempting to rescue men of color as if they

were incapable of rescuing themselves. In my experience navigating this racial minefield, it often felt like there was no correct move.

It reminded me of Steele's (2011) concept of stereotype threat. Steele describes the experience of the only white student in a course on African American politics, stating, "he often worried about proving himself academically at this university. But in this class, he knew he had to prove himself in another way—as a good person, as an ally of the cause, as a nonracist white person" (p. 86). Steele further explains the documentable psychological and physiological effects this had on the student due to this persistent anxiety. This double "proving" is one that I experienced all throughout the research process. Not only did I need to prove myself as a good scholar or researcher or teacher, but I also felt like my character was on the line, and I was guilty until proven innocent of being a racist in the eyes of my students, classmates, and colleagues of color—and even my dissertation committee. I approached the topic of men of color and equity gaps because I cared about students and wanted to help, but I was terrified of being accused of racism in the process.

At the same time, while I experienced stereotype threat as a researcher, I know from Steele (2011) that students experienced it as well. This is also an important aspect of my research because it is quite possible that my research triggered stereotype threat and resentment in the participants. The fact that I focused on male students of color might have reinforced the stereotype that they have often internalized, consciously or unconsciously, that they are unintelligent,

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cannot perform academically, or do not belong in college (Harris & Harper, 2008; Steele, 2011). These simultaneous anxieties likely fuel each other, and they ran the risk of affecting the research in unproductive ways. I worry that due to my own stereotype threat, I failed to ask pertinent questions for fear of how others would perceive me. On the other hand, I worried that my actions might have come off as condescending or patronizing and alienated me from the very people I wanted to help. My best strategy for reconciling this racial anxiety was to be aware of it. Furthermore, I worked closely with colleagues and committee members of color to help guide my research. As a white man, I do not know what I do not know, and I was reliant on the experiences of people of color to help me develop my demeanor and messaging when it comes to my research to minimize inevitable racial tension, anxiety, and stereotype threat.

While this list of my subjectivities is not exhaustive, it is a start. And while these subjectivities might not all have directly influenced my research, it is important that I am cognizant of their potential effects—positively or negatively—on my research.

Summary

In this chapter, I clearly defined the problem I responded to in this sequential-explanatory study, detailing in full the methods, research paradigms, and procedures I followed as I moved to the data analysis phase in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

Quantitative Phase

Sample of Classes Visited

Patterson College offered a total of 108 sections of English 100 in the fall 2019 semester. Of those 108 sections, I visited 63 classes to administer the instrument. There were eleven sections (all standalone) of English 100 that were excluded from the study for logistical reasons (i.e. they were an online-only course, they met off-campus at a local high school, or unavoidable scheduling conflicts precluded the researcher from visiting the classroom). The remaining 34 sections were not included in the sample because the instructor of the course either never responded to the initial or follow-up inquiry e-mails, or declined to take part in the research.

Table 1. Profile of Courses at Patterson vs. Courses Visited

	Courses Offered				Courses Visited		
Standalone	Full-Time	Part-Time	Total	Standalone	Full-Time	Part-Time	Total
Faculty Time Status	30	56	86	Faculty Time Status	18	26	44
Corequisite	Full-Time	Part-Time	Total	Corequisite	Full-Time	Part-Time	Total
Faculty Time Status	10	12	22	Faculty Time Status	9	10	19
Combined	Full-Time	Part-Time	Total	Combined	Full-Time	Part-Time	Total
Faculty Time Status	40	68	108	Faculty Time Status	27	36	63

Sample of Students

In the 63 classes I visited, I surveyed a total of 1044 students. Of these 1044, 1028 clearly answered the demographic questions about sex and race. The vast majority of students circled just one gender and one race. One complication I ran into, however, was the classification of race for multiracial students. For the purposes of data sorting, the survey instrument asked "What is your racial/ethnic background? (mark the one best response)." Despite this wording, many students who identified as members of multiple races circled multiple options.

This ultimately reflected a design flaw in the survey, but also led me to an unnecessary complication in my data entry process. In hindsight, this question on the instrument should not have attempted to force students into one answer, and in future studies, the instruments should be adjusted accordingly. Furthermore, for data-entry purposes, I should have created a series of binary dummy variables for different racial categories, which would have allowed me to sort students into the multiple racial groups with which they identified. This would have given me maximum freedom in the way I analyzed the data, more-or-less double-counting the handful of students who identified as multiracial, where necessary, for more precise data analysis.

Yet despite these flaws in the instrumentation and data entry, the imperfect method of racial classification I employed does have real-world practical value, supported by mainstream social science research. The history of

racial classification is an ugly one; but for research into the ways human experiences might be affected by perception of race, not just self-perception, it is also a necessary one. While the "one drop" rule of racial classification and its racist, pseudo-scientific origins no longer have legal baring, research into the perception of multiracial individuals has shown that shown that hypodescent is very much alive socially (Ho, Sidanius, Levin, & Banaji, 2011). Popular culture examples abound of multiracial individuals being perceived as their more marginalized identities like Tiger Woods or Barack Obama, who are both popularly considered "Black" despite their multiracial heritage. Ho, et al., (2011) found that individuals consistently associate multiracial individuals with their more marginalized identity groups; furthermore, Sanchez, Good, and Chavez (2011) found that subjects similarly associated multiracial individuals with their lower-status identity, which even affected willingness to distribute resources (like affirmative action) to biracial individuals. This role of perception compounds with academia's position of whiteness and pattern of implicit and explicit discrimination and antiblackness, even at Hispanic-Serving Institutions like Patterson (Abrica, Garcia-Louis, & Gallaway, 2019). Therefore, for data entry purposes, I classified multiracial students according to how they would likely be perceived (Ho, et al., 2011). For white students, I only sorted them as white if it was the only race they identified; therefore, if multiracial white students selected multiple races, I sorted them with the non-white racial group with which they identified, as this is likely where U.S. society (and their instructors) would likely

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classify them (Ho, et. al., 2011).

If multiracial students included Black/African American as one of their multiple races, I sorted them as Black. I did this because my central hypotheses surrounded male Black and Latino students, and I wanted to ensure every student who identified as Black or African American was sorted as such, as they are not only more likely to be perceived as such by the institution, but also experience antiblackness (Abrica, et al., 2019; Ho, et al., 2011). Furthermore, as a practical matter, Black students represented a much smaller proportion of students at Patterson College, so I wanted to ensure the sample size was as large as possible given the population.

Similarly, for multiracial Hispanic/Latinx students, if they included Hispanic/Latinx as one of their multiple races, I sorted them as Hispanic/Latinx— unless their additional race(s) included Black/African American, in which case I sorted them as Black, for the reasons listed above, as Afro-Latino individuals are more likely to be perceived as Black in U.S. society (Ho, et al., 2011). The only instances where I violated the principles of Ho, et al. (2011) were with a handful of multiracial American Indian or Alaskan Native students, who also identified as Hispanic/Latinx. In these rare cases, I sorted them as Latinx because even though indigenous individuals are frequently more marginalized than Hispanic/Latinx individuals, according to Ho, et al. (2011), they make up such a small percentage of Patterson's population, that I did not study them specifically as a demographic. Therefore, I classified them as Hispanic/Latinx, so I could

include them in the rest of my analyses. As my hypotheses concerned male

Black and Latino students, I determined this would be the most appropriate way

to sort multiracial students given my hypotheses. While under this admittedly

imprecise system, a handful of Afro-Latino students were sorted as Black and not

Latinx, the foundations of Ho, et al. (2011) and Abrica et al. (2019) lead me to

believe this was theoretically in addition to pragmatically sound for the purposes

of the study.

Table 2 disaggregates the sample by race, sex, and course model:

Table 2. Students Sampled by Race, Gender, and Course Model

Race			Class Type		
			Standalone	Corequisite	Total
White Only	Sex	Male	60	16	76
		Female	82	17	99
		Other	1	0	1
	Total		143	33	176
Black/AA	Sex	Male	18	20	38
		Female	36	13	49
	Total		54	33	87
Hispanic/Latinx	Sex	Male	184	57	241
		Female	300	120	420
		Other	4	1	5
	Total		488	178	666
Asian or Pacific Islander	Sex	Male	25	5	30
		Female	30	4	34
	Total		55	9	64
American Indian or Alaskan Native	Sex	Male	3	1	4
		Female	9	2	11
	Total		12	3	15
Other	Sex	Male	6	2	8
		Female	9	3	12
	Total		15	5	20
Total	Sex	Male	296	101	397
		Female	466	159	625
		Other	5	1	6
	Total		767	261	1028

There are several noteworthy observations about Table 2. First, the demographics of the sample more or less match the demographics of Patterson College as a whole, with approximately a 65% Latinx population, and an approximately 8.5% Black population, as well as a 39% male population and a 61% female population. Next, as predicted, both Black and Latinx students are overrepresented in corequisite courses compared to their White and Asian counterparts, just as they have been typically overrepresented in remedial and developmental classes nationwide. Surprisingly, men were not significantly overrepresented in corequisite classes, with both men and women being equally represented in corequisite classes at about 25%, and Latina women actually being more over-represented than their Latino counterparts (24% for Latino men, and 29% for Latina women). The drastic exception to this rule would be Black men, 53% of whom sampled were in the corequisite, rather than stand-alone version of the course.

Statistical Formulae Utilized

For Hypothesis 1 (H1), "On average, male Black and Latino students in a corequisite English class will report higher levels of faculty validation than those in standalone classes," I began by creating a composite variable from the mean response of students to 27 Likert-type questions used to measure faculty validation. I then converted this variable (FVMean) into z-scores to be more manageable, and also to identify outliers. I call this variable FVZ. From there, I excluded the outliers from the sample.

Descriptive Statistics and Independent Sample T-Tests. To test H1, I employed independent sample t-tests to compare the means of different subgroups within my sample, and then measure the significance of the differences. For Hypothesis 1, "On average, male Black and Latino students in a corequisite English class will report higher levels of faculty validation than those in Standalone classes," I first compared the means of all students in both classes, running a t-test to determine whether the differences between corequisite and standalone models were significant. Then I disaggregated my data by race and gender to see, specifically, if the differences in FVZ were significant between the standalone and corequisite course models.

Multiple Linear Regression. To further test Hypothesis 1, "On average, male Black and Latino students in a corequisite English class will report higher levels of faculty validation than those in Standalone classes," I used multiple linear regression to determine how much course type predicted FVZ compared to other variables.

ANOVA. For Hypothesis 2 (H2), "faculty validation will be positively related to the final grade in the course for male Black and Latino students in both standalone and corequisite course models," I first used ANOVA to compare means of FVZ between different groups who received different grades—high pass (A/B), pass (C), and no pass (D, F, I, W).

Ordinal Logistic Regression. To further test H2, I employed ordinal logistic regression (OLR). The main reason I chose OLR is because the dependent

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variable for H2 was ordinal in nature, and multiple linear regression is only suitable for continuous variables (Muijs, 2011). Unlike the Likert-type data from H1, the dependent variable for H2, course grade, has only three levels (high pass, pass, and no pass) and therefore could not meaningfully approximate a continuous variable. Had I been able to access student letter grades on a continuous scale (i.e. 0-100%) I could have used MLR for this part of my analysis. However, I needed to use OLR because I was only able to access student letter grades (A, B, C, D, or F/I/W). For the purposes of this data analysis. I employed OLR, specifically using the polytomous universal model (PLUM), as it considers the probability of an event and all events that are ordered before it (Muijs, 2011).

Interpreting Pseudo R^2. As my analysis for H2 used OLR, it is impossible to generate an R^2 value, unlike the MLR I used for H1. Instead, I report a series of pseudo-R^2s, which are on a similar scale to R^2 with higher values indicating better model fit. The interpretation of pseudo-R^2 controversial, and Hosmer and Lemeshow (2013) even advise researchers against reporting the values at all due to the their misleading seeming-similarities to R^2 despite key differences, including a tendency to be lower: "Unfortunately low R2 values in logistic regression are the norm, and this presents a problem when reporting their values to an audience accustomed to seeing linear regression values" (p. 185). For this reason, I will be reporting both Cox and Snell's and McFadden's pseudo-R^2 for completeness's sake, but I will not be ascribing much weight to

the values.

       <u>Calculating Faculty Validation Mean (FVMean)</u>. To consolidate students'

responses on myriad questions on the instrument into one manageable number,

I used Barnett's (2007) original instructions from the instrument's development

to isolate the specific questions designed to measure faculty validation. In total,

there were 27 questions of the 39-question instrument designed specifically to

measure faculty validation. Table 3 lists them.

Table 3. Instrument Items Measuring Faculty Validation

<table>
<tr><td>

1. My instructor has helped me to believe in myself
2. I feel accepted as a person by my instructor
3. My instructor has talked with me about my personal goals at this college
4. My instructor seems to genuinely care how I am doing
5. My instructor understands that students come from different backgrounds
6. My instructor is interested in what I have to offer in class
7. I am encouraged by my instructor to openly share my views in class
8. My instructor shows that he or she believes in my ability to do the class work
9. My instructor knows who I am
10. My instructor is willing to take as long as needed to help me understand the class material
11. I feel accepted as a capable student by my instructor
12. My instructor makes me feel as though I bring valuable ideas to class
13. I interact with my instructor outside of class
14. My instructor is willing to give me individual help when needed
15. It seems like my instructor really cares about whether I am learning
16. People of color are encouraged to contribute to the class discussion
17. I am encouraged to share life experiences when they relate to class material
18. I can generally express my honest opinions in class
19. My instructor provides lots of written feedback on the assignments I turn in.
20. I feel like my personal and family history is valued in class
21. Women are encouraged to contribute to the class discussion
22. I feel as though I am treated equally to other students
23. My instructor makes an effort to make his or her class interesting
24. My instructor encourages students to become involved on campus
25. My instructor is easily accessible outside of the classroom or office
26. I've thought of my instructor as a mentor

</td></tr>
</table>

From these 27 items, all rated on a seven-point Likert-type scale (where 1 = strongly disagree, and 7 = strongly agree), I created a composite variable by summing the totals of each participant's responses, then dividing them by the number of items they answered (to account for students who skipped questions). The result was a score between 1 and 7 representing the average amount of faculty validation experienced by the student. I labeled this number Faculty Validation Mean, or FVMean for short. Students with a lower FVMean expressed less faculty validation than those with a higher FVMean. For purposes of this study, while FVMean was based on a Likert-type scale, which would suggest it be an ordinal variable, I am treating it as a quasi-continuous variable as instead of the seven points in the Likert-type measurement, the averaging the scores on these Likert-type scales produced 191 unique FVMeans, from 1.07 to 7.0. Streiner and Norman (2015) summarize the hot debate surrounding the treatment of variables derived in any way from Likert-type responses. While there is considerable research on both sides, ultimately Streiner and Norman (2015) conclude that, "from a pragmatic viewpoint, it appears that under most circumstances… one can analyze data from rating scales as if they were interval without introducing severe bias" (p. 52). For this reason, I treated FVMean, or rather, FVZ (FVMean standardized to z-scores) like a continuous variable, as it will behave enough like a continuous variable for my purposes.

Exploring Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 (H1) holds that "On average, male Black and Latino students

in a corequisite English class will report higher levels of faculty validation than those in Standalone classes." To do assess this, it is worth understanding the descriptive statistics of the whole sample in order to draw conclusions about male Black and Latino students, as well as corequisite vs. standalone students.

Table 4 shows the mean FVMean score for all students. At 5.315, this means that on the average question, students chose somewhere between "Agree" and "Strongly Agree" that they felt validated by their professors. The fact that students, on average, felt validated by their professors at Patterson College was reassuring. However, more analysis was needed to see the impact of this validation, particularly for different groups and when controlling for different variables.

Table 4 Faculty Validation Mean for All Students

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Med	Std. Dev.
All Students	1024	1.07	7.00	5.3151	5.3704	1.01574
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Med	Std. Dev.
Standalone Only	762	1.67	7.00	5.2075	5.2222	1.01008
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Med	Std. Dev.
Coreq Only	262	1.07	7.00	5.6279	5.7778	.96802

From a glance at Table 4, it's clear that, in general, students in corequisite courses reported higher levels of faculty validation, with the mean of 5.628 for corequisite students vs. a mean of 5.208 for Standalone students. This, of course, is with the non-standardized FVMean, rather than FVZ. Doing the same

calculation using FVZ shows the following in Table 5:

Table 5. Faculty Validation Z-Score for All Students

		FVZ Total				
z-score	N	Min	Max	Mean	Med	Std. Dev.
(FVMean)	1024	5.83411	-4.1753	1.65881	.0000	1.00000000
		FVZ Coreq Only				
z-score	N	Min	Max	Mean	Med	Std. Dev.
(FVMean)	262	5.83411	-4.1753	1.65881	.308004	.95302533
		FVZ Standalone Only				
z-score	N	Min	Max	Mean	Med	Std. Dev.
(FVMean)	762	5.25070	-3.5910	1.65881	-.10590	.99442852

However, the transition to z-scores allows us to identify outliers as well. On that

note, there were a total of six outliers; controlling for those six outliers, is Table 6:

Table 6. Faculty Validation Z-Score for All Students (Minus Outliers)

		FVZ (Minus Outliers) Total				
z-score	N	Min	Max	Mean	Med	Std. Dev.
(FVMean)	1018	-2.8262	1.65881	.020418	.054424	.96635000
		FVZ (Minus Outliers) Coreq Only				
z-score	N	Min	Max	Mean	Med	Std. Dev.
(FVMean)	259	-2.5709	1.65881	.352755	.484971	.86074848
		FVZ (Minus Outliers) Standalone Only				
z-score	N	Min	Max	Mean	Med	Std. Dev.
(FVMean)	759	-2.8262	1.65881	-.092988	-.083014	.97474107

Here in Table 6, students in the corequisite courses on average reported

validation ~ .35 standard deviations higher than the mean, whereas students in

the standalone course reported Faculty Validation approximately .09% of a

standard deviation lower than the mean. For all future analyses from here on out

in the study, these six outliers will be excluded.

But how significant this difference is, and what causes it, also remained to

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be seen. Upon using the t-test for independent samples, I found a significant

difference in FVZ for standalone students vs. corequisite students (t=-6.951, df =

500.584, p(0.001). Using Cohen's D, the effect size was D = .48573, indicating a

modest effect size. It is worth nothing that according to Levene's Test for equality

of variances, the significance was .015, meaning equal variance could not be

assumed.

Table 7 furthers this analysis, only disaggregated by sex:

Table 7. FVZ Disaggregated by Sex

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev.
All Men					
FVZ	393	-2.5709	1.65881	.056862	.96148276
Standalone Men Only					
FVZ	293	-2.2792	1.65881	-.033698	.97143836
Coreq Men Only					
FVZ	100	-2.5709	1.62234	.322200	.88410501
All Women					
FVZ	615	-2.8262	1.65881	.001066	.97149474
Standalone Women Only					
FVZ	458	-2.8262	1.65881	-.124019	.97975619
Coreq Women Only					
FVZ	157	-2.0969	1.65881	.365965	.85011055

Looking at men and women separately, the difference in validation between

standalone and corequisite men is still significant for both groups. For men, it

was significant (t=-3.234, df = 391, p(0.001), and also for women (t=-5.586, df =

613, p(0.001). Men on average reported slightly higher amounts of faculty

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validation than women did, except for corequisite women, who had higher FVZ than corequisite men. The data themselves did not explain exactly why this was; however, answering this question is not essential to exploring the hypothesis at hand, which is whether or not Black and Latino men reported more validation in a corequisite course. From the data, it appears that all students, irrespective of gender, reported higher levels of validation in the corequisite course.

Next, I ran independent samples t-tests to compare the FVZ between standalone and corequisite Black men, Latino men, and both combined, starting with both combined, as shown in Table 8:

Table 8. Black and Latino Men Combined Descriptive Statistics and T-Test Results

Black and Latino Men Combined Descriptives					
	N	Min	Max	Mean	Med	Std. Dev.
FVZ	277	-2.5709	1.65881	.086029	.2367403	.95360729
T-Test Black and Latino Men Combined					
	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Median	Std. E.M.
FVZ	Standalone	201	-.001629	.95868192	.0544243	.06762021
	Coreq	76	.3178617	.90584663	.6378356	.10390773

In this analysis, (t=-2.512, df=275, p(0.05)), and Cohen's d for this result was -.34271, indicating a modest effect.

I next ran an independent samples t-test on Black men only, as can be seen in Table 9:

Table 9. Black Men Descriptive Statistics and T-Test Results

		N	Min	Max	Mean	Med	Std. Dev.
Descriptive Statistics Black Men Only							
FVZ		37	-2.57093	1.24228	.065189	.2732035	.91684499
T-Test Black Men Only							
		N	Mean	Std. Dev.		Median	Std. E.M.
FVZ	Standalone	18	.0390754	.0908875		.73045139	.17216904
	Coreq	19	.0899279	.4190563		1.08441897	.24878277

For Black men alone, while the corequisite students reported higher FVZ, an independent t-test did not find a significant difference between the means (t=-.166, df=31.677, p(0.868)); furthermore, with Levene's test showing significance of .248, equality of variances could not be assumed. The marginal difference can also be seen in Figure 3:
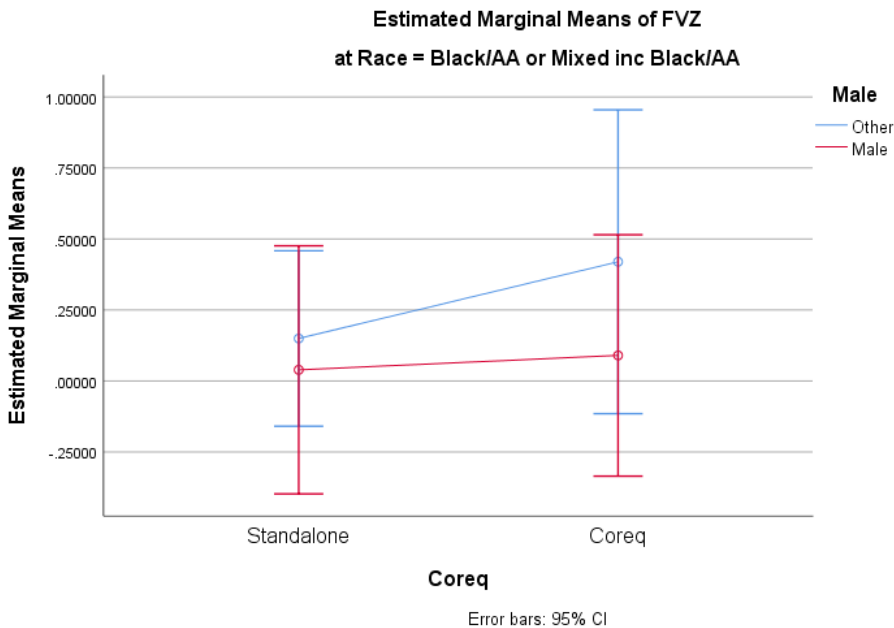
Figure 3 Standalone and Corequisite FVZ Means for Black Men

As Pagano (2012) explains, the independent samples t-test is quite a robust test: "if n1=n2 and the size of each sample is equal to or greater than 30, the t test for independent groups may be used without appreciable error despite moderate violation of the normality and/or the homogeneity of variance assumptions (p. 376). Unfortunately, while n1 (18) is similar to n2 (19), neither number is greater than 30. For this reason, it is difficult to ascertain whether the non-significant difference between Black male students in corequisite classes and Black male students in standalone classes is indeed meaningful, or a result of small sample size.

Finally, I ran the test for Latino men only, and I got the following result, as seen in Table 10.

Table 10. Latino Men Descriptive Statistics and T-Test Results

		N	Min	Max	Mean	Med	Std. Dev.
Latino Men Descriptive Statistics							
FVZ		240	-2.27922	1.65881	.089242	.2002771	.96096390
T-Test Latino Men							
		N	Mean	Std. Dev.		Median	Std. E.M.
FVZ	Standalone	183	-.005633	.97977049		.0544243	.07242672
	Coreq	57	.3938397	.83514684		.6378356	.11061790

The results of the t-test for Latino men only was statistically significant, (t= -2.779, df=238, p(0.05)). Cohen's D for this was -.44, indicating a modest effect. This is also demonstrated graphically in Figure 4:

Estimated Marginal Means of FVZ

at Race = Hispanic/Latinx

Error bars: 95% CI
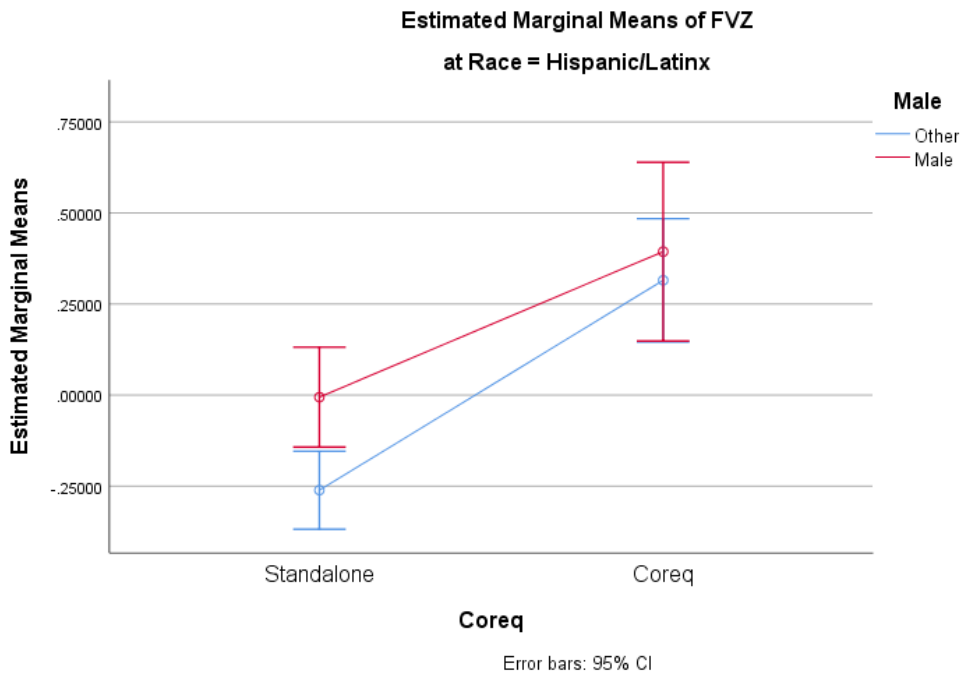
Figure 4 Standalone and Corequisite FVZ Means for Latino Men

Having disaggregated the data further, it appears that we can reject the

null hypothesis, as FVZ was indeed higher for male Black and Latino corequisite

students than their standalone counterparts, though when isolating Black male

students, the difference in means failed to be statistically significant compared to

Latino students alone, or male Black and Latino students combined. Again,

whether this is a result of small sample size, or the population as a whole is

unclear from this study alone.

A few factors might have further complicated the significance for Black

men. In addition to the sample size just being small, it was also sensitive to

extreme cases. In the corequisite course, there were a handful of extreme

scores, but with such a small sample size, they have a large effect on the mean

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(but not the median). Two extremely low scores for Black men (FVZ -2.35, and -2.57, respectively) moved the mean FVZ for corequisite course down dramatically; a third student with a FVZ of -.37312 was even excluded as one of the study's six outliers). With such a small sample, however, it is hard to tell whether or not these low scores are truly representative of the Black male experience at Patterson college.

For the final analysis of H1, I used multiple linear regression to measure how big of an effect course type had on FVZ compared to other potential variables. In this case, as I wanted to be exploratory in my approach, I used the simultaneous entry method (the "enter" method in SPSS) to see which variables the computer showed me to be significant, rather than leading with my hypothesis. I used FVZ (minus outliers) as my dependent variable and I used a variety of independent variables:

- Whether the student was a veteran (Vet)
- Whether the student identified as Asian or Pacific Islander (API)
- Whether their professor was part-time or full-time (ProfTime)
- Whether they took a corequisite course (Coreq)
- Whether they identified as female (Female)
- Whether they identified as Black (Black)
- Whether they were ever part of the Foster system (foster)
- Whether they considered English as their first/primary language (ESL)
- Whether they took the class in the morning (Morning), afternoon (midday),

or evening (Evening)

- Whether they identified as White (White)

- Whether they identified as Latinx (Latinx)

- Whether they identified as Male (Male).

To ensure the variables were all on the same scale, I used primarily binary variables. For race, gender, and class time, I created dummy variables. While the adjusted r-square is admittedly quite low, the difference in FVZ between corequisite and standalone courses is, in fact, significant (if small). This test was designed largely to determine which factors have the biggest impact on that small difference in FVZ. The initial results are contained in Table 11:

Table 11. Initial Multiple Linear Regression Model Summary

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	Std. E.E.	R^2 Ch.	F Ch.	df1	df2	Sig. F Ch.
1	.276[a]	.076	.065	.9313904	.076	6.689	12	976	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Coreq, Female, Proftime, Vet, API, White, Foster, Midday, ESL, Evening, Latinx, Male
b. Dependent Variable: FVZ

From the model summary, the first thing noticeable is how small the adjusted R Square is. The model is not a particularly good fit. Whatever difference observed here is a small one. The analysis continues in Table 12:

Table 12. Initial Multiple Linear Regression ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
			ANOVA[a]			
	Regression	69.634	12	5.803	6.689	.000[b]
	Residual	846.668	976	.867		
	Total	916.303	988			

a. Dependent Variable: FVZ

b. Predictors: (Constant), Coreq, Female, Proftime, Vet, API, White, Foster, Midday, ESL, Evening, Latinx, Male

For the ANOVA section in Table 12, it is important to note that the model significantly predicts the independent variable. Finally, Table 13 shows the final piece of the data.

In Table 13, of the factors influencing FVZ, only Coreq, Proftime, Latinx, and Evening were significant at the p=.05 level. I therefore ran it again, isolating these four, as can be seen in Tables 14, 15, and 16.

Table 13. Initial Multiple Linear Regression Coefficients Table

Coefficients

	Unst. Coef.		St. Coef.			95.0% Conf. for B		Correlations			Coll. Stats.	
	B	Std. E.	Beta	t	Sig.	L-B	U-B	Z-O	Partial	Part	Tol.	VIF
(Constant)	-.280	.461		-.608	.543	-1.185	.624					
Evening	.322	.088	.139	3.668	.000	.150	.495	.070	.117	.113	.661	1.514
Midday	.104	.072	.053	1.434	.152	-.038	.246	-.046	.046	.044	.697	1.436
API	-.125	.150	-.030	-.831	.406	-.419	.169	-.002	-.027	-.026	.708	1.413
White	-.112	.111	-.044	-1.006	.314	-.331	.107	.029	-.032	-.031	.489	2.043
Female	.382	.355	.194	1.075	.282	-.315	1.078	-.019	.034	.033	.029	34.23
Male	.386	.356	.195	1.085	.278	-.313	1.085	.026	.035	.033	.029	34.22
Latinx	-.219	.094	-.109	-2.329	.020	-.404	-.035	-.071	-.074	-.072	.432	2.315
Vet	-.338	.231	-.046	-1.465	.143	-.792	.115	-.052	-.047	-.045	.974	1.027
Foster	.272	.175	.048	1.547	.122	-.073	.616	.024	.049	.048	.968	1.033
ESL	.105	.064	.053	1.639	.102	-.021	.230	.061	.052	.050	.900	1.112
Proftime	-.251	.067	-.130	-3.752	.000	-.383	-.120	-.082	-.119	-.115	.790	1.266
Coreq	.479	.070	.216	6.871	.000	.342	.615	.200	.215	.211	.959	1.043

Table 14. Second MLR Model Summary

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	Std. E.E.	R^2 Ch.	F Ch.	df1	df2	Sig. F Ch.
1	.257[a]	.066	.062	.9357146	.066	17.921	4	1013	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), Latinx, Evening, Coreq, Proftime
b. Dependent Variable: FVZ

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Table 15. Second MLR ANOVA

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
				ANOVAa		
Model						
	Regression	62.763	4	15.691	17.921	.000[b]
	Residual	886.944	1013	.876		
	Total	949.707	1017			

a. Dependent Variable: FVZ

b. Predictors: (Constant), Latinx, Evening, Coreq, Proftime

Table 16. Second MLR Coefficients Table

	Unst. Coef.		St. Coef.			95.0% Conf. for B		Correlations			Coll. Stats.	
	B	Std. E.	Beta	t	Sig.	L-B	U-B	Z-O	Partial	Part	Tol.	VIF
(Constant)	.086	.063		1.362	.174	-.038	.209					
Evening	.275	.074	.118	3.704	.000	.129	.420	.073	.116	.112	.906	1.104
Proftime	-.233	.062	-.120	-3.753	.000	-.354	-.111	-.084	-.117	-.114	.903	1.107
Coreq	.456	.067	.206	6.761	.000	.324	.588	.201	.208	.205	.997	1.003
Latinx	-.177	.062	-.087	-2.867	.004	-.297	-.056	-.069	-.090	-.087	.993	1.007

Here in Table 16, once again, I found a small adjusted r-square, statistical significance in the ANOVA, with all four independent variables significant, albeit coreq showing the highest beta at .206.

When I isolated Black and Latino men, I got the following results in Tables 17, 18, and 19:

Table 17. Third MLR Model Summary

Model Summary^b

Model	R	R²	Adj. R²	Std. E.E.	R² Ch.	F Ch.	df1	df2	Sig. F Ch.
1	.209ᵃ	.044	.030	.9393710	.044	3.107	4	272	.016

a. Predictors: (Constant), Latinx, Evening, Coreq, Proftime
b. Dependent Variable: FVZ

Table 18. Third MLR ANOVA

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	10.968	4	2.742	3.107	.016ᵇ
	Residual	240.018	272	.882		
	Total	250.985	276			

a. Dependent Variable: FVZ
b. Predictors: (Constant), Latinx, Evening, Coreq, Proftime

Table 19. Third MLR Coefficients Table

Coefficients

	Unst. Coef.		St. Coef.			95.0% Conf. for B		Correlations			Coll. Stats.	
	B	Std. E.	Beta	t	Sig.	L-B	U-B	Z-O	Partial	Part	Tol.	VIF
(Constant)	.050	.192		.263	.793	-.327	.427					
Coreq	.315	.130	.147	2.415	.016	.058	.571	.150	.145	.143	.943	1.061
Proftime	-.273	.123	-.143	-2.215	.028	-.515	-.030	-.123	-.133	-.131	.845	1.183
Evening	.215	.140	.098	1.541	.124	-.060	.490	.040	.093	.091	.874	1.144
Latinx	.049	.173	.018	.284	.776	-.291	.389	.009	.017	.017	.924	1.082

a. Dependent Variable: FVZ

Here in Table 19, neither evening nor Latinx were still significant at the p=.05 level. But both corequisite class and the time status of the professor still served as significant predictors of FVZ. Notably, the beta for the corequisite class shrunk when isolating Black and Latino men, whereas it grew for professor time status. This is not necessarily surprising, considering part-time instructors have a lot less (paid) time to invest into students than their full-time counterparts, and some markers of faculty validation, such as availability outside of the classroom, disadvantage part-time instructors.

Overall, considering the incredibly small r-square, the results reveal a small (if significant) difference in faculty validation between standalone and corequisite courses. I can reject the null hypothesis that there would be no difference between FVZ in corequisite and standalone courses, but these data indicate that the difference might be a result not just of course design, but also the time status of professors—an effect that is amplified for male Black and Latino students.

Yet after doing one final round, only testing for ProfTime and Coreq amongst Black and Latino men, I found that only Coreq was still significant, with a .141 beta, as can be seen in Tables 20, 21, and 22:

Table 20. Fourth MLA Model Summary

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	Std. E.E.	R^2 Ch.	F Ch.	df1	df2	Sig. F Ch.
1	.187[a]	.035	.028	.9402526	.035	4.948	2	274	.008

a. Predictors: (Constant), Coreq, Proftime
b. Dependent Variable: FVZ

Table 21. Fourth MLR ANOVA

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	8.749	2	4.374	4.948	.008[b]
	Residual	242.237	274	.884		
	Total	250.985	276			

a. Dependent Variable: FVZ
b. Predictors: (Constant), Coreq, Proftime

Table 22. Fourth MLR Coefficients Table

Coefficients

	Unst. Coef.		St. Coef.			95.0% Conf. for B		Correlations			Coll. Stats.	
	B	Std. E.	Beta	t	Sig.	L-B	U-B	Z-O	Partial	Part	Tol.	VIF
(Constant)	.118	.092		1.286	.200	-.063	.300					
Proftime	-.214	.114	-.112	-1.878	.061	-.437	.010	-.123	-.113	-.111	.994	1.006
Coreq	.301	.127	.141	2.367	.019	.051	.551	.150	.142	.140	.994	1.006

a. Dependent Variable: FVZ

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As a final measure, I isolated male Black and Latino students, using only Coreq. I got the following results in Tables 23, 24, and 25:

Table 23. Final MLR Model Summary

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R^2	Adj. R^2	Std. E.E.	R^2 Ch.	F Ch.	df1	df2	Sig. F Ch.
1	.177[a]	.031	.027	.9477290	.031	7.722	1	238	.006[a]

a. Predictors: (Constant), Coreq
b. Dependent Variable: FVZ

Table 24. Final MLR ANOVA

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Sq.	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	6.936	1	6.936	7.722	.006[b]
	Residual	213.769	238	.898		
	Total	220.705	239			

a. Dependent Variable: FVZ
b. Predictors: (Constant), Coreq

Table 25. Final MLR Coefficients

Coefficients

	Unst. Coef.		St. Coef.			95.0% Conf. for B		Correlations			Coll. Stats.	
	B	Std. E.	Beta	t	Sig.	L-B	U-B	Z-O	Partial	Part	Tol.	VIF
(Const)	-.006	.070		-.080	.936	-.144	.132					
Coreq	.399	.144	.177	2.779	.006	.116	.683	.177	.177	.177	1.00	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: FVZ

While not listed in full, I ran the tests twice more, for Latino men and Black men separately. For Latino men, the model was significant, and the beta for coreq was .177. Running the same tests for Black men alone did not yield significant results whatsoever, with a n R-square of .001, an insignificant ANOVA (.869), a beta of .028, and a significance of .869.

In the final analysis, I can reject the null hypothesis because Black and Latino men reported significantly higher faculty validation in corequisite classes than in standalone classes; however, considering the relatively small R-square, it is worth noting that this is a small, if statistically significant move. Furthermore, when disaggregating by race, while Latino men showed significantly higher faculty validation in corequisite courses, Black men did not; it is my belief that this is likely due to small sample size.

Exploring Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 (H2) holds that "faculty validation will be positively related to the final grade in the course for male Black and Latino students in both standalone and corequisite course models." To do analyze this, it's worth first looking at the crosstabulation for all students to see an average of grade breakdowns by race and gender. I have included information for white, Black, and Latinx students below in Table 26, the three largest racial groups in the sample:

Table 26. Student Grades Disaggregated by Race and Sex

Race			Course Grade					
			F, W, or I	D	C	B	A	Total
White	Sex	Male	12	8	10	22	21	73
		Female	2	2	14	33	45	96
		Other	0	0	0	0	1	1
	Total		14	10	24	55	67	170
Black/AA	Sex	Male	3	5	11	11	6	36
		Female	7	1	16	13	11	48
	Total		10	6	27	24	17	84
Hispanic/Latinx	Sex	Male	30	30	62	68	45	235
		Female	54	35	105	125	91	410
		Other	1	0	1	2	1	5
	Total		85	65	168	195	137	650
Total	Sex	Male	46	47	98	113	79	383
		Female	69	44	142	192	160	607
		Other	1	0	1	2	2	6
	Total		116	91	241	307	241	996

To view the racial and gender divides amongst students in the sample, I have organized them graphically in Figures 5, 6, and 7:

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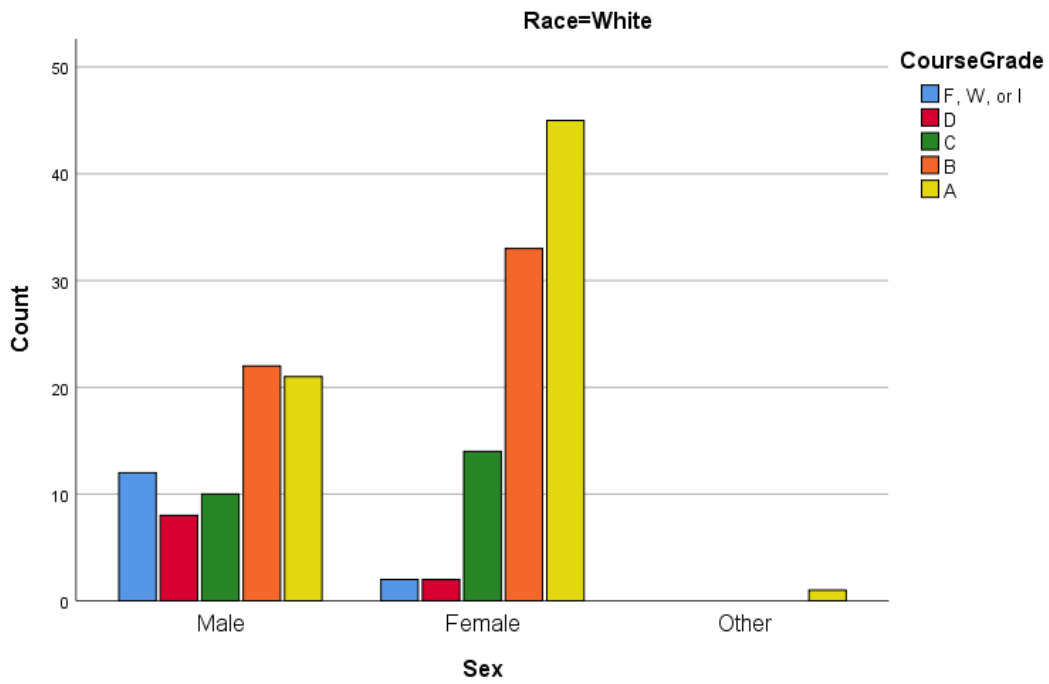
Figure 5. Distribution of Course Grades by Gender – White
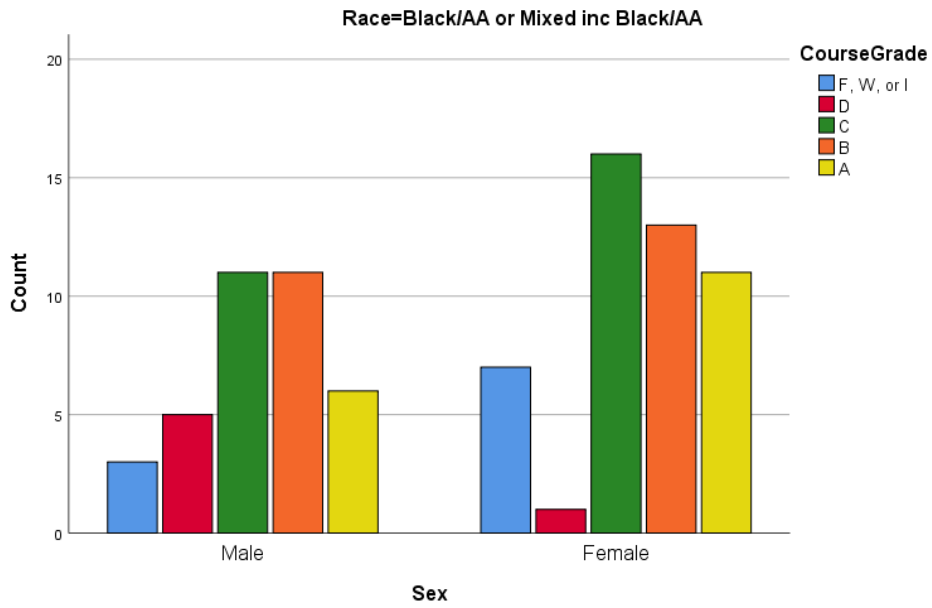
Figure 6. Distribution of Course Grades by Gender - Black
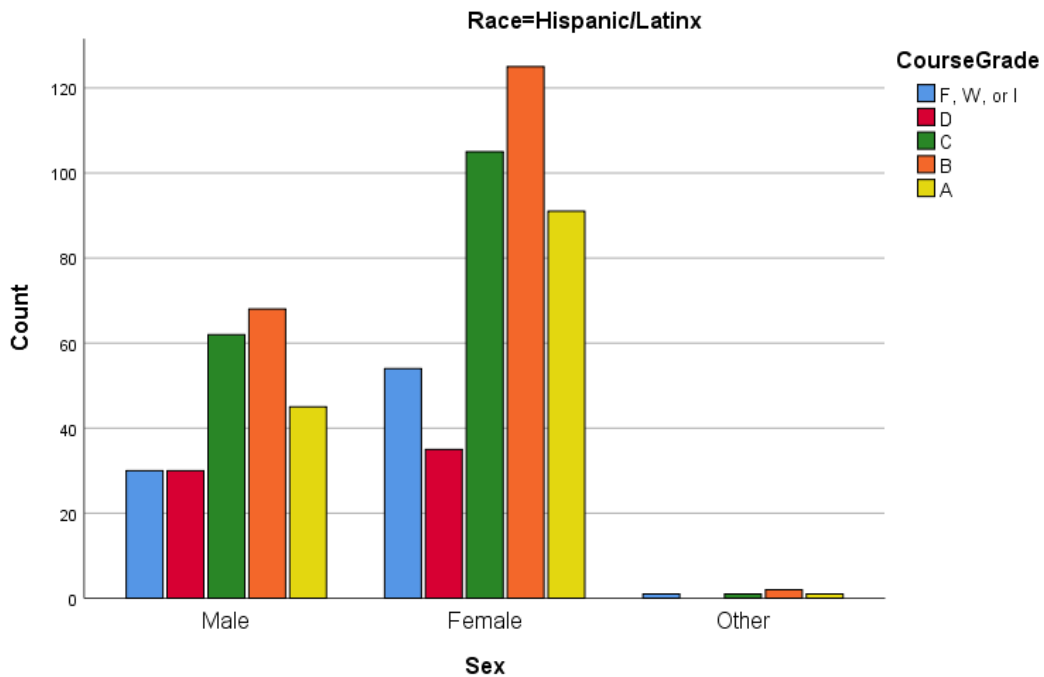
Figure 7. Distribution of Course Grades by Gender – Latinx

Some notable observations about Figures 5, 6, and 7 include the facts that

across all three racial groups, the number of women outweighs the number of

men considerably, and proportionally, women tend to earn higher grades

regardless across all three racial groups. Both of these observations are

consistent with institutional norms for Patterson college as well as the majority of

the literature.

ANOVA. To test H2, the first step was to see the differences in course

grades for all students, so I decided to run a one-way ANOVA to see how FVZ

(minus outliers) correlated with course grade. While the data were originally

organized in five different categories (A, B, C, D, and F/I/W), to simplify the data,

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I reorganized the data into three categories: high pass (A/B), pass (C), and no pass (D/F/I/W). The first results of ANOVA can be seen in Tables 27, 28, and Figure 8.

Table 27. Descriptive Statistics for FVZ for All Students by Grade

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Min	Max
D, F, W, or I	210	-.2772	1.017122	.07019	-.415580	-.138845	-2.826	1.659
C	242	-.1099	.9354669	.06013	-.228360	.008551	-2.352	1.659
A or B	551	.20202	.9182027	.03912	.125182	.278855	-2.571	1.659
Total	1003	.02642	.9642656	.03045	-.033326	.086169	-2.826	1.659

Table 28. ANOVA for FVZ and Course Grade for All Students

ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	40.848	2	20.424	22.927	.000
Within Groups	890.820	1000	.891		
Total	931.668	1002			
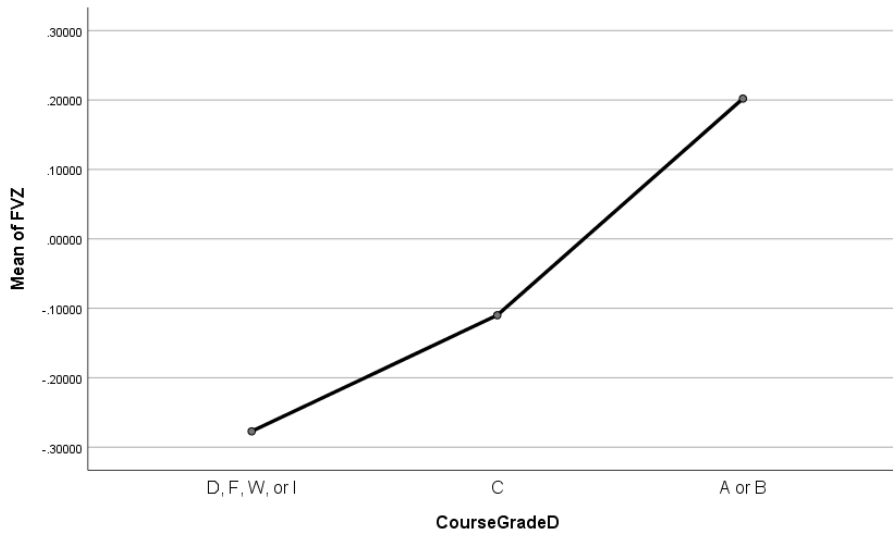
Figure 8. ANOVA Results for All Students

In Tables 27 and 28 and Figure 8, based on the ANOVA results, it is clear that for *all* students, as validation increases, so does course grade, and significantly at the .000 level.

I next ran the test with only male Black and Latino students, as seen in Tables 29 and 30, along with Figure 9:

Table 29. Descriptive Statistics for FVZ for Male Black and Latino Students by Grade

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Upper Bound	Min	Max
D, F, W, or I	68	-.0185	1.034471	.12545	-.2689342	.2318564	-2.279	1.659
C	73	-.0751	.936751	.10964	-.2936533	.1434672	-2.352	1.549
A or B	130	.2355	.917162	.08044	.0763237	.3946304	-2.571	1.659
Total	271	.0881	.960195	.05833	-.0267553	.2029145	-2.571	1.659

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Table 30. ANOVA for FVZ and Course Grade for Male Black and Latino Students

	ANOVA				
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.541	2	2.771	3.051	.049
Within Groups	243.392	268	.908		
Total	248.933	270			
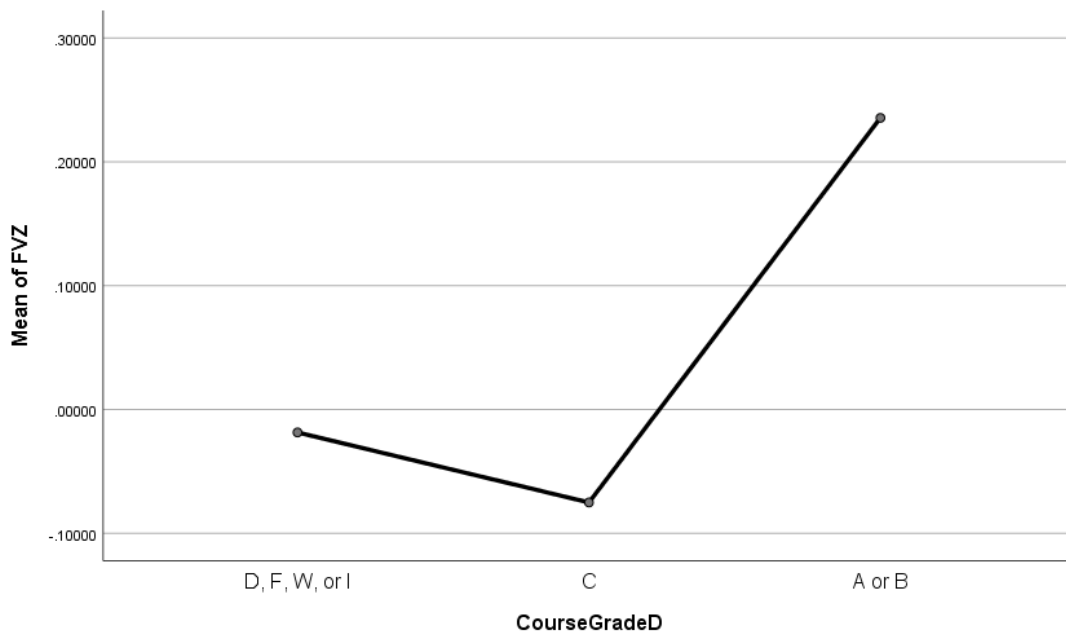
Figure 9. ANOVA Results for Black and Latino Men

In Tables 29 and 30, along with Figure 9, the general trend is similar, with higher FVZ associated with a higher letter grade, though it's notable that in this case, "Pass" has a slightly lower average FVZ than "No Pass."

I next ran the opposite test, looking at everyone *but* male Black and Latino

students. I saw the following in Tables 31 and 32, as well as Figure 10:

Table 31. Descriptive Statistics for FVZ for All Minus B/L Men by Grade

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval for Mean Upper Bound	Min	Max
D, F, W, or I	116	-.4470	.96432	.08953	-.6243155	-.269611	-2.826	1.549
C	144	-.1431	.93622	.07802	-.2973368	.011099	-2.161	1.659
A or B	359	.2069	.92158	.04864	.1112861	.302594	-2.571	1.659
Total	271	.0881	.96019	.05833	-.0267553	.202915	-2.571	1.659

Table 32. ANOVA for FVZ and Course Grade for All Minus B/L Men

ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	41.492	2	20.746	23.828	.000
Within Groups	536.331	616	.871		
Total	577.823	618			
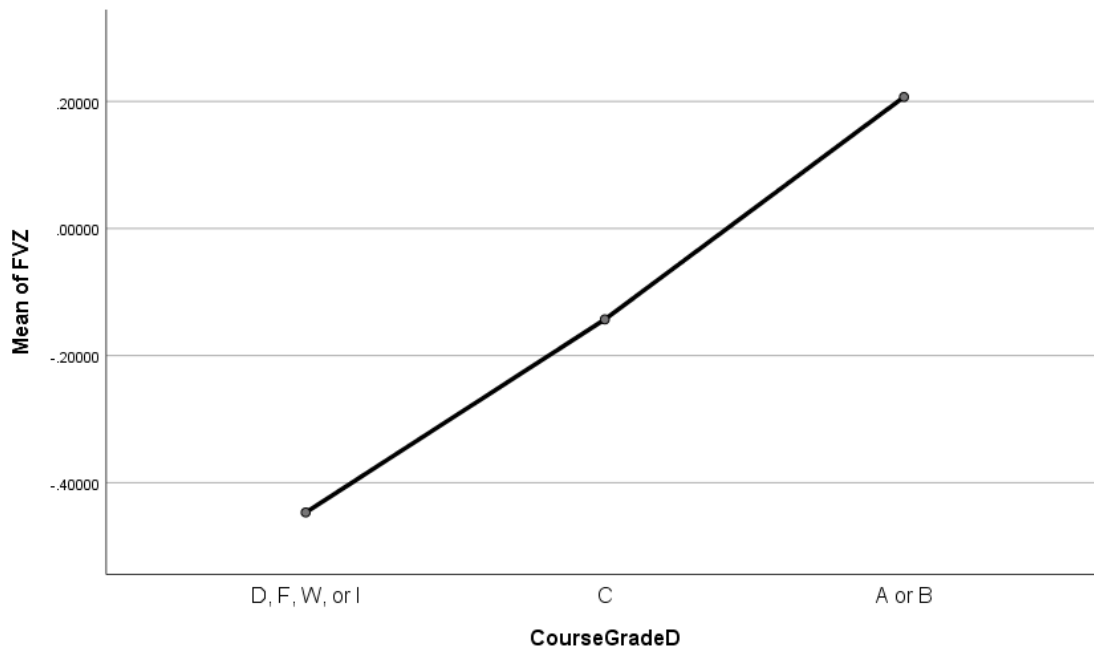
Figure 10. ANOVA Results for All Minus B/L Men

In this case, the significance was much more substantial (.000 as opposed to .049) and the line between course grade and FVZ was almost completely straight.

Having a baseline for the sample, I next disaggregated for Latino men to test the hypothesis, as can be seen in Tables 33 and 34, as well as Figure 11:

Table 33. Descriptive Statistics for FVZ for Latino Men Only by Grade

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
D, F, W, or I	60	-.0352	1.0495	.1355	-.30627	.23595	-2.279	1.659
C	62	-.0846	.9333	.1185	-.32158	.15245	-2.133	1.549
A or B	113	.2519	.9207	.0867	.08028	.42349	-2.133	1.659
Total	235	.0898	.9671	.0631	-.03446	.21411	-2.279	1.659

Table 34. ANOVA for FVZ and Course Grade for Latino Men Only

ANOVA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.791	2	2.895	3.153	.045
Within Groups	213.051	232	.918		
Total	218.841	234			

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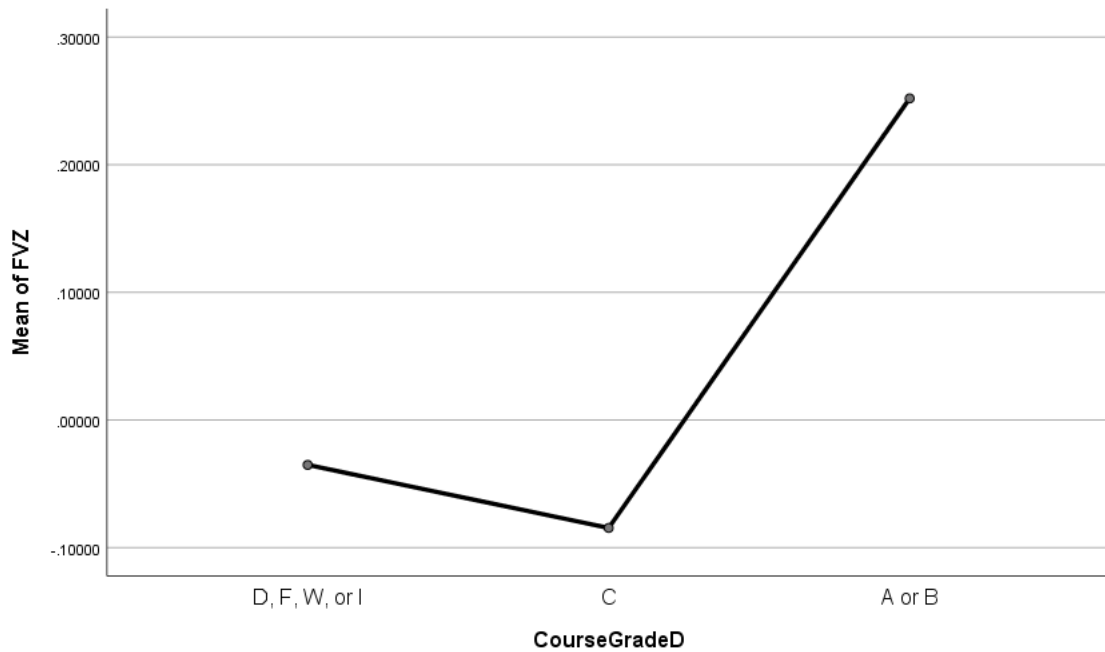
Figure 11. ANOVA Results for Latino Men Only

Here in Tables 33 and 34, along with Figure 11, what I see is quite similar to

what I saw with both Black and Latino male students, both in the ANOVA results

and the shape of the plot.

I next ran the test disaggregating for Black men only, as demonstrated in

Tables 35 and 36, along with Figure 12:

Table 35. Descriptive Statistics for FVZ for Black Men Only by Grade

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min	Max
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
D, F, W, or I	8	.1061	.96917	.34265	-.7041	.9164	-1.408	1.221
C	11	-.0217	1.00048	.30166	-.6938	.6504	-2.352	1.039
A or B	17	.1264	.91331	.22150	-.3431	.5960	-2.570	1.242
Total	36	.0767	.92715	.15452	-.2370	.3904	-2.570	1.242

Table 36. ANOVA for FVZ and Course Grade for Black Men Only

ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.155	2	.078	.086	.918
Within Groups	29.931	33	.907		
Total	30.086	35			
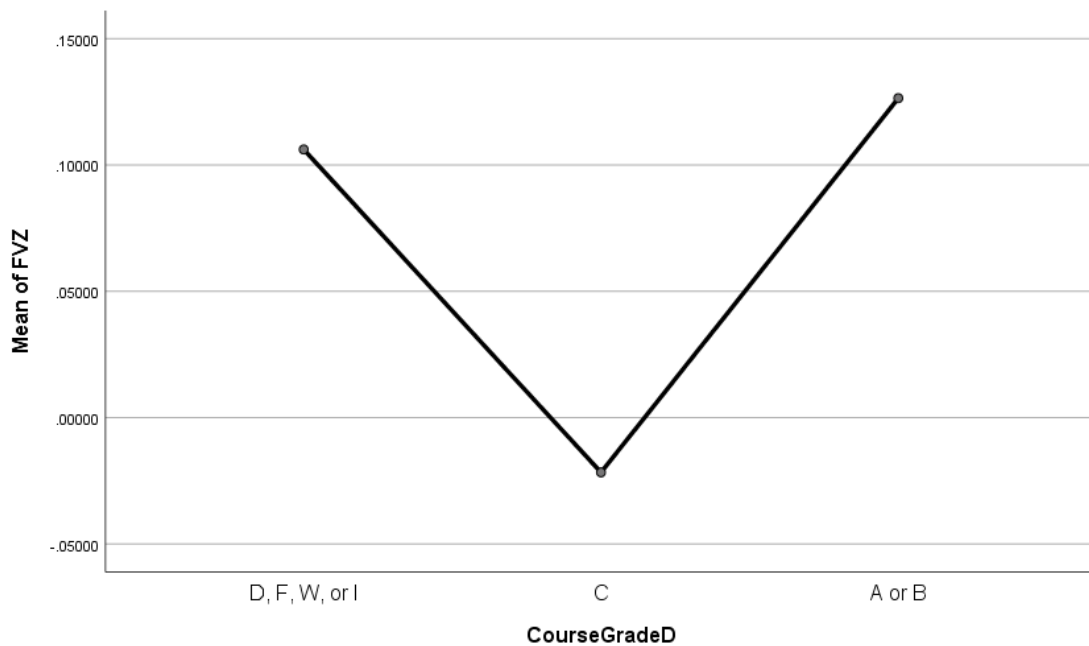
Figure 12. ANOVA Results for Black Men Only

As seen from Tables 35 and 26 and Figure 12, similar to the t-tests and MLR in

H1, by the time I disaggregated all the way down to Black men, meaningful

difference eroded. Once again, it is unclear due to the sample size whether this

is representative of the population as a whole, or just a result of the sample size

being small.

Ordinal Logistic Regression. Next, having established that there is a

significant difference in FVZ among course grades, the next step, similar to H1

in the use of MLR, was to run regression to determine how much of an impact

FVZ had on course grade. To do this, I used ordinal logistic regression,

specifically the PLUM test. Similar to MLR, PLUM helps determine how much

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each individual independent variable has on the dependent variable, with the

estimate serving a similar function to the beta in MLR.

The first thing I did was to run a PLUM test on all students for a variety of

variables to see how they related to course grade. This was similar to the

approach I took with MLR for H1. The goal was to input a variety of variables and

see which rose to the top as the most significant and meaningful. What followed

were these results in Tables 37-41:

Table 37. Initial OLR Model Fitting Information

Model Fitting Information				
Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	1888.590			
Final	1784.537	104.052	14	.000
Link function: Logit.				

First, in Table 37, is the model fitting information, demonstrating statistical

significance at the .000 level, meaning the model fit the data.

Table 38. Initial OLR Goodness-of-Fit

Goodness-of-Fit			
	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	1787.016	1788	.502
Deviance	1718.911	1788	.877
Link function: Logit.			

Next in Table 38, was the goodness of fit table, and unlike the model-fitting table, the desirable outcome is for both Pearson and deviance to be non-significant, which they were in this case.

Table 39. Initial OLR Pseudo R-Square

Pseudo R-Square	
Cox and Snell	.101
Nagelkerke	.117
McFadden	.053
Link function: Logit.	

Next, in Table 39, are the pseudo-r-square values. While their utility and similarity to r-square is questionable (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2013), the fact that all three values are quite small indicates that, similar to multiple linear regression in H1, that the model is observing a small, if statistically significant, phenomenon.

Table 40. Initial OLR Test of Parallel Lines

Test of Parallel Lines[a]				
Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Null Hypothesis	1784.537			
General	1774.307	10.230	14	.745
The null hypothesis states that the location parameters (slope coefficients) are the same across response categories.				
a. Link function: Logit.				

Next, in Table 40, is the test of parallel lines, where again, it is desirable to achieve a non-significant value, which is achieved here at .745.

Table 41. Initial OLR Parameter Estimates

			Std.				95% Confidence Interval	
		Est.	Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[CourseGradeD = .00]	-1.227	1.361	.813	1	.367	-3.894	1.440
	[CourseGradeD = 2.00]	.017	1.360	.000	1	.990	-2.648	2.683
Location	FVZ	.420	.067	39.868	1	.000	.290	.550
	[ESL=.00]	-.314	.136	5.328	1	.021	-.581	-.047
	[Foster=.00]	-1.110	.364	9.282	1	.002	-1.824	-.396
	[Evening=.00]	-.509	.193	6.968	1	.008	-.886	-.131
	[Coreq=0]	.193	.151	1.637	1	.201	-.103	.489
	[Proftime=.00]	-.128	.144	.796	1	.372	-.410	.154
	[Midday=.00]	-.157	.153	1.057	1	.304	-.457	.142
	[API=.00]	.023	.427	.003	1	.957	-.813	.859
	[White=.00]	-.539	.382	1.995	1	.158	-1.287	.209
	[Female=0]	.429	.824	.271	1	.602	-1.186	2.044
	[Male=.00]	.921	.826	1.244	1	.265	-.698	2.540
	[Latinx=.00]	.210	.348	.363	1	.547	-.473	.893
	[Black=.00]	.459	.400	1.317	1	.251	-.325	1.243

Link function: Logit.

Finally, in Table 41, there are the parameter estimates, which shows which variables are significant, along with the estimates, which show how related independent variables are with the dependent variable. Of these, the significant factors included FVZ, evening, ESL, and Foster.

Isolating these factors, I ran the equation again to find the following, as shown in Table 42.

Table 42. Revised OLR Parameter Estimates

							95% Confidence Interval	
Parameter Estimates								
		Est.	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[CourseGradeD = .00]	-1.940	.162	142.699	1	.000	-2.259	-1.622
	[CourseGradeD = 2.00]	-.732	.151	23.395	1	.000	-1.028	-.435
Location	FVZ	.389	.064	37.302	1	.000	.264	.514
	[ESL=.00]	-.354	.127	7.719	1	.005	-.603	-.104
	[Foster=.00]	-1.020	.353	8.342	1	.004	-1.712	-.328
	[Evening=.00]	-.447	.158	8.029	1	.005	-.757	-.138
Link function: Logit.								

Here in Table 43, all of them are still significant. Foster has the largest estimate, indicating if a student is a former foster youth, they are less likely to get a higher grade. This affects a very small contingent of students, however. The other negative correlates are evening and ESL, indicating that students are less likely to receive higher grades if they take evening classes or consider a language other than English as their primary language. These are not particularly surprising considering the data. But Faculty Validation is indeed significantly correlated with receiving a higher grade.

Having isolated the most notable variables, I next disaggregated based on race and gender to run the test on male Black and Latino students only, as seen in Table 43. I removed "Foster" as a variable because it applied to so few of the students in the sample.

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Table 43. Revised OLR Parameter Estimates for Male Black and Latino Students

			Std.				95% Confidence Interval	
		Est.	Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[CourseGradeD = .00]	-1.496	.268	31.261	1	.000	-2.020	-.972
	[CourseGradeD = 2.00]	-.280	.251	1.242	1	.265	-.771	.212
Location	FVZ	.279	.121	5.273	1	.022	.041	.517
	[Evening=.00]	-.468	.278	2.833	1	.092	-1.013	.077
	[ESL=.00]	-.128	.245	.272	1	.602	-.607	.352

Parameter Estimates

Link function: Logit.

The results indicated that of the variables, only FVZ was significant, so I ran it one last time with only FVZ. The full results are contained in Tables 44-48:

Table 44. Final OLR Model Fitting Information for Male Black and Latino Students

Model Fitting Information

Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	377.990			
Final	372.091	5.899	1	.015

Link function: Logit.

Again, the model fitting in Table 44 is significant at the .05 level.

Table 45. Final OLR Goodness-of-Fit for Male Black and Latino Students

Goodness-of-Fit			
	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	199.922	229	.918
Deviance	242.034	229	.265
Link function: Logit.			

Here in Table 45, as desired, the significance is higher than .05.

Table 46. Final OLR Pseudo R-Square for Male Black and Latino Students

Pseudo R-Square	
Cox and Snell	.021
Nagelkerke	.024
McFadden	.010
Link function: Logit.	

Here in Table 46, the pseudo r-squares are small, for whatever utility they provide.

Table 47. Final Test of Parallel Lines for Male Black and Latino Students

	Test of Parallel Lines[a]			
Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Null Hypothesis	372.091			
General	370.803	1.288	1	.256

The null hypothesis states that the location parameters (slope

coefficients) are the same across response categories.

a. Link function: Logit.

Next, in Table 47, the test of parallel lines was not significant, which was the

desired outcome.

Table 48. Final OLR Parameter Estimates for Male Black and Latino Students

							95% Confidence Interval	
		Est.	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[CourseGradeD = .00]	-1.083	.140	59.380	1	.000	-1.358	-.807
	[CourseGradeD = 2.00]	.106	.123	.745	1	.388	-.135	.346
Location	FVZ	.286	.117	5.948	1	.015	.056	.515

Link function: Logit.

Finally, in Table 48, when it comes to the parameter estimates, FVZ has an

estimate of .286, significant at the .05 level. Or in other words, for every one unit

increase in FVZ, we could expect a .286 increase in the likelihood of a student

receiving a higher grade, so therefore students who report higher FVZ are

significantly more likely to earn higher grades. Considering the null hypothesis, which holds which holds that FVZ would have no correlation to course grade for male Black and Latino students, it is clear that the null hypothesis can be rejected.

Now, just as with the other tests, I ran the test again to isolate just Latino men and just Black men. This was the case for Latino men, as documented in Tables 49-54:

Table 49. Summary of Latino Men by Grade

		N	Marginal Percentage
Course Grade	D, F, W, or I	60	25.5%
	C	62	26.4%
	A or B	113	48.1%
Valid		235	100.0%
Missing		6	
Total		241	

Table 50. Final OLR Model Fitting Information for Latino Men Only

Model Fitting Information				
Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	345.847			
Final	340.813	5.034	1	.025
Link function: Logit.				

Table 51. Final OLR Goodness-of-Fit for Latino Men Only

Goodness-of-Fit			
	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	196.369	215	.814
Deviance	234.275	215	.175
Link function: Logit.			

Table 52. Final OLR Pseudo R-Square for Latino Men Only

Pseudo R-Square	
Cox and Snell	.021
Nagelkerke	.024
McFadden	.010
Link function: Logit.	

Table 53. Final Test of Parallel Lines for Latino Men Only

Test of Parallel Lines[a]				
Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Null Hypothesis	340.813			
General	339.252	1.561	1	.212

The null hypothesis states that the location parameters (slope coefficients) are the same across response categories.

a. Link function: Logit.

Table 54. Final OLR Parameter Estimates for Latino Men Only

							95% Confidence Interval	
Parameter Estimates								
		Est.	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[CourseGradeD = .00]	-1.071	.151	50.395	1	.000	-1.366	-.775
	[CourseGradeD = 2.00]	.097	.132	.538	1	.463	-.162	.356
Location	FVZ	.288	.128	5.047	1	.025	.037	.539
Link function: Logit.								

From these numbers in Table 54, which are quite similar male Black and Latino students combined, the significance held even when disaggregating to male Latino alone; just like the previous tests, combining male Black and Latino students together, for Latino students alone, the .288 estimate of FVZ indicates that for every one-unit increase in FVZ, Latino students can expect a .288 increase in course grade—the higher the FVZ, the higher likelihood for a better course grade.

Finally, I ran the tests with only Black male students alone, as shown in Tables 55-60:

Table 55. Summary of Black Male Students by Grade

		N	Marginal Percentage
Course Grade	D, F, W, or I	8	22.2%
	C	11	30.6%
	A or B	23	47.3%
Valid		36	
Missing		1	
Total		37	

Table 56. Final OLR Model Fitting Information for Black Male Students Only

Model Fitting Information				
Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Intercept Only	98.379			
Final	98.350	.029	1	.864
Link function: Logit.				

Table 57. Final OLR Goodness-of-Fit for Black Male Students Only

Goodness-of-Fit			
	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Pearson	115.630	111	.363
Deviance	89.561	111	.933
Link function: Logit.			

Table 58. Final OLR Pseudo R-Square for Black Male Students Only

Pseudo R-Square	
Cox and Snell	.001
Nagelkerke	.001
McFadden	.000
Link function: Logit.	

Table 59. Final Test of Parallel Lines for Black Men Only

Test of Parallel Lines[a]				
Model	-2 Log Likelihood	Chi-Square	df	Sig.
Null Hypothesis	98.350			
General	97.886	.464	3	.927

The null hypothesis states that the location parameters (slope
coefficients) are the same across response categories.

a. Link function: Logit.

Table 60. Final OLR Parameter Estimates for Black Men Only

							95% Confidence Interval	
Parameter Estimates								
		Est.	Std. Error	Wald	df	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Threshold	[CourseGrade = .00]	-2.394	.603	15.757	1	.000	-3.576	-1.212
	[CourseGrade = 1.00]	-1.249	.401	9.685	1	.002	-2.036	-.462
	[CourseGrade = 2.00]	.115	.335	.119	1	.731	-.541	.772
	[CourseGrade = 3.00]	1.615	.448	12.966	1	.000	.736	2.494
Location	FVZ	.054	.327	.027	1	.869	-.586	.694
Link function: Logit.								

Unsurprisingly, as seem in Table 60, considering the previous three analyses, by the time the data is disaggregated to Black male students only, the results failed to show anything significant or meaningful. And like the previous analyses, it is hard to discern whether this is due to the population or sample size.

Conclusions

From the results of the study, the following points are clear:

First, a corequisite course model is indeed associated with higher faculty validation for male Black and Latino students (H1). From both the independent samples t-tests and the multiple linear regression, it is clear that the null hypothesis can be rejected. Under several measurements, this association is indeed visible, and significantly so. Furthermore, with regression, the beta

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associated with course model was higher than several other possible independent variables, such as race and gender.

Second, faculty validation is indeed associated with higher course grades for male Black and Latino students (H2). This is clear from both the one-way ANOVAs and the ordinal logistic regression. The ANOVAS showed that course grade is higher, and significantly so, and the OLR showed that faculty validation had a clear and significant parameter estimate noting that increases in faculty validation increased the likelihood of higher grade.

Third, for both multiple linear regression and ordinal logistic regression, the r-square and pseudo r-square were small. This indicates that while both hypotheses are supported by the data, the practical real-life effect is not necessarily large. This brings up the important distinction between what is significant and what is meaningful. However, Hosmer and Lemeshow's (2013) criticisms of r-square and especially pseudo r-square are worth noting. For this reason, while I understand the need to keep r-square in context when interpreting my data, I am not discounting my results because of the small r-square measures. The purpose of the study is to determine how faculty behavior might be able to translate to student success outcomes; even if faculty validation has a small effect on student success for male Black and Latino students, it is important to know. Every little bit helps.

Fourth, in all four measurements I performed (independent samples t-tests, multiple linear regression, one-way ANOVA, and ordinal logistic

regression), when I isolated Black male students alone, the results were not statistically significant. When Black male students were included together with Latino students, the hypotheses were supported. But when isolated, this was not the case. It is my belief that the small sample size of Black male students makes it impossible to tell whether this is reflective of the whole population, or simply a phenomenon related to sample size. Any future studies on the subject should try to increase the sample size of Black male students to get a more accurate assessment of the population.

Qualitative Phase

This section presents the qualitative findings from the nine semi-structured interviews conducted after the fall 2019 semester. In this section, each interview is first summarized to give an overall picture of each man's responses; next, the interviews are analyzed for common themes, followed by analysis for themes corresponding to four research questions guiding the study:

Research Question 1 – What relationship, if any, can be discerned between course grade and validating and/or invalidating experiences described by male Black and Latino students in a first-year composition course at a large, urban California community college?

Research Question 2 – What relationship, if any, can be discerned between course placement (traditional or corequisite) and validating and/or invalidating experiences described by male Black and Latino students in a first-

year composition course at a large, urban California community college?

Research Question 3 - How do male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California community college describe validating and/or invalidating experiences with their first-year composition instructors?

Research Question 4 – What validating and/or invalidating experiences from their English professors do male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California community college consider most salient?

Table 61 displays each student, along with their identities, course outcome, course model, professor time status, and professor identity.

Table 61. Interviewee Profiles

Name	Identity	Professor Time Status	Corequisite	Professor Identity	Grade
Alfonso	Black	Adjunct	Yes	White Female	No Pass
Ben	Black	Adjunct	No	Latina	Pass
Chris	Latino	Full-Time	No	White Male*	Pass
Diego	Latino	Full-Time	Yes	White Female	No Pass
Eduardo	Latino	Full-Time	No	White Male*	Pass
Freddie	Latino	Adjunct	Yes	Asian Female	Pass
Gabriel	Latino	Adjunct	No	Latino	Pass
Hector	Latino	Adjunct	No	Latina	Pass
Isidro	Latino	Full-Time	Yes	White Female	Pass

*Chris and Eduardo had the same instructor, but different class sections

<u>Alfonso – "I Continue to Wonder Why"</u>

Alfonso described himself as "absolutely different – a person who wants to create something with small details. However, what makes me *'me'* is the knowledge and experiences I have been through." A 21-year-old Black man and second-year business administration major, Alfonso's uniqueness extends to his interests: he is a bit of a polymath, an aspiring entrepreneur with interests in biology, computing/engineering, fashion, and other fields. But it was hard not to notice the how Alfonso was unique in other ways as well: as he described, "I have certain disabilities that can somewhat limit academic performances… I also have an assumed level of autism." One of Alfonso's disabilities is a speech impediment, which limited his ability to communicate verbally. In fact, we ultimately conducted the interview through the chat function in our video chat app in order for Alfonso to express himself most clearly.

When I came to writing in general, Alfonso admitted to difficulties with the subject, stating, "As a writer, I'm likely one who definitely likes to use time to come up with ideas rather than being fast paced with meeting certain criteria." Furthermore, in his English 100 course at Patterson, he stated, "the aspects of the course which I find most difficult is understanding exactly what the topic is about; how can I apply it that to what I am writing, and what the teacher means when they're giving students lessons." In fact, this difficulty of understanding the teacher was key in Alfonso's experience in the course.

Alfonso admitted that his experience with his professor, a white woman,

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and a part-time faculty member at Patterson, was sometimes positive: "when conversing with her; she's willing to comprehend and provide the best feedback to what's permitted." However, the majority of experiences Alfonso shared were negative. Specifically, Alfonso expressed frustration with understanding the professor's instructions, even when asked specific questions for clarification: "when out of the class, she's somewhat quiet as a topic ends, but that's maybe who she is. I do think she is confusing when she assigns an assignment, especially after the questions are being asked." Alfonso further elucidated difficulties he had in understanding the assignment requirements:

> When it came to the final essay, my paper was at the page requirement and my professor said that the paper did not meet the page requirements. And when the final exam came, she explained what students were supposed to [do] and when I had then received my grade; it was a failing grade.

Ultimately, Alfonso concluded that he might have passed the course, "if the professor provided better information in assignments and lectures, connected with students who have difficulties in English."

I asked Alfonso if he believed the way his professor related to him had anything to do with him personally; Alfonso hinted at unequal treatment in the course between him and his classmates, explaining a peer was able to appeal a failing grade, whereas he said he "was not advised that grade could be appealed. My peer's grade was appealed and they passed." When I asked further about

why this might have been, his reply spoke volumes: "Honestly, I do not know. I continue to wonder why; she knew that I have difficulties and disabilities."

<u>Ben – "See that? You are a Writer"</u>

When asked to describe himself, Ben stated, "I'm a Black man in America." During the timeline of my research, this statement took on new meaning. As I interviewed Ben in late June, 2020, George Floyd had recently been killed, and the nation was in the midst of its response. At 49 years old, Ben is a busy man, as evidenced by how hard it was to schedule the interview with him. Part of that is the fact that he works as a house manager for a sober living transitional home. Ben was only available late at night, and at our first appointment, Ben had to attend to an emergency with one of the men at the facility. We rescheduled for the following night. Ben says his work in this community is "all about making a living amends." Ben explained, "I'm also formerly incarcerated, system-impacted. I went to prison, served almost 22 years… convicted of a violent crime, homicide." And his work in the sober living facility stems in part from his experience in the criminal justice system: "my rehabilitation really started immediately after my arrest because it was at that point that I saw my substance abuse and addiction issues clearly had progressed much too far."

An aspiring lawyer, Ben became dedicated to social justice and criminal justice reform during his time in prison, citing Michele Alexander's *The New Jim Crow* and the presidency of Barack Obama as inspirations. Ben lamented the

dearth of resources available to people impacted by the criminal justice system, noting it was "a Herculean effort" for him to access the resources that helped him during his incarceration, even when such resources would be key to reducing recidivism.

Upon his release, he was initially discouraged from attending college; however, he soon realized how few work opportunities there were for formerly-incarcerated individuals:

The only companies that were hiring were the industrial companies, the warehouse, and the landscaping and construction. Full time, minimum wage, it's like $13 bucks an hour. I can do basic math and I saw that I was never going to be able to do anything but live really marginally that way.

If he wanted to create the life he wanted for himself, he needed more. Serendipitously, at a required meeting for his parole held at Patterson College, Ben met representatives of a student organization, led by and for formerly-incarcerated students. They encouraged him to register for classes.

As a writer, Ben seemed very aware and self-conscious about the gaps in his education—what he did not learn in K-12 school—from English grammar and mechanics, to knowledge of the classics. He explained that most of his writing experience consisted of letters to his family and unsuccessful grievances to appeal his case. The other complication Ben shared was the difficulty mastering the technology involved in writing in the 21st century, especially with regard to formatting and file submission.

When it came to his professor, a middle-aged Latina and part-time faculty member at Patterson, Ben praised the way that she individualized instruction and also her attitude and high expectations. For instance, he explained that the professor had a variety of options for essay topics, and this helped motivate him to write. He explained that while he could understand and write about common topics, like the environment, they didn't excite him. Conversely, the professor had a variety of essay topics, including sports, which helped him stay engaged: "But now the question whether or not Kawhi Leonard should have gone to the Lakers? Yeah, I'm just dying to write a paper about that!" Beyond topics, Ben also appreciated the way she individualized instruction by assessing students' individual needs: "She also used a lot of these little quizzes… And then you would complete this whole quiz… and guess what? Those were the things you would work on." Ben appreciated this approach, as it helped him focus on what he specifically needed to improve.

Along with her individualization of instruction, Ben really resonated with the professor's ability to connect with students, and with her motivational attitude. He explained,

> She used a lot of personal examples. She talked a lot about the struggle that it was for her to get to where she's at as a writer, and just sort of made it seem like it was something I could do, like it was something that any of us there could do.

After their first assignment, the professor encouraged and affirmed the students'

capabilities, along with their capacity to improve: "she was like, 'see that? You are a writer. You wrote something, that is it. You could be a good writer, or you could be a bad writer, but you are a writer.'" Commenting on the generational divide in the classroom, he explained that as a middle-aged Latina, the professor related to the younger students, "more like a mom, more auntie type of thing" whereas with the older students, the relationship was more collegial and "collaborative." As Ben stated, "she was able to really connect with all the kids in the class. I was very impressed by that." Ben praised the way she was able simultaneously to nurture and encourage students, but also hold them to a high standard:

> She was helping people like me find the sort of resources and then basically telling us okay so now you get out there and you get it and you take advantage of it, you use it and you come back and put it to work in your paper. Without too much or really any hand holding, it was like "this is what you're missing, this is what you need, and this is where it is, so go over there and get it."

Finally, in addition to the validation he received from his professor, Ben was grateful for the support he had not only from student support services like Patterson's Writing Center, but most importantly the student organization dedicated to formerly-incarcerated students: "they had already had all been students, and had already gone through English [100], and just were encouraging me just by the simple fact of their existence as students… so they

were like 'then you can too.'"

Chris – "He has a Very Welcoming Vibe"

Chris's parents were shocked when he told them he was hoping to be an English major. "What are you going to do with English?" they asked, and as Chris explained, "they never looked at me as being able to write." Chris comes from an entrepreneurial Latino family; his mother is a real estate agent, and his parents own a tax business, assisting clients in immigration law. Chris, however, has little interest in that "legal stuff" and instead wants to become a professor. After dabbling with creative writing and journaling through his K-12 experience, Chris took English 100 at Patterson, and after that, as he put it, "I absolutely fell in love with English."

Before Patterson, Chris did not see much of a point in high school. He states, "High school, I would honestly probably say it was the biggest waste of time. I learned absolutely nothing. I think I learned more from switching a homeschool than I did in public school." In his junior year, Chris switched from high school to homeschool, due to "a lot of emotional stuff going on," "a lot of depression," and "a lot of insecurities," and as he put it, "not learning anything at public school just made it worse." Chris implied that some of these emotional issues affecting his academic career stemmed in-part from his identity as a trans man: "I do have a different experience than others because I am trans, so things were, yeah, things were already difficult already I guess emotional-wise but I mean I got it done."

When Chris self-disclosed his trans identity, he did so at the end of the interview after answering all other questions, almost as an aside, right before hanging up the phone. Throughout the interview, I had no idea he was trans, so when he said this, in the moment, I made a quick but conscious decision not to ask follow-up questions to have him explore how his trans identity affected him in the class. I wanted to honor his identity as a man, first and foremost, and I feared that emphasizing his trans identity might somehow diminish his maleness or make him feel somehow "less than" for the purpose of my study, centered on experiences of men in the classroom, especially because he chose not to disclose this part of his identity until the very end of the interview. In hindsight, I realize that I might have missed a valuable opportunity to ask him for more insight that would help me understand his intersectional experience more fully.

Regardless, one of Chris's key observations about his professor, a white man, and full-time faculty member, was how much he cared about students: "I think he's one of the only professors that I've encountered so far that genuinely actually cares about all of students." His professor demonstrated this in part by the way he affirmed student identities and committed himself to antidiscrimination. Chris stated,

> He always does an introduction. The first day where he introduces his syllabus, he'll talk about how he really just doesn't... He really doesn't deal with anything that has to do with racism or transphobia, homophobia, anything like that. If he hears anything about it, there's pretty much you're

out.

Not only did Chris appreciate this outward commitment, but on an interpersonal level, he lauded his professor, stating, "I mean he's just really reassuring that you can always talk to him for things. Just if you need any help." Chris struggled with how best to word it, but he said, "He just has a really welcoming, I don't want to use the word the vibe but I guess I'll just use it. He has a very welcoming vibe."

This "vibe" extended from interpersonal issues, but also to difficulties in the class. Chris stated that his professor took lots of time to individualize instruction to help with specific issues students struggled with: "

He'll take a lot of time to just go over essays and he'll have a day specifically where before your final draft is due you bring a printed copy or you bring it on your computer, it doesn't matter and whatever questions you have to ask him, you can ask and he'll just go around the room answering question, fixing any problems you have with structure or tone, if you need help to break down and analyze something.

Chris also appreciated how available his professor was to his students outside of the class as well: "his office hours too—he's always in there. He's always available unless he has a meeting, which is understandable." Chris contrasted this with other professors, stating, "It feels like they're there to teach the lecture and then just leave."

Chris attributed this clear feedback and support, along with availability and openness—all hallmarks of faculty validation—as instrumental in his success in

the course. Having "caught the English bug," Chris explained he so enjoyed his experience with his professor, that he was currently taking two courses—second semester composition and a literature course—with the same professor.

Diego – "She Understood our Situation"

Diego described himself as a "pretty creative, interesting, somewhat lazy person." At 19 years old, he described himself as an average student, but motivated when he has a goal. At the time of the interview, he had recently been furloughed by his job at a local amusement park before the Covid-19 lockdowns. His passion is video editing, and he was excited to attend a conference about video editing, which he was also worried would be cancelled to due Covid-19. "I have a goal in mind… go to the conference, finish up, learn more about video editing, and being able to use that in my own edits." When it comes to culture, Diego mentioned feeling somewhat disconnected. He enjoys his community, but doesn't feel too connected to Latino culture. For instance, he speaks very little Spanish, and as he put it: "I see myself more out of touch than other Hispanic communities because I'm located near [a landmark] where there isn't a lot of Hispanics… Just a lot of old people."

When it came to writing and academics in general, Diego explained that his experiences were pretty by-the-numbers. He stated about high school, "It was simple. It was just like go into class, do the work and then come out, finish homework and daily life stuff." He explained that shift in difficulty and expectations between high school and college was particularly difficult to

manage: "I wasn't ready for the work overload. And being able to write well enough, good enough for the class." Some of this difficulty stemmed from Diego's dyslexia. He explained, "I think I'm a pretty average student. Not good, but like pretty average because of my dyslexia," but he also explained that the expectations of him in high school did not help him improve: "As a writer, I was pretty messy. I didn't have a good structure, because during high school, they just tell us, 'Here's a piece of paper, a pencil, write a bunch of paragraphs of a certain topic.'"

To Diego, the most significant aspect of his professor, a white, female, full-time faculty member at Patterson, was she was "really kind," and that "She understood our situation straight out of high school… Her class was set up in a healthy educational way, where we knew what resources we had." In particular, Diego praised the way that his professor would take time to check in with students about how they were doing, not just in the class, but in life:

> I particularly liked the way that every once in a while… she would set up a circle so we can all talk about our experiences in a healthy manner. And I enjoyed that. She did that after midterms and finals.

As his course included a co-requisite, Diego commented on how his professor utilized that time, stating that the corequisite class, "it felt like a breather… where we would talk about just social issues, so could implement that in our essays and stuff like that… it felt more just like getting resources to put in our essays and build on them." Additionally, Diego appreciated the way that his professor was

able to relate not just to the younger students and their right-from-high school experiences, but older students, including a number of veterans who were in the class. He explained, "She wanted us to be able to pass the class and succeed in our futures, whatever future it is."

While Diego bemoaned the amount of work in the class, he knew it was evidence of high expectations and pushing students to improve: "goes through our essays, very, very thoroughly, and it seems pretty harsh, but in reality, it's for the better of us." However, he did have a complaint about the amount of work his professor assigned in the Writing Lab, especially because it required paper, which required change to feed to the printer in the lab:

> Some of us may not have had change that day, so we would have to come back the next week. And if we didn't bring change the next week, then we're pretty much out of luck, and we would have to hope that someone else had change to print out the papers.

Though Diego did not pass the course, he attributed it mostly to his own failings as opposed to blaming the professor. He explained that he struggled with balancing work on top of multiple classes, stating, "I was overworked during the weekend for minimum wage… I was taking four classes that semester. So I had to deal with all of their work, a lot of late nights studying, [and] a lot of video editing… I should have put more effort… I believe it's mainly my fault and my disability." Despite failing the course, Diego had re-enrolled in English 100 during the spring semester to try again.

Eduardo – "He Actually Cared, so He Wanted to Read It"

      "I usually just tell people I'm an Eagle Scout," Eduardo said when asked to describe himself, "[I'm] a student here; I work; I live at home; I'm an Eagle Scout." In his second semester at Patterson, Eduardo, 19, Mexican American, seemed to embody the Scout's law of being helpful, courteous, thrifty, and reverent. Like many working students at Patterson, Eduardo works in the manufacturing field, building de-flashing machines. While many of his answers were short and to-the-point, he was glad to help with my research. In his answers, Eduardo underscored values of hard work, and shared disdain for what he perceived as "laziness" in others—both teachers and students.

      When it comes to academics, Eduardo was happy to be at school and learn: "I thought school was fun. I didn't like staying home. I'd rather go to school. Even when I was sick, I'd like to go to school." However, he was less than impressed with the quality of his education in high school: "they even gave retests and things like that. So they didn't really prepare us for college. So they babied us a bit. Yeah, too much so." When it came to writing, he stated,

> It's not great, but it's enough to understand I think, and get my point across. But it's not excellent either… I think it was just trying to find words. So I would want to say something, but I didn't really know how to say it with certain words… I think that was also difficult.

He also didn't feel as though his high school teachers ever paid enough attention to really help him improve: "So my teachers in high school, when they would read

our essay, it was two seconds. They would just see how long it was, look at the topic sentence, maybe read a sentence or two and then grade it." Eduardo seemed to have little patience for this perfunctory corner-cutting.

Unlike high school, Eduardo spoke incredibly highly of his college English professor, a white, male, full-time faculty member at Patterson: "He cared a lot. He just wanted what's best for us, I think. He just wanted us to learn everything and even though he would nag us about things, but it was for the best." Here, Eduardo described both genuine care and high expectations—both of which he found his high school teachers lacking. While he called it "nagging," Eduardo genuinely seemed to appreciate the attention to detail his professor offered: "Well, some teachers they won't... If you mess up on something, they'll just look over it, but if you don't understand something, he'll spend time on it again. He'll explain everything again if you need it." This depth seemed refreshing to Eduardo. The work his professor was willing to dedicate to giving feedback and support was demonstrative of his genuine care for students: "In high school it was, they just graded it just to grade it. But again, back to [my professor] actually caring. That's what I think. He actually cared, so he wanted to read it and everything." While this feedback was thorough, it was also delivered in an encouraging manner, with a focus on improvement:

Whereas other teachers, they would mark it. But I feel the teacher for

English, he would tell you straight up like, "You did this wrong. You can fix

this by doing this." But other teachers, they just told you [that] you did it

wrong and that's it.

Beyond his professor's direct help, Eduardo also appreciated the way the professor utilized other students as well as student support services, including the writing lab, to help students succeed. He stated, "I think [my professor] having us do peer groups was also really helpful. If we didn't understand something then we could also discuss it there," and "as much as I hated the lab, I think it was actually helpful talking to the teachers in there in the lab." While Eduardo disliked some of the work his professor assigned, he ultimately knew that working hard was instrumental in his success.

Freddie – "There's an Obvious Pattern"

Freddie described himself as intellectually curious: "I seek knowledge…I try to learn and stay informed about various things that happen around me." However, he also said he struggled with focus or motivation: "at times if something is not interesting to me, I don't really feel motivated to accomplish certain tasks. However, I do like to work hard." This attitude is similar to how he experienced education—interested in ideas, but facing difficulty with the focus and structure. He said he always struggled in English, partly "because I learned Spanish first." But he really loved to read. While his reading comprehension was high the structure of English, both in composing essays and constructing sentences, eluded him, which he wished his K-12 educational experience helped him with: "I understood part of the curriculum and everything, but I would've thought it would be better to practice on more grammar and structuring essays."

As a writer, Freddie seemed to wrestle with these structural and technical components more than anything else, like how to integrate outside research into his essay:

A lot of critical thinking that goes into choosing your topic and supporting it with evidence, was something I struggled with and I saw a lot of classmates also struggle with… you read each other's essay, we see that there's a solid point and logic to the argument, however, there wasn't evidence that supported it exactly, like well, or just the evidence didn't really fit in with the argument.

This synthesis of ideas with evidence and the structure of essays mystified Freddie.

The way his professor balanced intellectual exploration with structure was helpful to Freddie. Freddie applauded the way his professor, an Asian-American, female, part-time instructor, structured the class:

I would say she has a unique structure where it's free-flowing and malleable. However, there's an obvious pattern, or I would say, structured method. Some other teachers are way too loose and you're sometimes lost in, 'what should I do next?' or 'how do I follow on to the next step of [the] homework?' or something like that.

Freddie appreciated the way his professor was able to keep the class somewhat free-flowing, but never lose track of the goals the class was pursuing, or the skills she was trying to practice with the students.

Freddie's section of the course included a corequisite, though he indicated that he was not required to take the course: "It was the only class available, that I found that fit my schedule. So I ended up taking the [corequisite]." Still, Freddie appreciated the resources the corequisite provided, including much-needed practice on skills: "Depending on what the activity was, we would break up into groups and either go over what's wrong with this paragraph, as far as formatting or grammar… and practicing skills, we learned in [English 100] through lecture." This practice and clarity helped give Freddie the structure he needed to focus and complete the task at hand. He said,

> She'd clearly establish what she looked for in the papers and it just simplified the whole writing process for me, because then I knew what my goal was, I knew what I had to do, where I had to put information instead of, "Oh this is the rough idea of what I'm on, figure it out."

Beyond providing clear structure, feedback, and practice for students, Freddie also responded to the professor's approachability and availability, both inside and outside of the classroom. When asked to describe her, Freddie said she was, "Very kind. Really helpful. She assists us with any questions we had. She was always available and one of the best English teachers I've had." He particularly highlighted how she would individualize instruction, stating,

> The professor tried to accommodate every student, especially... we had some kids with disabilities and she just lets them know, "Oh you can go to the [Disabled Student Support Center] and do your test there, get help,"

extra on top of whatever she offered.

Of particular note was the way the professor held office hours, even though at Patterson College, part-time faculty members are neither required to nor compensated for holding office hours. At Patterson, part-time faculty members do not have access to office space, though there is a communal part-time faculty work room with a copy machine, a boardroom table, and a few other resources; part-time faculty often meet their students in this room. Freddie noted,

> I would say that the office hours, when I could go meet her before class started... really helped out a bunch… I used it mostly to have a look over my essay. So I print out a copy, I take it to her, she just read it, proofread, pointing out mistakes or how I can improve.

While Freddie likely did not know that technically these meetings with his professor were not part of her job requirement, this validating behavior of being available outside of class time was instrumental for his success, giving him the structure and direction he needed.

Gabriel – "He Didn't Want to Be that Person"

"Faith is a big thing for me," Gabriel said when asked to describe himself, "I got clean and sober about 11 years ago, and I found Judaism and Hinduism, so I practice both." At 36, Gabriel had attended a year of community college in 2001 right after high school, but according to him, "I fell in with a bad crowd and I ended up leaving school, but now I'm back and I'm trying to get a degree in law." As a writer, Gabriel said,

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I journaled a lot when I was younger. I stopped that for a while because I felt like a lot of the things that I had ever shown people… made me feel like I was not a very coherent writer. I do a lot of train of thought writing, and I very rarely go back and edit anything.

Gabriel described his identity as multi-hyphenate: "Jewish, Hispanic, or Sephardic—the Spanish Jew. My mother's Caucasian, she's Irish. My father's Ecuadorian and Puerto Rican. So yeah, Hispanic and Caucasian, I guess." These identities, along with his position as an older student in the classroom, led Gabriel to approach the class from "a different perspective than a lot of people in the class." For instance, he mentioned,

because I'm an older student that a lot of the kids maybe feel like they are being judged by their peers, and they're afraid to maybe ask some questions… I felt like I was that older student in class who asked the questions, and it was just like really wanting to get in there and get involved.

Gabriel's age also affected the way he viewed his professor, a younger, Latino part-time instructor: "he's younger than me, which is a little jarring." However, Gabriel also found his professor to be quite approachable: "He's very relatable… he wasn't the kind of person that you were afraid to go up and talk to after class, or he wasn't the kind of person who made you feel like you couldn't approach him." When asked to describe how the professor demonstrated this relatability, Gabriel stated that even in small ways, he tried to get to know the

students, sometimes by asking them questions when he called roll:

> One of them was if you were in a movie, who would play you?... He
> wanted to know about us. He took an interest in us, and I really
> appreciated that. In that aspect I really, I took an interest in the class and
> in him.

As Gabriel described it, his professor truly wanted to be helpful and approachable for his students, and actively resisted being a punitive authority figure. For instance, Gabriel shared a moment when he had to exercise authority:

> He flexed his muscle a little bit, which was a good thing I thought, because
> one of the kids started giving him a hard time, or talking back to him, and
> he broached the subject in a way that you could tell made him feel
> uncomfortable that he had to, which was also really inspiring, because you
> can see that he didn't want to be that person.

Here, Gabriel admired the way that his professor was able to maintain high standards in the class, and to be approachable and relatable without being a doormat. As Gabriel put it, "He was very aware I think of what his impact was on us. And he was very attuned to that." Comparing him to another professor on campus in another discipline, Gabriel said, "He was more attuned to what our needs were," demonstrating not just genuine care, but individualization of instruction.

Gabriel attributed his success in the course both to his professor, but also to validation he received from his outside-of-class support network: "I had a lot of

friends pushing me on. I had a lot of people in my corner, and I had a strong support system." With regard to his professor, Gabriel, who at the time of the interview was enrolled in a second-semester composition course with the same professor, said "English 100 definitely honed my skills as far as like going back, and proofreading, and editing a lot of my material" and "He makes everything very point by point about what he's looking for. He makes it seem like he is aware about what he expects from us. And so that helps me to understand exactly what I need to do." But beyond the mechanical and structural aspects of the course, Gabriel learned some of the more intangible and spiritual elements of writing, in part due to his professor's influence:

> I think it was successful in the course because I found something that I was looking for for a long time, which was my voice… I felt really comfortable in the class. I felt really at ease too. I never felt uncomfortable about being just different from the rest of the students there… I felt nurtured.

Hector – "She Provides a Lot of Tools"

Hector, 22, had two main passions, both in high school and in college: history, and student government. "Learning what people are thinking? I think that's what intrigues me most," he stated, "What was Hitler thinking during World War II? All the different events. I think just looking at history, it excites me." Besides history, Hector considered himself an average student:

> I think the only class that I pretty much succeeded was history and any

electives. I was really bad at math. I did poorly in English. Other than that, extracurricular activities, I was very active. I was in yearbook, I got myself involved. I stayed very socially active, but my academics yeah, below average.

This social involvement continued into his college career, where he currently serves in student government at Patterson College: "I'm in student government and I'm very involved… what I do there and my intentions there, my mission to help others, help students and help my community, that is part of my identity." Hector attributed some of this community-mindedness and motivation to his identity as an immigrant from El Salvador, stating,

I'm Hispanic and I'm an immigrant. And this is my first time, the first time in my family, that someone's going to college. So I hold that very dear to my identity because it really pushes me to do something that wasn't done before in my family.

Hector explained that he holds the motto, "Sí se puede" close to his heart, and that when he thinks about his academic journey, his heritage helps keep him motivated: "I think, 'Why is it that I came to America?' So, going to that class, I'm required to take that class. I need that class to graduate. I don't have the luxury to fail it or opt out." Yet Hector felt that some of aspects of his identity had been a hindrance to him, including his mastery of English. He stated,

I think something that kind of dragged me down was my conflict between Spanish and English… There's always that kind of a conflict between the

verbs in the language that I'm using when I'm writing. So, when you're

writing in Spanish, it's completely different from English.

For Hector, this was the second time he took English 100. On his first

attempt, two years prior, he stated, "I was traumatized, because the professor, he

was very picky about what we were going to write about. He dissected every

sentence, and for me that was very, okay, I get very nervous when professors do

that." While some of the other respondents appreciated such high standards and

attention to detail, Hector indicated that the manner in which the commentary

was delivered was key. His previous professor's feedback was demoralizing:

> I think something that I've seen in professors that I've taken was, like I
>
> said, they don't really provide you feedback in what you can improve. So I
>
> would get, let's say, one time I got a D in a paper, and then the professor
>
> didn't even explain to me why I got a D… so, you can get criticism, but if
>
> you don't share how you can improve, are you going to learn from that
>
> feedback?

Hector contrasted this traumatizing teaching style with a more growth-focused

style of feedback from his current teacher, a Latina part-time faculty member:

> She gave us feedback, but then she also pointed out how we can improve.
>
> So, I have a problem with commas. I used to use too many commas in my
>
> sentences. Or I try to do a compound sentence and it just didn't work out.
>
> The professor, she pointed out, she said, "No, this is how you're supposed
>
> to do it. You don't need a comma right there"… So I definitely learned from

the feedback that she gave me.

Such feedback was helpful for Hector, so much so that he enrolled in the second-semester composition course at Patterson with the same instructor.

At Patterson, the second-semester course, English 200 incorporates both literature and composition, so Hector shared examples of his professor's teaching style in both courses. One of the most time-consuming aspects of the course, but also rewarding, he mentioned, was the way she taught literature. In both English 100 and English 200, Hector took the courses in an accelerated format, where the courses were offered over the course of eight weeks, as opposed to sixteen. This provided a lot of work, especially with the high standards his professor demanded. For one assignment, Hector explained that his professor had several assignments, back-to-back, all about the play, *Hamlet*, due within the same week:

> Understanding what happens with Hamlet, understanding the mindset of Hamlet and Ophelia and all the characters and then writing a paper in the very same week, it's just very, it just absorbs all my energies… Like she wanted us to take a quiz, on the very same week, she wanted us to take a quiz on Hamlet, and then she wanted us to create a visual plot map. I had to go [online] and create a map, and then you add pictures.

While Hector found this aspect of his professor's teaching overwhelming, he also saw the value in it:

> So, the plot map that I just mentioned, if it wasn't for that, I would be just

reading Hamlet in an hour, and then I wouldn't get nothing from it. But

because I had to do this project, it took me around five hours to read

Hamlet, but I definitely understood the plot.

Hector contrasted this in-depth method to previous instructors, stating, "In high

school, I really didn't get that from my teachers. They just assigned *The Crucible*.

Like, let's read *The Crucible*, but what did I get from it?" He contrasted this with

his college experience, stating, "I didn't really understand it because we didn't

really dissect the text, but in this class we did. And I know what happened to

Hamlet." Despite all the hard work, Hector knew what his professor was doing

and why: "the way that she wants us to read the text, it's a lot, but her method, it

just allows you to understand it. And then, working on those assignments, it

makes it easier."

Compared to other instructors, Hector appreciated the way that his

professor used multiple modalities and strategies to teach material, in order to

help students understand exactly how to learn and improve in the course. Hector

explained, "She provides a lot of tools. A lot of videos and she explains

everything. Something that is very rare… Like I took sociology online and the

professor was pretty much, 'You're on your own, here's the materials.'" Citing his

own short attention span, Hector appreciated her varied approaches, stating,

"with this professor the way that she makes it… she incorporates those art

projects and those videos, it's just very appealing what you're learning. Especially

if you're a visual learner and a hands-on learner."

<u>Isidro – "She is a Resource"</u>

When asked to describe himself, Isidro stated, "I consider myself as a person who is always trying to be an optimist… I'm optimistic because I like to help other people and don't expect to get nothing back." During the interview, Isidro mentioned many occasions where he helped, or attempted to help his fellow classmates. He stated, "maybe it sounds a little weird, but sometimes I prefer to help other Mexicans… I don't know. I feel as a community, we Mexicans, we never help each other. So, I try to be more friendly." At the time of the interview, Isidro had only been in the United States for about two and a half years, having come from Mexico. Unlike many of the students I interviewed, who were native English speakers or who had learned English as children, Isidro had learned English in his adulthood, and had been through several ESL courses at as well as a remedial English course, English 50, before taking English 100.

Despite his helpful attitude, Isidro expressed difficulties making friends and getting along with some of his classmates. An optimist, a very helpful person, and an incredibly hard worker, Isidro had difficulties connecting to other students, often who had different experiences from him—even fellow Mexican students. For instance, when interacting with fellow Mexican students who would speak Spanish amongst themselves, Isidro related the following:

> I think that it can be because since I started to do the ESL, the first ESL, I
> tried to focus only to speak English, trying to always to be like only just this
> language. But always my classmates, they get angry. One day I asked for

them, "Can you speak in English please?" Because we are here to

practice… I mean, they get mad at me.

Another time, in an ESL class, he offered to help a student from a different ethnic

background, and she responded, "'Oh, you are like the classic Mexican, the

machismo I can see it.'… It was weird for me because I always offered my help. I

just admit it, I just care." Isidro also found it hard to relate to students who he

didn't believe worked as hard as he did. He related an interaction he had with a

classmate, who asked, "'Why did you care about the homework? We don't have

to do it. The professor never says nothing.' So I say, 'It's because we have to

learn.' Maybe it was more important for me because I'm learning the language."

Isidro mentioned that his work ethic was influenced not only by his own sense of

purpose and motivation, but also the Mexican education system, which he

viewed as significantly more rigorous than what he experienced at Patterson.

When it comes to writing, whether in English or Spanish, Isidro had come

a long way since beginning his journey in writing, and he attributed the

development of his skills from the multiple ESL courses he took at Patterson:

So before the ESL classes, to be honest I have awful writing… And I don't

mean only the language, because it's another language. I mean, I didn't

have ... How can I say? I couldn't put my ideas together to make sense

well.

However, after several courses and developing his skills, he was much more

confident in his ability to write well, but also earn good grades—he earned an A

in English 100, with around 95% in the class by the end of the semester.

Isidro's specific section of English 100 had a corequisite that was specifically designed for English language learners, and it was taught by one of Patterson's ESL faculty, a white, female, full-time faculty member. While she is technically an ESL professor, she regularly teaches English 100 as well, such as the section in which Isidro was enrolled. Isidro had chosen that section of English 100, partly because of the corequisite language support, but partly because he had already had the same professor for some of his ESL classes. When asked to describe her, Isidro said, "I'd describe her as an excellent teacher. Actually, I think she's the best teacher that I've ever have in my life." When explaining why he liked his English 100 professor, he often did so in contrast to his English 50 professor, also at Patterson, about whom he did not mince words:

Particularly the way that I like the professor teach is how she get close to the students. Because I see in other classes, like my professor for English 50, he say, "Okay, if you did not understand, you can read a book." Okay, so some people, even it happened to me, asked to him, "I have a question about this." "Yeah, you can ask later." When I ask again, he's like, "Ask again, ask me later."

Unlike that professor, Isidro appreciated the way his English 100 professor explained concepts. He stated,

Because even one student asks a topic, maybe the topic was like two or three weeks ago, she is willing to come back to explain the topic. Maybe

it's not so deep like the first time, because we are in a new topic, but she

anyways explains. And sometimes she's not, say half the time in class,

she says, "You can [visit] my office hours or you can [ask me] after this

class even if it's not office hours." So the professor tried to get all the

students at the same level, no matter if she has spent more time.

Here, Isidro appreciated his professor's clear feedback and support, along with

willingness to individualize instruction.

But above all, Isidro appreciated his professor's availability outside of the

classroom. As he put it, "She is a resource." He explained frequenting her office

hours, stating, "sometimes I have weird questions that I couldn't find in the

internet, even in my grammar and vocabulary or even the class, how they create

their essays. So, all the time I'm bothering the professor." One anecdote he

shared which highlighted not only his professor's availability for support, but also

his previous instructor's invalidation, was when his English 50 professor told him

to go to his English 100 professor with his questions:

Sometimes even he say to me, "Oh, you can go to [professor's name] to

ask." It was like, "Oh my God, you are my professor. Why do you say to

me to go to another professor to ask?" So for me it didn't make sense. And

so, that way he all the time was avoiding, like to answer some questions.

Despite this discouragement from his English 50 instructor, Isidro did just that:

"Even in English 50, because I didn't have a lot of answers for the professor, I

asked [professor's name] how to do this, how to that, because she is so nice." It

is an incredible act of validation that Isidro's professor made herself available to him outside of class, even when he wasn't currently enrolled in her class, to give him the support he wasn't getting from his current instructor.

<u>Common Themes</u>

From the nine interviews I conducted, each student had a unique experience, with their background, their educational history, and their experience taking English 100 at Patterson. However, several common themes emerged amongst the students.

<u>Identity – Non-Racial Descriptors Featured Prominently</u>. One of the emerging themes from the interviews was how students did not initially describe their identities in racial terms. While I had a follow-up question that asked specifically about race and culture, eight of the nine students who I interviewed first described themselves or their identity by describing personality traits, interests, or achievements. Alfonso described himself as "different — a person who wants to create something with small details" and expounded upon his multiple fields of interest including science, fashion, and business. Chris said, "I'm really introverted" and "I like to read books a lot. That's pretty much all I do is read books." Diego described himself as "a pretty creative, interesting, somewhat lazy person. When I have a goal, I do set myself for that goal." Eduardo opened with, "I'm an Eagle Scout." Freddie said "I seek knowledge… try to learn and stay informed." For Gabriel, it was "being a student, being a hard worker, being involved in various forms of faith and a program that helped me to

stay sober and clean." Hector said, "I'm a history major. I love history." And Isidro said, "I'm always trying to be an optimist… I want to help others." The only subject who described himself first and foremost in racial or cultural terms was Ben, who stated matter-of-factly, "I'm a Black man in America."

Identity – Race and Intersectional Identity Conception. When I asked students more specifically about their racial or cultural identity, they elaborated on the ways that their experiences with race and culture affected how they viewed themselves, and/or their academic journeys. Ben reflected extensively on his personal story of being incarcerated at a young age, decrying the lack of resources, especially for people of color, who are arrested or convicted of crimes, for instance, the possibility of being remanded to a drug treatment facility as an alternative to prison. Ben's identity as a Black man was intrinsically tied to his identity as a formerly-incarcerated person, and also his dedication to social justice, inspired by the likes of Black leaders like Michele Alexander and Barack Obama.

For some students, their Latino heritage or culture was instrumental in their self-concept. Isidro, having recently immigrated to the United States, felt compelled to help fellow Mexicans because, as he described it, "we never help each other." Furthermore, he said his experience with the Mexican education system, which he perceived to be much more sink-or-swim than the American system, had shaped his attitude toward school. For Hector, his identity as an immigrant from El Salvador was instrumental to his motivation. Quoting Cesar

Chavez's motto of "Sí se puede," Hector attributed the struggle of his parents to immigrate to the United States when he was a child to be key to his determination to succeed, along with his status as the first person in his family to go to college. For Gabriel, who was multiracial, his connection to his race and culture largely surrounded his Jewish ancestry, especially when it came to practicing his Jewish faith. Freddie talked about how his background, including being bilingual and understanding Mexican culture helped him succeed in his English 100 class. While Eduardo identified as "Mexican American," he did not elaborate further on how that identify affected how he perceived himself.

For two students, they described tension with their Latino identities. For Diego, he felt "more out of touch than other Hispanics" because of the community where he lived, along with the fact that he spoke very little Spanish. And for Chris, he associated growing up in a Latino home with the shock his parents expressed when he decided to become an English major rather than pursue business. Finally, Alfonso, never once discussed his identity as a Black man; however, he frequently discussed his identity of being a person with disabilities.

A complicating factor in the students' discussion of race is the role of me as a white researcher interviewing students of color about their experiences. While the nine men I interviewed discussed their racial identities in varying detail, and it often took me a follow-up question, and sometimes several follow-up questions, to prompt students to mention race at all, it is not lost on me that the racial dynamic of the interview itself could have played a role in the students'

self-disclosure. Black and Latino students, who often have had negative experiences with white institutional agents in the academy, might not have discussed their racial identities or experiences with race and racism in the classroom as freely with me, a white researcher and college professor, as they might have had I come from a different identity background. As a white researcher, there are limits to my knowledge and experiences based on my identity, even in the follow-up questions I did and did not ask.

For instance, Alfonso, who never once mentioned his identity as a Black man, did mention a disparate treatment between him and his peers, when one student was able to appeal a failing grade, and he was not informed he was able to do so. Alfonso openly discussed his frustrations with his white professor and her lack of communication of expectations, along with a lack of accommodation of his learning disabilities. He never explicitly mentioned race being a factor. But it is entirely possible in his case that racial bias was also at play on the part of his instructor. It is also entirely possible that even if Alfonso suspected this, he felt more comfortable discussing his disability than his race with a white interviewer.

Therefore, while the students I interviewed described themselves and their identities in myriad ways, and I can ultimately only report what they told me, it is also probably the case that the racial dynamic of the interview played at least some confounding role in the way the students described their identities to me.

Negative Experiences in English or Writing. The single commonality between all nine students I interviewed was, sadly, previous negative

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experiences in English or writing. While some students expressed interest in reading or writing, no students had a positive self-concept when it came to their identity as a writer. Alfonso described writing as "challenging," due to his difficulty generating ideas on a deadline. While Ben wrote letters to family and also grievances to appeal his case, he joked about the low quality of his writing, stating "I didn't get out of prison that way. I got paroled by a board, so that's the career success I had in that area." He also expressed being quite self-conscious about grammar, mechanics, and formatting, especially because he had an inconsistent K-12 education. While Chris is now an English major, he admitted that he "never paid much attention" to writing because he "never really thought there was anything you could do with writing." Diego described his writing as "pretty messy," and Eduardo described his as "not great." Freddie and Hector both struggled with English and writing, largely due to struggles learning English as children. While Gabriel loved journaling, he was very discouraged by criticism he received from showing his writing to others. And finally, Isidro, who learned English as an adult, admitted that while he has struggled to write in English, he also struggled with writing in Spanish back in Mexico.

While most of the students (especially those who passed the course) mentioned building their confidence after completing English 100, it was noteworthy that despite their unique journeys, this was the single issue where they all had a similar experience. As with the students' self-disclosure about their identities, it is difficult to pinpoint exactly the role race and racism, or other forms

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of discrimination might have played in these negative experiences. For instance, Isidro described struggling with language and negative experiences in writing in his education even back in Mexico, which would presumably not be the result of anti-Mexican racial animus. Furthermore, negative experiences in writing are common among students of all racial backgrounds, but particularly boys in the K-12 system in the United States (Carr-Chellman, 2010). Thus, unsurprisingly, many of the negative experiences the students described were during their K-12 education, where deficit-minded teaching and both overt and covert racism are not insignificant factors at play. But whether these negative experiences stemmed from general systemic K-12 dysfunction, prejudicial gendered attitudes toward male students in writing, deficit-based racial discrimination, or a combination of all of these factors, these negative experiences served as the backdrop of the students' experiences in English at the community college level.

Work, Motivation, and Internal Locus of Control. Another commonality that many of the students described was a sense of internal locus of control, specifically when it comes to their work ethic, motivation, and success. While some students described struggling with "laziness" or a lack of motivation, most had a strong sense that success was within their reach if they were willing to work for it. For instance, Diego, who failed the course, attributed his failure not to external factors, but to his own difficulty managing his schedule and the fact that he "didn't put enough work into it." Ben, too, demonstrated a strong internal locus of control, attributing his success in part due to his support system and his

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instructor, but also proudly asserting, "I worked my ass off." Furthermore, he applauded the way his instructor motivated him and his classmates, helping them help themselves "without too much or really any hand holding." While Chris championed the support his professor provided in the course, he ultimately attributed his success to his internal motivation: "I think [I passed] because I went in and I genuinely wanted to learn and I always knew that coming into college." Eduardo attributed his success to his own work ethic, making a point to distinguish himself from "lazy" classmates, who would not turn in the draft work required for the class: "they didn't want to do it, then the student I think would be, 'it's like a waste of time.'" Freddie echoed a similar sentiment about a perceived lack of effort from other students, saying the difference between successful and unsuccessful students was, "how much effort was put in; some students would put in less effort and obviously do worse." While he said he sometimes struggled with motivation, he asserted that in English 100, he succeeded because "I knew what my goal was; I knew what I had to do." Gabriel described himself as "a hard worker," and in his quest of developing his writing skills, he actually found himself rejecting the help of supportive friends in a desire to forge his own path in his writing: "I had to kind of at points push those friends away, and be like, 'Okay, I get that I need to be able to feel like I'm giving my own turn of phrase, or my own perspective, or my own voice.'" Hector found his persistence and determination to be key to his success, and tied to his heritage: "I'm very determined, and I hold that very dear to my identity, because

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I'm Hispanic." Finally, Isidro considered hard work to be of utmost importance, even expressing frustration at professors who didn't demand as much work from students as others: "Some professors make weak the people, the students," he said, of professors who were too lenient. In all these examples, the students showed themselves as motivated workers who not only believed in their own capacity to succeed based on their own hard work, but seemed to value work itself quite highly.

<u>Research Question 1</u>

Research Question 1 – What relationship, if any, can be discerned between course grade and validating and/or invalidating experiences described by male Black and Latino students in a first-year composition course at a large, urban California community college?

Of the nine men I interviewed, seven of them passed the class with an A or a B, while two of them did not pass the course. However, from the quantitative phase, with a significantly higher sample size, it's clear that validation does significantly correlate with course grade. This plays out in the analysis here as well, as every single student who passed the course reported mostly-validating experiences. Alternatively, the single student who reported a mostly-invalidating experience, Alfonso, was one of the two students who failed the course. Perhaps most noteworthy is Diego, who reported a mostly-validating experience with his professor, but still failed the course, attributing his failure largely to his own difficulty managing his work and school schedule. This demonstrates, at least in

microcosm, that, like the quantitative data show, faculty validation correlates with higher course grade, but faculty validation alone does not guarantee that a student will pass the course.

This is an important caveat; while faculty validation is an important form of institutional validation, it is not the only one—or even the only one reported by these students. For instance, while Ben appreciated his professor's faculty validation, he pointed to the student club for formerly-incarcerated students being his primary source of validation, and also spoke highly of the faculty and staff in the Writing Lab as providing much-needed validation and support. Other students, like Gabriel, found their most important sources of validation from outside the institution altogether—in his case, his friend groups and faith communities. It is thus important to recognize that faculty validation alone is not the only factor at play in helping students succeed.

<u>Research Question 2</u>

Research Question 2 – What relationship, if any, can be discerned between course placement (traditional or corequisite) and validating and/or invalidating experiences described by male Black and Latino students in a first-year composition course at a large, urban California community college?

The majority of comments about the corequisite course came from the following question / follow-up questions which I asked of students who took the corequisite course:

- Tell me a little bit about English 99.

- What did a typical English 99 day look like?

Students in both standalone and corequisite courses reported validating experiences. The quantitative portion of the study indicates that male Black and Latino students reported higher validation in corequisite courses than standalone. However, similarly to research question 1, it is notable that participation in a corequisite course does not ensure faculty validation will be experienced by students, or that the student will pass the class. Alfonso, for instance, took the corequisite course and described a mostly-invalidating experience. Notably, he indicated that the corequisite portion of the course "did not seem like a co-requisite" but rather seemed "like just a continuation of the [standalone] class." Diego and Freddie also described the corequisite course as sometimes indistinguishable from the standalone portion of the course. Diego, for instance, said, "Some days it didn't feel like [a corequisite], it felt like just a continuation of [the standalone course]." Freddie described it as "like hybrid," and "an extension" of the standalone course.

However, students also described the corequisite course as different as well. Freddie, for instance, said that the corequisite course would "focus more on group work and practicing skills, we learned in [the standalone course] through lecture." Freddie also described the way that this practice allowed for more validating opportunities with his professor, but also his classmates, stating that the corequisite was "really fun… I enjoyed the activities; I felt like I got closer to my classmates." He also commented on how this allowed him to create stronger

relationships: "We would spend the majority of the class discussing, getting to know more about each other." Making room for relationships, not just between professor and student, but between students and students is an important aspect of validation, as Rendon and Jalomo (1995) highlight the importance of faculty encouraging students to work together and support each other as a key form of faculty validation. As such, Freddie's comments do not comment specifically on faculty validation in the form of what the professor does directly, (except for the clear feedback and support involved in the practice exercises), but rather on the validating environment fostered by the professor, underscoring the potential for the corequisite to foster other forms of relational validation, like with his classmates. In Isidro's section of the corequisite course, he explained that his professor would spend the corequisite time to "give that time to questions." As Isidro's section was specifically designed for English language learners, he said she spent a considerable amount of time in the corequisite portion focusing on grammatical concepts—"noun clauses, adjective clauses,"—but the professor spent considerable time individualizing instruction, giving clear feedback and support, and demonstrating approachability through her answering of questions. Finally, Diego commented on how his professor focused the corequisite on the mechanical aspects of the course, such as work sheets on grammar, and "just like getting resources to put in our essays and build on them" but also specifically on relational components: "it felt like a breather from [the standalone course]… where we would talk about just social issues." Overall, while not universally, the

students' experiences align with the quantitative results, indicating that the corequisite courses provide more validation than the standalone courses. The experiences described here indicate that while the corequisite courses sometimes feel like an extension to the standalone course, they also provide opportunities for relationship building, answering questions, and clear feedback and support, all of which correspond to validating practices.

Research Questions 3 and 4

Research Question 3 - How do male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California community college describe validating and/or invalidating experiences with their first-year composition instructors?

Research Question 4 – What validating and/or invalidating experiences from their English professors do male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California community college consider most salient?

The bulk of my findings correspond to RQ3 and RQ4. These questions are easier to answer partly because they do not hinge on the course grade or course placement (only applicable to some students), but rather the validation or invalidation that all students reported. In my analysis, because this study is working from an established theoretical framework, I began by using provisional coding, with a preconceived set of items derived from the theoretical framework (Saldaña, 2016). These codes are derived from a list of validating behaviors highlighted in a synthesis of Rendon's work (Rendon, 1994; Rendon, Jalomo & Nora, 2000; Rendon & Jalomo, 1995; Rendon & Garza, 1996; Rendon, 2002 as

cited by Barnett, 2007). As I already had a notion of what validation could look like, my biggest curiosity in my research was which of these validating behaviors would be reported by students, and furthermore, what specific experiences reported by students might illustrate these broader categories. Table 62 is a summary of how many students reported each category of validating behavior, and how many instances (i.e. sentences, examples, etc.) the students reported as a whole. As seen in Table 62, not every student experienced all categories of validation, and some students experienced some forms of validation much more than others.

Table 62. Validating Behaviors by Frequency

Faculty Validating Behavior	Number of Students	Number of Instances
Faculty individualizing instruction	8	34
Faculty offering clear feedback and support	8	24
Faculty having high expectations	7	20
Faculty demonstrating genuine concern for students	7	18
Faculty affirming student identities	7	18
Faculty being approachable and/or friendly	7	12
Faculty offering encouragement and/or praise	6	13
Faculty interacting with students outside of class	5	11

Eight of the students I interviewed had mostly-validating experiences, and

one had a mostly-invalidating experience (which is consistent with the quantitative results, indicating that the average male Black or Latino student reported being at least somewhat validated by their instructor). It is also worth noting that sometimes I classified a specific example from a student under multiple categories. For instance, a student's example of his professor offering thorough feedback on an essay could be (and often was) an example of individualizing instruction, offering clear feedback and support, having high expectations, and offering encouragement and/or praise, depending on the manner in which the feedback was delivered. It is also worth noting that the majority of these validating behaviors came in response to the following interview questions / follow-up questions:

- "How would you describe your professor?"

- "How did your professor teach?"

- "Is there anything you particularly liked or disliked about the way your professor taught the class?"

- "Do you think that your experiences with the professor were different from students who were not like you, for example, women in the class or students from another racial background?"

- "In your own assessment, why do you think you were successful in this course?"

- "What, if anything, do you think was your biggest help?"

These questions were designed to circuitously elicit descriptions of validating or

invalidating faculty behavior from the students. That being said, the responses I received are not wholly representative of the validating behaviors their professors demonstrated in their classes; rather, they are the most salient behaviors experienced by the students. These are the behaviors that surfaced when the students were prompted to recall them.

Faculty Individualizing Instruction. This validating behavior, described by eight of the nine students interviewed, takes a variety of forms, but it was the single most talked-about validating behavior. The ninth student, Alfonso, discussed struggling due to its absence. Citing his disabilities, Alfonso was frustrated his professor did not support him more, asserting that he might have passed "if the professor provided better information in assignments and lectures, connected with students who have difficulties in English," especially because his professor, "knew that I have difficulties and disabilities." For the other students, while some experienced lack of individualized instruction in their previous educational experiences, their experiences with English 100 at Patterson were overwhelmingly positive, although they experienced individualized instruction in different ways.

For Ben, it involved freedom in paper topic choice, like writing about why basketball player Kawai Leonard should have signed with the Los Angeles Lakers, instead of the Los Angeles Clippers, as well as quizzes to help the professor assess which skills each student needed to work on individually. For Chris, his professor individualized instruction by holding workshops where he

would go around the room and answer specific questions about students' papers. For Diego, he commented on how his instructor asked the class about their specific struggles around midterm, and provided tailored resources to the various students in the class; for instance, Diego saw how his instructor was able to address the specific struggles of students right out of high school who shared similar experiences, but also provide support for a group of veterans in the class who shared similar experiences with each other, but not the students right out of high school. Eduardo appreciated the time his professor spent on essays, providing individual feedback. Freddie appreciated the "free-flowing and malleable" class discussions, where his professor "let most of us guide the discussions throughout." Gabriel appreciated how his professor attempted to get to know each student individually, so he could be "more attuned to what our needs were." Like Ben, Hector similarly appreciated the wide range of options his professor provided, which allowed him to explore the history of socialism in a paper—a topic he found engaging. Also, he appreciated how the professor, through videos and artistic projects, like the visual plot map of *Hamlet,* attempted to appeal to a variety of student learning modalities. And Isidro repeatedly praised his professor's willingness to slow down and answer student questions to re-explain concepts if individual students did not understand them, and when it was not possible, invite them to office hours for one-on-one support.

Faculty Offering Clear Feedback and Support. One of the most common frustrations from students was a lack of clear feedback and support. While eight

of the nine students experienced this validating behavior from their English 100 professor at Patterson, six of them experienced the opposite throughout their academic careers. Chris, for instance, said about one of his high school teachers, "I don't know if it was just being bad at explaining things but I just remember us doing almost nothing." Eduardo too described subpar feedback and support, saying, "when they would read our essay, it was two seconds. They would just see how long it was, look at the topic sentence, maybe read a sentence or two and then grade it." Here, Eduardo felt this minimal grading time was demonstrative of faculty's lack of respect and value for the students, and therefore was invalidating. Eduardo and also Hector described experiences where professors would offer critiques, but not give constructive feedback on essays. When it came to the students in their English 100 class at Patterson, only Alfonso—the only student who had a mostly-invalidating experience—described little or unclear feedback and support—and it was his chief complaint about his professor. Alfonso found difficulty in "understanding exactly what the topic is about; how can I apply it that to what I am writing, and what the teacher means when they're giving students lessons in lectures" along with saying his professor was, "confusing when she assigns an assignment, especially after the questions are being asked," and he also described an occasion where he thought he followed his professor's instructions, only for her to say he didn't follow the instructions, and failed him.

With a skills class like English, where students could be struggling with

countless different skills (be it focus, organization, grammar, citation, etc.), and an inherently subjective grading scale (a grade on a composition is almost always more subjective than a correct or incorrect answer on a scantron) it is paramount for students to understand where they could improve. That being said, there is a lot of crossover between providing clear feedback and support and individualizing instruction, and many of the experiences students shared were classified in both categories. For Ben, this involved his professor identifying specific areas for improvement through her use of diagnostic assessments, and also her clearly communicating what students needed for them to succeed: "this is what you're missing, this is what you need, and this is where it is, so go over there and get it." For Chris, he appreciated how his professor took time to go over essays and answer questions. Diego commented on how his professor was very thorough in her commentary on essays, but also how she provided lots of information on campus resources like the health center, "if we have like too much stress or anything." Eduardo was impressed by how his professor not just marked errors in the paper, but also provided an explanation of how to fix them, as opposed to previous professors he had had. Freddie said his professor simplified the writing process for him by clearly establishing what she was looking for in papers, but also offering support to the several disabled students in the class. Gabriel said his professor helped him find his "voice" by demystifying "obtuse" writing terminology and helping him clarify how to communicate more effectively. Hector pointed to the multi-modal "tools" that his professor provided

students, as well as her emphasis not just on what was wrong in a paper, but how to improve. And Isidro, appreciated the way his professor would explain concepts multiple times, repeating herself when necessary, even if she already covered the topic weeks prior.

Faculty Having High Expectations. Of all the validating behaviors, high expectations can seem the most counterintuitive because it is often associated with strict and punitive teachers, or conflated with assigning too much work. Yet inherent in high expectations is often the belief that students *can do* that work—especially when communicated in a growth-minded manner. Furthermore, the inverse of high expectations is often crippling. In fact, several students, in their descriptions of their previous educational experiences, including high school, bemoaned how little was expected of them. Their experiences with such "soft bigotry of low expectations" was most often framed negatively, or interpreted as a sign that their teachers did not care about them. Eduardo, for instance, said that in high school, "they didn't really prepare us for college. So they babied us a bit… too much so." Diego also had a poor view of his high school instruction, especially in English, stating, "during high school, they just tell us, 'Here's a piece of paper, a pencil, write a bunch of paragraphs of a certain topic.' And there wasn't really much will of a structure of what I had." Additionally, Isidro became frustrated when professors were too lenient, or gave out too much extra credit. He described one frustrating interaction with a teacher with low expectations: "She say, 'Oh, don't worry. I will give you extra credit.' So that

way, my score was 140%. For me, I was mad. I was like, 'I don't feel good. I feel

like I didn't do nothing well.'"

But seven of the students interviewed reported experiencing high

expectations from their English 100 professors at Patterson. For these students,

high expectations were frequently overwhelming, but they recognized how they

were necessary or for their betterment—especially when paired with praise or

encouragement. For Ben, while he sometimes found the work to be

overwhelming, his professor's high expectations were paired with

encouragement to persist: "you just have to keep trying, writing." Chris described

earning an A in his professor's class as "tough, but it happened." Diego

commented on how his professor recognized the difficulty of both her course and

college in general, as opposed to high school, and employed strategies to help

students mitigate the impact of the work load. Of her teaching, Diego said, "it

seems pretty harsh, but in reality, it's for the better of us." Eduardo commented

on how his professor would "nag" the students about errors they made, but "it

was for the best." Gabriel commented on how his professor had to use his

authority to reluctantly discipline a student and maintain order in the classroom:

"it seemed like he didn't really want to, and he had to, and I respected that."

Hector commented on the immense amount of work that he had to do in his

professor's class, but how all that work led to a deeper understanding of the

material in the course. The only student who did not have a strong sense of high

expectations from his professor was Isidro, who seemed frustrated when

professors were too lenient, for example, letting students turn in late work. However, even he appreciated how his professor drew a line, deducting some points for late work: "She realizes, recognizes the troubles of other people, other students, but at the same time because this person is troubled doesn't mean that she has more rights than the person who submits the homework on time. So she takes out the points." Isidro felt this balance was "fair," or in other words, while her expectations weren't as high as he would have preferred, they were high enough. For most students, high expectations were largely accepted because they were considered fair, as several students commented on accepting the large amount of work—even when it was difficult—if they understood their professors' rationale for assignments. Striking a fair balance can be a tricky, but ultimately validating practice because while having high expectations demonstrates validation because it underscores student capacity, they cannot be so high that they seem unachievable. At the same time, excessive leniency can be seen as dumbing down the curriculum or not thinking highly enough of students that they can achieve standards; fair policies balance the competing demands of rigor and encouragement.

Faculty Demonstrating Genuine Concern for Students. While most teachers want their students to succeed, an attitude of genuine care does not always manifest in their interactions with their students. It is entirely possible, for instance, for professors to be nice or friendly and not particularly care about their students. While friendliness can be validating, it does not equate to care.

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Valenzuela (1999) differentiates aesthetic caring, which is superficial caring about student performance and success in the class, and authentic caring, "which views sustained reciprocal relationships between teachers and students as the basis for all learning" (p. 61). Such care is not simply a display of friendliness, but the willingness to build a relationship with a student that recognizes and wrestles with the inherent power dynamics in educational contexts between teacher and students, and especially white teachers with students of color. As Valenzuela (1999) puts it, authentically caring professors, "become reflective and arrive at an awareness of their own contradictory position vis-à-vis the community" (p. 265).

While genuine care can be demonstrated in a variety of ways, like the aforementioned individualization of instruction and clear feedback and support, several of the students specifically commented on the ways their professors cared about them, or failed to care. While none of the students reported open hostility or contempt for students, some felt their previous instructors were indifferent. Eduardo's comments on the quick, mechanical grading he experienced in high school demonstrated a lack of care, especially compared to his English 100 instructor, who "actually cared," and Chris specifically stated that he felt his teachers in high school "really did not care."

For the seven of the students interviewed, however, they experienced genuine care from their English 100 instructors. For Ben, he knew his professor cared through the collegial relationship she built with him as an older student.

Chris explicitly said of his professor, "I think he's one of the only professors that I've encountered so far that genuinely actually cares about all of the students." Diego, similarly praised the way his professor paid attention not only to students' academic, but also affective needs: "she would set up a circle so we can talk about our experiences in a healthy manner." Perhaps most demonstrative of Valenzuela's concept of authentic care is how Diego said, "She understood our situation." This sentence indicates that Diego's professor was able to authentically contextualize her relationship to Diego beyond simple kindness or friendliness. He felt known by her. Eduardo connected his professor's attention to detail to him genuinely caring about students, and Gabriel commented on how his professor "nurtured" the students through getting to know them. Hector connected his professor's scaffolded reading and writing assignments to caring about whether students understood the material, and he also found her lenient late work policy to be evidence of care and understanding. Similarly, Isidro found his professor's late work policy, accommodating students with difficulties, to be fair, and evidence of her care and understanding.

Faculty Affirming Student Identities. Another salient factor, especially for students of color with a predominantly white teaching force, is affirming their identities. While identity is often synonymized with race or gender, the students I interviewed did not typically describe their interactions with their professor in strictly racial or gender terms. Therefore, for this category, I included examples of professors affirming student interests, including diverse or culturally relevant

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material, acknowledging their socioeconomic situations, or demonstrating principles of egalitarianism. While no student reported overt indifference or hostility to student identity, Alfonso wondered if his failure to pass the course had to do with his disabilities, saying he felt his experiences "were somewhat different" owing to his disabilities, and while he did not believe his professor accommodated him enough. Two other students reported their professors being somewhat inconsiderate of their interests or finances. Diego, for instance, mentioned that his English 100 professor made him print out a lot of homework in the Writing Lab, which required change that he did not always have. And Hector described an English 100 instructor from a previous attempt at the class who assigned an essay analyzing an advertisement in a magazine, even though some students did not read magazines, and could not afford to buy a magazine to complete the assignment.

But of the students interviewed, seven of them mentioned their professors affirming their identities. Ben, for instance, commented on how his professor, a Latina, drew on her own experiences as a Latina when she related to the Latinx students in class, but also how she related to him professionally as a middle-aged person. But beyond that, Ben really appreciated the way she allowed students to pursue topics that interested them, in itself an affirmation of identity. Chris reported the most explicit affirmation of student identities of all kinds in describing his white, male professor's antidiscrimination policy at the beginning of class. But like many other students, Chris underscored the egalitarian nature of

the way the professor interacted with students: "he treats everyone the same."

Diego's professor, a white female, acknowledged the value of diversity, while

underscoring his professor's egalitarianism: "the teacher acknowledged, 'yeah,

this class is multicultural and it's a good thing for many reasons why.' And I

enjoyed it… she treated all of us the same." Eduardo also echoed this theme of

"sameness," noting about his experience with the same white, male professor, "I

don't think it was any different than a white person or anything." Instead, Eduardo

reframed the way his instructor related to the class strictly along the lines of how

much effort each student contributed: "I don't think race had anything to do with

it, maybe just laziness. Maybe when people were lazy then they wouldn't like the

teacher as much, but I don't think race had anything to do with it." Freddie felt like

he was at an advantage in the class due to his identity, especially when culturally

relevant content about Latino culture his professor, an Asian American woman,

assigned. He stated, "considering that I knew Spanish. Sometimes when there's

texts or references that contains Mexican culture or just Spanish, that other

students can't read. I feel like it's more advantageous there." Here, Freddie felt

validated because not only was his culture centered in the classroom as

something of value to study, but his own membership in the culture was an

advantage because he could even act as a cultural translator for students who

did not know Mexican culture of Spanish. Similarly, he underscored how the

professor went out of her way to accommodate several disabled students in the

class, both by offering them support, but also connecting them with campus

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resources for disabled students. Gabriel, who practices both Judaism and Hinduism, showed how his instructor, a Latino male, allowed him to explore the topic of his faith in an essay, and especially felt comfortable in the class despite being an older student in his 30's: "I never felt uncomfortable about being just different from the rest of the students there." Isidro, too, affirmed his white female professor's egalitarianism: "I see that she talks the same way to everyone."

Faculty Being Approachable and/or Friendly. As previously noted, there is a degree of overlap between the various categories of validation; it is hard for a faculty member to offer genuine care and concern for students without also seeming approachable and/or friendly. Three students described experiences with previous teachers who were unapproachable. Hector mentioned teachers who had told him his work "sucks," and while he said his English 100's teaching style was "very blunt," he did not say this made her unapproachable; the key difference here is the phraseology, as saying something "sucks" invalidates students and their abilities, whereas a professor can still be "very blunt" in offering criticism, so long as the criticism is focused toward encouraging improvement and student capacity. The tone of critique is often the deciding factor between a validating and an invalidating experience. Alfonso described his professor not as standoffish, but also not welcoming: "There's awkward moments. And I mean when out of the class, she's somewhat quiet as the topic ends, but maybe that's who she is." And then there is the almost-absurd example from Isidro of the English 50 professor who would not answer student

questions, and finally told Isidro to ask another professor.

But aside from those moments, seven students reported that their English 100 professors demonstrated approachability and/or friendliness. Humor was one of the most common ways that many students commented on. For instance, Ben commented on how his professor would use both humor and personal examples to help keep her students engaged. Furthermore, Ben said she would draw on her own struggles as a professional and a writer to help encourage students in their own writing. Eduardo, too, praised his professor's humor, his first word to describe his professor being, "funny." Kindness was also a common theme, with Diego commenting "My professor, she was very kind," and Freddie also describing his professor as "very kind." Sometimes professors also went out of their way to actively demonstrate their approachability. For instance, Chris said, "he's just really reassuring that you can always talk to him for things. Just if you need any help," and Gabriel said that his professor was, "He's very relatable… he wasn't the kind of person who made you feel like you couldn't approach him." And Isidro applauded his professor's willingness to be accommodating to student questions, explaining concepts numerous times, sometimes one-on-one—even when he wasn't currently taking her class.

Faculty Offering Encouragement and/or Praise. Similar to being approachable and/or friendly, many of the ways professors demonstrated encouragement and/or praise fulfilled one or more other categories of validation, most notably in individualizing instruction and providing clear feedback and

support. Similarly, the three students who reported discouragement or shame from their previous educational experiences did so in the context of receiving feedback with little to know emphasis on growth or improvement. So while this category appeared less frequently in the student responses, their faculty were offering encouragement and praise through separate validating behaviors. Of the students six students who singled out encouraging or praising behaviors, Ben's experience was probably most prominent. As he put it, his professor encouraged students to keep trying, even when they failed, and in doing so made writing feel "like it was something that any of us there could do." And upon the class completing their first task, his professor's affirmative declaration of "See that? You are a writer," was very meaningful to Ben. Furthermore, Chris's professor's encouragement of his writing was part of how he "fell in love with English." Other students, like Eduardo, Freddie, and Hector, all underscored the ways their professors encouraged them to improve their work in their commentary, as opposed to just critiquing the work. And Gabriel really felt encouraged to develop his personal writing voice through his professor's instruction and the individual interest he took in him.

Faculty Interacting with Students Outside of Class. Unsurprisingly, the least common category reported by students was interacting with their professors outside of class. Part of this has to do with the fact that interacting with students outside of class is almost inherently a non-essential activity when it comes to passing a class. Not every student will seek help outside of class.

Furthermore, as Patterson is a community college, as opposed to a university, where students live on campus, students tend to spend less time on campus in general. Finally, some of it has to do with the job parameters of the faculty. Of the nine students I interviewed, five of them had instructors who were part-time faculty members. At Patterson, part-time instructors do not have office space, nor are they compensated for holding regular office hours, and many of them teach at multiple colleges at inopportune times, such as late in the evening. Two students described experiences with faculty where they were unavailable. Alfonso noted that outside of class, his professor was quiet and awkward. And Chris noted that many professors are "never there" in their office hours.

But five students did indicate that their professors were available outside of class hours. Chris, for instance, mentioned how his professor was very available in his office, stating, was "always in there. He's always available unless he has a meeting." Diego also commented on how his professor made herself accessible outside of class. Isidro probably made the most use of his professor's office hours, saying, "all the time I'm bothering the professor," even when he wasn't currently enrolled in her class. But even the part-time faculty members made themselves available to their students outside of class. For instance, Gabriel noted, of his part-time instructor, "I emailed him a lot last semester and this semester, and he was just really available to answer those within a timely manner." And Freddie also commented on how his part-time instructor held unofficial office hours before the class started, so she could go

over students' essays with them.

<u>Summary</u>

Analyzing this group of students revealed a number of commonalities: students' racial identities were often important to the way they viewed themselves and their educational journeys, but other markers such as personality traits, disability, or religion were also important; all students shared negative prior experiences with English and/or writing; and most of the students had strong work ethics, with a strong internal locus of control. Granted, when it comes to the way the students described themselves and their experiences, the confounding factor of the racial dynamic between the Black and Latino participants and me, a white interviewer, cannot not be understated. While I cannot know for certain how much my positionality as a white, male college professor might have affected how the participants responded to me, it is important to recognize that this racial dynamic was also at work as the students described their experiences.

To answer RQ1, eight of the student interviews support the quantitative phase's finding that faculty validation correlates with course grade. Seven men reported mostly-validating experiences and passed the class while Alfonso's story showed how lack of validation correlates with failing the course. Yet Diego's story showed how a student could experience validation but still fail the course.

To answer RQ2, while most students in the corequisite class viewed the corequisite as an extension of the standalone class, many students in the corequisite class largely described the corequisite portion of the class providing

more time for validating experiences, such as answering questions and building relationships; however, Alfonso, who had a mostly-invalidating experience, did not notice a difference between the corequisite and the standalone at all.

To answer RQs 3 and 4, the students described examples of all of the validating experiences in the framework; however, the students spent the most time describing individualizing instruction and offering clear feedback and support as salient validating experiences; likewise, Alfonso cited a lack of individualizing instruction and a lack of clear feedback and support as the most salient forms of invalidation he received.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of the Study

This study was birthed by the question of how large, structural changes in education might impact the harder-to-measure but equally important andragogical and relational components of education, particularly for disproportionately impacted groups. When California passed AB 705, it dictated that at the California community college in English, high stakes standardized placement tests—proven to be both inaccurate and inequitable—were eliminated, as well as remedial course sequences. Both these practices had proven to have inequitable outcomes for Black and Latinx students, and even more so for male Black and Latino students. In their place, the corequisite model of remediation was proposed to help students complete their remedial requirements (based on multiple measures such as high school GPA and guided self-placement as opposed to a high-stakes standardized test). Preliminary research of pilot programs of such corequisite courses pointed to narrowing equity gaps as well as increased throughput and completion of English composition for all students. But these studies, while promising, were often purely qualitative, involved limited sample sizes, or were based on pilot programs led by self-selecting and highly-motivated faculty members.

Furthermore, much research on the efficacy of corequisite courses as a

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vehicle for student success and equity focused on traditional markers of success, including units completed, transfer, and course grade. Harder to measure (and reform) are subtler andragogical and relational measures of success, including faculty validation, which has been positively associated with student success and equity—both traditional and otherwise. As fall 2019 was the deadline for full AB705 compliance across the state, my study was one of the first conducted to examine the effects of these changes after they had rolled out campus-wide and state-wide. Furthermore, by employing a mixed-methods approach, I was able to survey a wide variety of students at the research site, Patterson College, (including over half of the English classes offered in fall 2019), and also incorporate students' lived experiences through qualitative interviews.

The basic format of the study was as follows: I distributed an instrument to measure validation, adapted from Barnett (2007), through which students also shared their demographic information; from there, with their informed consent, I obtained their overall course grade from the college. I surveyed a total of 1044 students in 63 sections of English 100. From there, I recruited qualitative interview participants during the quantitative phase, and also through faculty and staff at Patterson College. Interviewing nine Black and Latino men, I learned first-hand how professors demonstrated validating practices in the classroom, how those experiences interacted with passing or failing the course, whether they took the standalone or corequisite course, and finally, which validating practices were most salient to the students.

My study was guided by the following overall research question – "What relationship, if any, can be discerned between structural changes in first-year composition and the relational experiences of male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California community college?" The short answer to this question is that the study demonstrated that the corequisite model has a demonstrable and significant impact on the amount of validation experienced by male Black and Latino students, and that said validation has a demonstrable and significant impact their course success. Simply put, changing the structure of the courses seems to be leading to (or allowing for) positive increases in validation (itself a measurement, largely of andragogical and relational factors), and validation is subsequently associated with higher course grades.

This overall research question was explored more thoroughly through two specific hypotheses for the quantitative phase, and four specific research questions for the qualitative phase.

Hypothesis 1 (H1) – On average, male Black and Latino students in a corequisite English class will report higher levels of faculty validation than those in standalone classes.

After surveying 1044 students in 63 sections of English 100 at Patterson College, using an instrument adapted from Barnett (2007), I found, using multiple t-tests and multiple linear regression, that Black and Latino students did in fact significantly report higher levels of faculty validation in the corequisite courses than those in the standalone version of the class. Furthermore, the results of the

multiple linear regression indicated that participation in a corequisite course was more predictive of faculty validation than other factors such as race and gender.

Hypothesis 2 (H2) – faculty validation will be positively related to the final grade in the course for male Black and Latino students in both traditional and corequisite course models.

From the same survey of 1044 students in 63 sections of English 100 at Patterson College, I used one-way ANOVAs and ordinal logistic regression to test the hypothesis. The ANOVAS showed that course grade is higher, and significantly so, for students reporting higher faculty validation, and OLR showed that faculty validation had a clear and significant parameter estimate noting that increases in faculty validation increased the likelihood of higher course grade.

Research Question 1 – What relationship, if any, can be discerned between course grade and validating and/or invalidating experiences described by male Black and Latino students in a first-year composition course at a large, urban California community college?

Eight of the nine students I interviewed reported mostly-validating experiences with their professor, but only seven of them passed the course. Of the two students I interviewed who failed the course, one described his professor as invalidating, and the other described his as validating. These results mirror the quantitative results that generally predict validation to be associated with a higher course grade, but they also demonstrate that it is possible for a validated student to still fail the course, even if those who felt mostly-validated succeeded in the

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course at a higher rate.

Research Question 2 – What relationship, if any, can be discerned between course placement (standalone or corequisite) and validating and/or invalidating experiences described by male Black and Latino students in a first-year composition course at a large, urban California community college?

While both the students in the corequisite course and the standalone course reported experiencing faculty validation, the mostly-validated students in the corequisite course reported experiencing more opportunities for validating experiences such as relationship-building, individualized instruction, skills practice, and answering questions. The only mostly-invalidated student, who also took the corequisite course, reported not seeing much of a difference between the standalone course and its corequisite component. That being said, the mostly-validated students in the corequisite courses viewed the corequisite as an arena where even more validation took place. The mostly-invalidated student did not see validation take place in either standalone or corequisite component.

Research Question 3 - How do male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California community college describe validating and/or invalidating experiences with their first-year composition instructors?

The students shared a variety of specific examples of validating experiences from their professors, including but not limited to allowing them to explore topics that interested them, giving clear and improvement-oriented feedback on essays, being welcoming and approachable, taking time to answer

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questions, spending time with them outside of class, and taking time to explain concepts and instructions. The majority of the students attributed these acts of faculty validation as one of, if not the most important factors in their success in the course. For the one student with a mostly-invalidating experience, he expressed confusion, frustration, and a lack of clarity in instructions from his professor.

Research Question 4 – What validating and/or invalidating experiences from their English professors do male Black and Latino students at a large, urban California community college consider most salient?

While the mostly-validated students described examples of all the validating practices within the theoretical framework (providing individualized instruction; providing clear feedback and support; holding high expectations; being friendly and welcoming; demonstrating genuine care; affirming student identities; offering encouragement and/or praise; and being available outside of class), the most salient factors reported by students were individualized instruction (which involved freedom in topic choice, but also answering questions and offering individualized feedback) and clear feedback and support (largely involving detailed comments and clear instructions). Meanwhile, these two factors were also the most salient for the mostly-invalidated student, who felt his professor neither accommodated him personally, nor clarified her expectations.

Limitations

The primary limitation to my study is that it was a single study at a single location. Therefore, while my findings and suggestions might apply to other contexts beyond my research site, that cannot be known for sure.

Next, a limitation in my quantitative phase is the non-random nature of both my research design and my sampling. While I surveyed approximately two thirds of the English 100 classes on campus, it was not truly random or representative of the whole. Personal scheduling conflicts prevented me from surveying some classes. Additionally, surveying the classes was contingent on faculty approval, some faculty members declined to participate in the study, while others simply did not respond to my inquiry. Furthermore, I was unable to survey every student in every classroom I visited. A small number of students declined to take the survey, while others might have been late, absent, or had already dropped the class. Therefore, this is not a perfect representation of the students in the classroom. Finally, a limitation in the quantitative phase's instrumentation and subsequent data entry made it so students could only be counted in one racial category, which caused for imprecise categorization of a small number of multiracial students.

For both phases, a limitation came from the assistance from the department leadership, along with my presence in the classroom being perceived as evaluative. While involving department leadership helped me get the word out and add legitimacy to my work, I also noticed a handful of faculty members—

particularly contingent faculty members—who seemed uncomfortable with the fact that there were potentially evaluative questions on the questionnaire, or that somehow the results of my study would be shared with supervisors. While I sent all faculty an overview of my study, it was clear that not all faculty fully understood or trusted that I was not an agent of the English department, functioning in an evaluative capacity.

Another limitation for my study had to do with quantitative sampling. For the quantitative phase, the number of Black male students surveyed was quite low. This made it difficult to draw quantitative conclusions when isolating Black male students alone. It was hard to tell what was descriptive of the population, and what was the result of the small sample size.

Furthermore, while they were not intentionally excluded, my study did not ultimately include any students from the handful of sections of English 100 and/or 99 at Patterson that were part of the Puente or Ujima programs. The concentration of male Latino and Black students in these programs, as well as the focus on culturally responsive curricula, could have significantly affected my quantitative results had they been in the sample.

For the qualitative phase, the greatest limitation was the unprecedented nature of the lockdown of Patterson's campus due to Covid-19. This had incalculable effects on the students at Patterson, and likely affected my ability to recruit interview participants. As such, my sample of interview participants was smaller than I initially hoped, and did not include representatives from each group

I desired to survey (i.e. a Black man who passed the corequisite course, a Black man who failed the standalone course, or a Latino man who failed the standalone course).

Significance

The first way this study is significant is the way it explores both traditional and non-traditional markers of success associated with AB 705. Much institutional research on the success of AB 705 centers pass rates, GPA, degree progress, and transfer, but as Garcia (2019) explains, non-traditional measures are just as important. Furthermore, Barhoum (2017a) shows how the structural, curricular, andragogical, and relational domains all intersect, and changing a factor related to one domain has a large bearing on the other domains. This study supports Barhoum's (2017a) assertion that changing the structure of the course can impact the andragogical and relational domains, evidenced by the significant difference in validation between standalone and corequisite courses for all students, but particularly Black and Latino men. Furthermore, this study supports Garcia's (2019) assertion that non-traditional success markers have strong correlations with their traditional success markers, as evidenced by the correlation between validation and course grade.

Furthermore, this study is significant in the way that it explores corequisite courses once they were mandated state and campus-wide. While studies from pilots and early adopters were promising, this study confirms that

many of the predicted positive impacts of changes related to AB 705 (both traditional and non-traditional success markers) are still achieved when scaled up to the entire campus and the entire faculty. And more, while many studies on corequisite courses were purely quantitative or qualitative, this study, in its mixed-methods design, provides a robust picture of faculty validation in English.

This study also contributes to the ongoing debate about whether white faculty members can adequately participate in the success and equity of students of color. While Raible and Irizarry (2010) advocate for a teaching force that matches the ethnic demographics of the student population, my study's findings—particularly the qualitative findings—echo Noguera's (2008) notion that, "Differences in race, gender, or sexual orientation need not limit a teacher's ability to make a connection with a young person… They tend to respond well to caring adults regardless of what they look like" (p. 15). My study demonstrated repeatedly that what mattered to the men of color I interviewed was not the race or gender or orientation of the faculty member, but rather their willingness to give individualized attention and clear feedback and support. While race was not an unimportant issue to these men, of the eight who had a mostly-validating experience with their professor, race was not the primary lens through which they described interacting with their professor. And the one mostly-invalidated student expressed his frustrations with her clarity of instructions and failure to individualize instruction; he never mentioned her race

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or gender being a factor. And this is not to say that so-called color-blind teaching is ideal, as evidenced by the fact that the men I interviewed reported substantial affirmation of their identities. It simply goes to say that successful faculty validation can be achieved independently from sharing identity characteristics with the students.

Finally, this study gives concrete examples of specific validating actions that Black and Latino men at Patterson found important—from high expectations and encouragement, to detailed comments on essays, to being willing to repeat material in lectures, to answering questions, to varied and individualized options on essay topics. This study paints a clear picture of what faculty validation can look like first hand, exemplifying best practices.

<div align="center">Recommendations</div>

<u>Student Recommendations</u>

In response to the question, "Is there anything else you would like to add that would help me understand your experience in English 100?" two students offered specific suggestions for educators.

<u>Ben's Recommendations</u>. Ben stressed the importance of cultural competence, or what he said, "used to just be called being 'hip'" for professors. He stated,

> People think that Black dudes don't read, or young Black guys don't read. That's actually not true. They do read, they just don't read classics. They

read urban novels, because I sat in there with them [in prison] and I would see young guys reading and the young guys, that's what they would be reading. They read those… read fashion magazines and stuff like that. That's what they're reading. So they are reading something, they're not reading *War and Peace*.

Ben's comments about appealing to student interests aligned with the validating experiences he felt from his professor, who provided multiple options for students for essay topics, so Ben and other students were able to research and write about topics that interested them. Ben continued,

A prime example of that would be if I was teaching [a composition course] right now and I wanted to fire it up, say the Black male students, I would ask them what they thought about not just the George Floyd incident, but about the whole causes and effects of the way that we think it's done in their neighborhoods today. Generally, yes, it'd be able to get reams of writing out of these dudes.

Furthermore, Ben suggested that learning what young men of color find interesting is not necessarily difficult. Sharing an experience he had with his young male family member, he said he would ask him,

Hey what's going on, what's hot right now? Then he would run it down, whatever it is, and then I would be able to ask him what's up with that? I'm pretty sure he would tell me that too, and then I would be able to get some kind of understanding of what might be interesting to… the 18, 19, 20-year

old in [California]... Or I would just go on YouTube and look at what

everybody is liking.

Ben's comments underscore the importance of professors understanding what

is potentially engaging to the students in their classrooms.

Hector's Recommendations. Hector also had recommendations for

professors serving men of color. First, he urged patience and understanding

with students of color, specifically those who might not speak English as a

native language:

I think whenever we're looking at a person of color taking an English

course, I think you have to take in consideration their background. So for

me, sometimes I didn't write sentences correctly, or I messed up on

certain parts of my essay because I'm still learning English, even though

it's been 10 years plus, I'm still learning English… We have to understand

that why is it that they're not succeeding in this area of the course.

Hector also underscored the importance of being culturally conscious when

crafting assignments, taking stock of student interest and needs. He described

an example of an assignment he once had where he had to analyze a magazine

advertisement and said,

So, let's say for me, there was an assignment that we had to get a

magazine, and we had to analyze an advertisement from that magazine. A

lot of my students, a lot of my peers, they couldn't afford a magazine…

Not only that, but there's a lot of people that don't read magazines and

they don't have an interest in the magazines. Or there's some people in

my class that they just didn't have an interest in analyzing an

advertisement.

Like Ben, Hector recommends professors appeal to the interests of their

students.

Overall Recommendations for Educators

Continue Using the Corequisite Model and Monitor its Effectiveness.

Colleges should continue the use of the corequisite model of composition

classes, but also regularly assess its efficacy in both traditional and non-

traditional success markers. While the majority of research on corequisite

classes has largely pointed to its positive outcomes in traditional measures (units

completed, throughput, transfer, etc.), both the quantitative and qualitative

phases of this study confirmed that corequisite courses have a positive impact on

the non-traditional success measure of faculty validation. This is doubly important

because this study at Patterson took place after the corequisite course had gone

college-wide, and was no longer reserved for a few motivated faculty members

during a pilot phase. While these positive results are only representative for one

semester at Patterson, they are reason to continue the corequisite model at

colleges like Patterson, and adopt it in colleges that do not currently use it. But

these positive results also call for continued monitoring and assessment on both

traditional and nontraditional success markers in the corequisite course as time

goes on, more semesters pass, more curricular changes are inevitably enacted,

and more professional development is held for faculty. Specifically, at Patterson, the corequisite course's effectiveness on traditional markers of success was staggering, resulting in a jaw-dropping increase in throughput in English 100 for male Black and Latino students with only a slight decrease in the overall success rate. But those success rates—58.6% for the whole college, 52.8% for Latino men, and 42.9% for Black men—are hardly cause for celebration. While corequisite courses are huge step in the right direction toward achieving educational equity, they are only the beginning. AB 705 removed one proverbial fence, but there are still more fences to surmount.

Provide Professional Development in Validation to All Faculty. Academic departments should hold, or continue to hold, professional development opportunities about validation, and ensure part-time faculty are included and compensated for these professional development opportunities. Part of the beauty of validation is how simple it can be. Some of the validating behaviors demonstrated by the faculty at Patterson—clear writing prompts, feedback that emphasizes a pathway for improvement, building in flexible writing and discussion topics, and holding rough draft workshops where students ask questions and professors offer individualized support, etc.—are simple, but impactful. Furthermore, as the majority of composition courses are taught by adjunct professors, part-time faculty needs to be included in this professional development work, and paid for it. Many full-time faculty members might be obligated to participate in professional development due to the terms of their

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contract, or simply be more available to participate because they often teach fewer courses than their part-time counterparts, and only at one school. Part-time faculty, who often teach multiple courses at multiple schools, for significantly less compensation, need to be properly compensated for investing time into professional development.

Codify Principles of Validation and Best Practices into Curriculum. Academic departments should include some of these validating practices into their course outlines of record as recommended methods of instruction. In many academic departments, how a course is commonly taught differs substantially for how the course is described in official campus documents. This can become problematic in performance evaluations, for instance, where faculty teaching can only be critiqued based on what is written in the course outline of record. For that reason, I suggest including a list of validating principles and best practices in course outlines of record as suggested methods of instruction. This would give instructors clear ideas of how to practice validation in their classrooms, and allow for discussions of validation to enter the performance evaluation and professional development conversations. However, as evidenced by the student interviews, there are myriad ways to validate students. Therefore, I would not be too rigid in these suggestions, or mandate specific validating practices over others.

Instructors should Create Engaging and Flexible Courses. Individual instructors should make every effort to create engaging, flexible, and culturally competent courses. A key aspect of individualizing instruction and affirming

student identities, both validating practices, is providing culturally competent curricula and paying close attention to what might engage students in the classroom. While a number of students mentioned culturally relevant curricula, Ben and Hector in particular highlighted the need for faculty to develop course content that might engage students of color. As Ben put it, professors need to know "what's hot right now." Emdin (2016) also makes this point, noting how instructors (particularly white instructors) "should be willing to immerse themselves" in the culture(s) of their students (p. 174). While some elements of culturally relevant teaching can be solved in the curricular domain, by mandating required texts, lesson plans, etc. in a course outline of record, the effectiveness of this curriculum hinges on the andragogical and relational domains, as they are where professors can translate culturally relevant curricula into meaningful connection and validation. Emdin (2016) warns, for instance, that an attempt to AstroTurf cultural engagement tokenistically can backfire: "This work can easily be perceived as either mimicry or mockery" (p. 173). Similarly, Fergus, et al., (2014) warn that even when students can "see themselves" in the material, students might not engage with if the professors are not engaged with them and the material. As such, Emdin (2016) suggests that only when an educator authentically engages in the "language" of the students, "its complexity emerges, fostering appreciation and respect on the part of teachers that supports their connection with students" (174).

This authenticity can help in situations, for instance, where different

cultural groups have competing interests. As evidenced by Ben and Hector, the interests of students of color are not uniform. For instance, Ben mentioned fashion magazines potentially appealing to Black male students, but Hector mentioned magazines in general being unappealing to some other groups of students. There is no one-size-fits-all solution. But both men suggested attention and consideration to student interest as a way to serve students of color. Therefore, an effective teacher, according to Emdin (2016), "Instead of seeing the students as equal to their cultural identity… sees students as individuals who are influenced by their cultural identity" (p. 28), and "develops approaches to teaching and learning that work for those individuals" (p. 28). This way, faculty do not presuppose to know everything about a student's culture, but rather invite students to explore their culture in affirming and flexible ways.

Support Part-Time Faculty with Office Space and Paid Office Hours. Colleges should give part-time faculty members office space and compensate them for office hours. While interaction with professors outside of class is not a prerequisite for validation, it is indeed a substantial way for faculty to validate students. While some part-time faculty members were able to meet their students outside of class at Patterson, they were neither provided space for, nor compensated for their office hours. Some community college districts in California pay part-time faculty members to hold office hours and provide them (often communal) office space to do so. Others, however, do not. The findings of this study suggest that supporting the students of part-time faculty this way would

be a step toward more validation, and in turn, equity.

Directions for Future Research

Like all studies, mine was limited in scope; I was unable to cover all of the ground I could on the topic. Therefore, the following are direct recommendations for future research that could compensate for some of the limitations for my study, or alternatively apply principles of my study to other contexts.

Survey a Larger Number of Male Black Students

First, at Patterson specifically, or any institution attempting to address equity gaps with a similarly-sized Black student population, researchers should survey a larger proportion of Black male students in future studies. The single biggest unanswered question from my study was how much the results of the quantitative portion of the study when isolating Black male students were a result of population patterns, or a result of a small sample size. Future quantitative studies on validation or any other phenomenon should attempt to survey a larger number of Black male students for more conclusive results. As the population of Black male students at Patterson in English 100 in fall 2019 was 126, and I surveyed 38, I actually surveyed about one third of the total number of Black male students taking English 100 across the college. My problem was not with getting a representative sample (Black men represented between 3-4% of English 100 students at Patterson in fall 2019, and they were also approximately 3-4% of my sample). It was simply a matter of Black men being a small

population at Patterson to begin with.

One way to increase the sample size in future studies could be to conduct the research earlier in the semester (perhaps at week eight of sixteen, vs. weeks ten-fifteen, like my study) before students who would eventually drop the course do so. Another option might be working with the office of institutional effectiveness or admissions and records to pinpoint the section numbers of courses with Black male students. Out of 63 classes, the number of classes I surveyed was actually higher than the number of Black men I surveyed, as more often than not, the classes I surveyed had no Black men enrolled at all. Finally, it might be helpful to work more closely with Black student organizations like Umoja or Ujima to get a larger sample, including in classes that are specifically part of such culturally-focused programs. While the two Ujima sections of English 100 at Patterson in fall 2019 were not purposefully excluded from my quantitative sample, their presence could have meaningfully impacted my data, and future studies should intentionally attempt to include them.

Alter the Number, Structure, and Racial Dynamic of Interviews

My next recommendation is to conduct a larger sample of interviews, diversify the structure and demographics of the interviews, and ideally not in the shadow of a global event like Covid-19. As the qualitative portion of my study took place during Covid-19-related campus shutdowns at Patterson College, it is impossible to separate the interviews I conducted from the context under which they were conducted. Furthermore, it is unclear how much the pandemic affected

the interview process. While the quantitative phase was conducted during a "normal" semester, the qualitative phase was not. It would be worth conducting more interviews with students about validation when not under the added pressure of Covid-19. This would allow, for instance, in-person interviewing (all but one of my interviews were virtual) which might have produced different or more actionable qualitative data.

Beyond Covid-19's impact on the number of interviews, I would suggest varying the structure and format of the interviews, including the identity characteristics of the interviewer(s). As this was a mixed-methods study, focusing largely on the quant side of things, my qualitative portion was relatively small by comparison. Additionally, as the sole researcher, I was somewhat limited by both the time constraints and IRB parameters of my graduate program to expand the size and scope of the qualitative portion. I think a larger research team, and varying the structure of the interviews (i.e. mixing focus-groups with semi-structured interviews) could have yielded more (and different) qualitative data. Furthermore, my role as a white man interviewing men of color no doubt influenced the racial dynamic in the interviews; incorporating Black, Latinx, and/or female interviewers as interviewers or co-interviewers could produce more, or different qualitative data, and this is therefore something I would recommend for future research at Patterson or elsewhere.

Explore Faculty Perspectives of Validation

Another suggestion for future research would be to interview the faculty to

get their perspective on validation. In an earlier iteration of my study, I planned to interview English faculty at Patterson in addition to students to get their perspectives on validation in their classrooms, as well as teaching corequisite vs. standalone courses. To limit the scope of my study, I focused only on students. But much could be learned from faculty perspectives on validation, especially by juxtaposing faculty experiences with validation with student experiences.

Analyze the Impact of Professional Development on Student Success

Along these lines, another crucial next step at Patterson and elsewhere would be to closely examine the role of professional development on student success and equity. As Patterson spent 50+ hours of professional development equipping its faculty to prepare for AB 705, it is likely the professional development push helped facilitate the positive results Patterson saw for student success (both traditional and non-traditional). But the exact extent to which professional development played a role is unclear from the current study. As Noguera and Syeed (2020) state, "Often, there is no logical connection between the problems affecting schools and the remedies offered by leadership" (pg. 126), and they specifically mention one type of professional development as part of this phenomenon, stating, for example, that "although racial bias among educators may indeed be an issue that should be addressed, there is no evidence that cultural sensitivity training will lead to… significant school improvement in the areas where change is needed most" (p. 126). Even worse is the reality that, "there is a long history of enacting well-intentioned policies only to

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have them backfire and create a new set of problems" (Noguera & Syeed, 2020, p. 129). Simply put, it is entirely possible that the content and methods of professional development at colleges are not addressing the problem, or even making the problems worse.

It would therefore behoove Patterson and other colleges to look into professional development to measure its impact on traditional and non-traditional student success measures. It would be helpful, for instance, to measure the impact of the number of professional development hours completed by faculty, or types of or curricular content of professional development completed by faculty, and traditional and/or non-traditional student success measures. In planning this study, I considered exploring the effects of faculty participation in professional development on faculty validation experienced by their students as part of the quantitative portion; however, I ultimately decided this question would be beyond the scope of this single study. This potential relationship, however, will be pivotal to explore in future research. While professional development seems intuitively important, it is also resource-intensive from both a time and financial standpoint, and needs to be explored thoroughly to ensure it is being done in a manner that efficiently pays dividends in measurable traditional and/or non-traditional student success factors, leading to "significant school improvement in the areas where change is needed most" (Noguera & Syeed, p. 126).

Explore Validation among Other Student Groups or Disciplines

Next, I would recommend exploring faculty validation (qualitatively and

quantitatively) among different student groups, and/or subgroups within male

Black and Latino students. In my study, I decided to limit myself to male Black

and Latino students, as these two specific groups were disproportionately

impacted, but also prominently represented at Patterson College. But they are

certainly not the only disproportionately impacted groups at Patterson or other

colleges. A similar study focusing on other student groups, such as Native

Americans, Pacific Islanders, former foster youth, formerly-incarcerated students,

veterans, LGBTQ+ students, disabled students, women in STEM, etc. would

continue the vital conversation about validation.

Similarly, it would be worth looking into subgroups within these groups to

get a better intersectional picture of needs. For instance, while this study focused

on male Black and Latino students, this data could be disaggregated further to

perhaps discover other equity gaps within the equity gaps. For example, in my

interview with Chris, he identified as both Latino and transgender. A further study

could examine the intersection between race, gender, and membership in the

LGBTQ+ community. Other groups that might warrant further investigation could

include the experiences male Black and Latino part-time students to male Black

and Latino full-time students could reveal meaningful differences. The same

would be true for morning vs. afternoon vs. night students, students under

twenty-five-old and over twenty-five-old, students who are parents, students who

work more than 30 hours per week, who have part-time vs. full-time instructors,

and other subgroups.

One particular intersection that this study points to as being salient would

be the intersection between race and disability. Of the nine men I interviewed,

three of them mentioned struggling with disabilities in the classroom. The

intersection of race and disability or "DisCrit" is a burgeoning field which has

been studied by scholars like Annamma, Connor, and Ferri (2016), and would be

an excellent avenue for further research. It is likely that many of these other

factors, including disability, contribute substantially to equity gaps in addition to

just race and gender alone. By exploring these intersecting factors in future

research, more proverbial fences could be identified and dismantled.

Another specific group to study would be students who passed the course,

but with a C, as opposed to an A or B. In the quantitative portion of the study, for

instance, in Figure 9, male Black and Latino students who scored a C in English

100 reported lower validation than the students who earned an A or a B, but also

lower validation than those who failed the course. In contrast, Figure 8, which

included all students, showed almost a straight line between the level of

validation reported and the grade received in the class. It is not clear from this

study why male Black and Latino students who earned a C in the course

experienced such a low amount of validation compared to other groups.

Additional quantitative or qualitative research could investigate these differences

in more depth to discover why these students had such varied experiences.

Additionally, it would be wise to explore faculty validation in different

disciplines, particularly math. I limited myself to the English department at

Patterson, partly because of my own connection to English as an English professor myself. But as much as AB 705 has shifted how English is taught in California, it has shifted the landscape in math just as much, sometimes more so. Alternatively, it would be worth exploring how validation might look different in the context of different disciplines—even those not directly impacted by AB 705.

Explore the Role of Covid-19 on Validation and Student Success

Another recommendation would be to research the way Covid-19 has affected and continues to affect students, including male Black and Latino students. The quantitative phase of the study, taking place in fall 2019, was unaffected by Covid-19. However, the qualitative portion, which took place during spring and summer 2020, was directly impacted by Covid-19 and subsequent campus shutdowns. As fall 2019 was originally envisioned as the opportunity to establish a new baseline with regard to implementing changes associated with AB 705, the massive alteration of college-as-usual in spring 2020 will no doubt alter norms going forward. While I collected anecdotal observations from some faculty, staff, and students about the challenges of Covid-19, these are worthy of studying more in-depth. Researching what validation looks like in an online environment would also be important. Among the myriad impacts of Covid-19 is the significant proliferation of online instruction. While my study included some students from several web-enhanced and hybrid courses, it included no students from online-only courses. Seeing what relationship, if any, the online-only environment has on validation, is more important now than ever before.

<u>Further Explore Potential of Cultural Engagement Programs.</u>

Cultural engagement programs such as Puente or Ujima offer many promising practices for their students. These programs' culturally-affirming, engaging curricula and committed faculty members are very validating to students. While Patterson offered a small number of sections of English 100 and English 100+99 as part of the Ujima and Puente programs in fall 2019, none of them were ultimately included in the sample of classes surveyed, nor were any of the men I interviewed enrolled in them. Through a close analysis of these programs, colleges, including Patterson, could build on their successes and scale them up, or apply their best practices to the larger student population.

<div align="center">Conclusion</div>

For a problem as complex as equity in education, innovative solutions are necessary. California's AB 705 has mandated a variety of innovative solutions, and from this study at Patterson College, they are yielding positive results. "Removing the fence" of remedial course sequences and standardized high-stakes placement in favor corequisite composition courses has, as this study demonstrates, provided positive results in both traditional and non-traditional success measures, in the structural, curricular, andragogical, and relational domains. And qualitatively, the lived experiences of the students I interviewed demonstrate precisely what a faculty member—regardless of their individual color, gender, or orientation—can do to support and validate Black and Latino

men in their classrooms to make a positive difference.

APPENDIX A

QUANTITATIVE INSTRUMENT

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College Experience Survey
Patterson College
Fall 2019

You have the right to not answer any or all of the questions in this survey. This first page will cover your answers so that no one else will see what you have said. We are gathering information on how college experiences affect students' feelings about being able to succeed in college. Please share information about your own experiences. Your answers will be kept confidential. [Note: The survey has been reformatted to conserve space.]

My Student ID # is _____

CIRCLE THE ONE ANSWER THAT FITS BEST:

Circle the one answer that fits best

When I think about this class, I would say that…	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
1. My instructor has helped me to believe in myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I feel accepted as a person by my instructor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. My instructor has talked with me about my personal goals at this college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My instructor seems to genuinely care how I am doing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My instructor understands that students come from different backgrounds	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. My instructor is interested in what I have to offer in class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I am encouraged by my instructor to openly share my views in class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My instructor shows that he or she believes in my ability to do the class work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My instructor knows who I am	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. My instructor is willing to take as long as needed to help me understand the class material	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I feel accepted as a capable student by my instructor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. My instructor makes me feel as though I bring valuable ideas to class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I interact with my instructor outside of class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. My instructor is willing to give me individual help when needed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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15. Even if the work in my class is hard, I can learn it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. It seems like my instructor really cares about whether I am learning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. People of color are encouraged to contribute to the class discussion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Circle the one answer that fits best

When I think about this class, I would say that…	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
18. If I have enough time, I can do a good job on all my coursework	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I am encouraged to share life experiences when they relate to class material	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I can generally express my honest opinions in class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. My instructor provides lots of written feedback on the assignments I turn in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I feel like my personal and family history is valued in class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Women are encouraged to contribute to the class discussion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I feel as though I am treated equally to other students	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. My instructor makes an effort to make his or her class interesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Circle the one answer that fits best

When I think about this college in general, I would say that…	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
26. I see myself as a part of the campus community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I'm certain I can do almost all the work in college if I don't give up	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. My instructor encourages students to become involved on campus	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I'm certain I can master the skills taught at this college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I am planning on returning to this college for the Spring of 2020	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I can do almost all the work in college if I don't give up	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. I feel that I am a member of the campus community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I expect to complete a degree or certificate at this college	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. I feel a sense of belonging in this class	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Circle the one answer that fits best

When I think about this class, I would say that…	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

35. My instructor is easily accessible outside of the classroom or office	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. I can do even the hardest work if I try	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. I've thought of my instructor as a mentor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. My instructor remembers my name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. I am certain I can figure out how to do the most difficult coursework	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Circle the one answer that fits best

In your experiences in this class, how often have you done each of the following?	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Never
Used e-mail to communicate with your instructor	1	2	3	4
Discussed grades or assignments with your instructor	1	2	3	4
Talked about career plans with your instructor	1	2	3	4

Circle the one answer that fits best

In your experiences in this class, how often have you done each of the following?	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Never
Discussed ideas from your readings or classes with your instructor outside of class	1	2	3	4
Received prompt feedback (written or oral) from your instructor on your performance	1	2	3	4
Worked with your instructor on activities other than coursework	1	2	3	4

Please share some information about you. Circle the answer that best describes you.
   a. What is your gender?
      a. Male
      b. Female
      c. Other
   b. What is your racial/ethnic background? (mark the one best response)
      a. White
      b. Black or African American
      c. Hispanic/Latinx
      d. Asian or Pacific Islander
      e. American Indian or Alaska Native
      f. Other _____
   c. What is your age? _____
   d. I last attended high school in (city/state/country)_____ and my high school GPA was _____
   e. When did you first start taking courses at this college? Month_____ Year_____
   f. Over the entire time you have been enrolled in college (here and elsewhere), how many college credit hours have you earned? _____
   g. How many college credit hours are you taking this semester? _____

h. What is your overall college GPA? _____
i. What is (or will be) your college major? _____
j. Which statement best describes the highest level one of your parents reached in school?
   a. Did not attend high school
   b. Attended but didn't finish high school
   c. Completed high school
   d. Completed some college
   e. Earned an Associate's Degree
   f. Earned a Bachelor's Degree
   g. Earned a Graduate Degree
   h. Don't know
k. Which best describes your annual household income?
   a. Under $15,000 per year
   b. $15,000-$30,000 per year
   c. $30,000-$45,000 per year
   d. $45,000-$60,000 per year
   e. $60,000-$75,000 per year
   f. $75,000-$90,000 per year
   g. Over $90,000 per year
   h. Don't know
l. Are you a part of EOPS at Patterson College?
   a. Yes
   b. No
   c. Don't know
m. In high school, did you receive free or reduced-cost lunches?
   a. Yes
   b. No
   c. Don't know
n. Are you currently, or have you ever been a member of the United States military?
   a. Yes
   b. No
o. Have you ever been part of the U.S. foster care system?
   a. Yes
   b. No
p. I expect to complete a degree or certificate from this college or transfer (check one):
   a. At the end of this semester
   b. Within one year
   c. In more than a year, but less than two years
   d. In more than two years
   e. I don't expect to complete a degree or certificate or transfer
q. I consider a language other than English to be my first or primary language
   a. Yes
   b. No
r. Have you ever attempted to take English 100 before?
   a. No, this is my first attempt
   b. Yes, I have attempted it once before at Patterson College
   c. Yes, I have attempted it more than once before at Patterson College
   d. Yes, I have attempted to take it once before at another college
   e. Yes, I have attempted to take it more than once at another college or colleges

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s. Are you enrolled in English 99? If so, please select the reason that best explains why you enrolled in English 99.
   a. No, I am not enrolled in English 99
   b. Yes, I was recommended to enroll based on my placement
   c. Yes, I was required to enroll based on my placement
   d. Yes, I was recommended by a counselor to take the course
   e. Yes, I thought it would benefit me academically
   f. Yes, the class worked well with my schedule
   g. Yes, I was interested in taking a course from this instructor
   h. Yes, (another reason): _____

t. Choose the option that best describes your current math level
   a. I have completed part or all of my college-level math requirements by completing one or more of these college-level Math courses: Math 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, or 13
   b. I am currently in the process of completing my math requirement, and I am enrolled in the following math course(s) _____
   c. I have not yet completed my math requirements at Patterson, but the next math course I need to take is _____
   d. I'm not sure if I have completed my math requirements and/or I'm not sure what the next math course I need to take is.

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS SURVEY!!

Recruitment Form for Qualitative Phase

Removing the Fence?: A Mixed-Methods Study of Corequisite Courses, Faculty Validation, and Equity for Men of Color in Community College English

Thanks for participating in this survey!

Next year, after I have finished this study, I would like to talk to some students more in-depth to help me get a more complete picture of how students experienced English 100 and/or English 99 this semester.

If selected, I would like to interview you about your experiences in English 100 and/or English 99 in fall 2019. This interview would be about 45 minutes long, and I can work around your schedule to find a time and place that works for you to conduct the interview. All interview participants will receive a $20 gift card to the retailer or restaurant of their choice for their time.

If you would be willing to be contacted for an interview, please fill in the following information:

Name:_____

E-mail:_____

Understand that providing your information above is not a commitment to participate in an interview. Also keep in mind that you don't have to participate in this research if you don't want to – it's completely up to you. And even if you participate, you won't have to answer any questions you don't want to, and you can quit at any time. I will keep your name and any answers to my interview questions 100% confidential.

(Instrument Developed by Daniel Hogan, adapted with permission from Barnett (2007))

APPENDIX B

COLLEGE EXPERIENCE SURVEY

APPENDIX B

COLLEGE EXPERIENCE SURVEY

Below is the original instrument, used with permission, form Barnett (2007).

You have the right to not answer any or all of the questions in this survey. This first page will cover your answers so that no one else will see what you have said. We are gathering information on how college experiences affect students' feelings about being able to succeed in college. Please share information about your own experiences. Your answers will be kept confidential. [*Editor's note*: The survey has been reformatted to conserve space.]

CIRCLE THE ONE ANSWER THAT FITS BEST:

When I think about the classes I have taken at this college, I would say that ...	Very strongly disagree	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Very strongly agree
1. I have had at least one instructor at this college who helped me to believe in myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. I feel accepted as a person by my instructors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. At least one instructor has talked with me about my personal goals at this college.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. My instructors seem to genuinely care how I am doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. My instructors understand that students come from different backgrounds.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Most instructors are interested in what I have to offer in class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I am encouraged by my instructors to openly share my views in class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. My instructors show that they believe in my ability to do the class work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. My instructors know who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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When I think about the classes I have taken at this college, I would say that ...	Very strongly disagree	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Very strongly agree
10. My instructors are willing to take as long as needed to help me understand the class material.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I feel accepted as a capable student by my instructors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. My instructors make me feel as though I bring valuable ideas to class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I interact with my instructors outside of class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. My instructors are willing to give me individual help when needed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Even if the work in my classes is hard, I can learn it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. It seems like my instructors really care about whether I am learning.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. People of color are encouraged to contribute to the class discussion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

CIRCLE THE ONE ANSWER THAT FITS BEST:

When I think about the classes I have taken at this college, I would say that ...	Very strongly disagree	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Very strongly agree
18. If I have enough time, I can do a good job on all of my coursework.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. I am encouraged to share life experiences when they relate to the class material.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I can generally express my honest opinions in my classes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21. My instructors provide lots of written feedback on the assignments I turn in.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. I feel like my personal and family history is valued in class.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Women are encouraged to contribute to the class discussion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. I feel as though I am treated equally to other students.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. My instructors make an effort to make their classes interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

CIRCLE THE ONE ANSWER THAT FITS BEST:

When I think about this college in general, I would say that . . .	Very strongly disagree	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Very strongly agree
26. I see myself as a part of the campus community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I'm certain I can do almost all the work in college if I don't give up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. My instructors encourage students to become involved on campus.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I'm certain I can master the skills taught at this college.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. I am planning on returning to this college for the Fall 2006 semester.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I can do almost all the work in college if I don't give up.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. I feel that I am a member of the campus community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I expect to complete a degree or certificate at this college.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

When I think about this college in general, I would say that . . .	Very strongly disagree	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	Very strongly agree
34. I feel a sense of belonging to the campus community.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. My instructors are easily accessible outside of their classrooms or offices.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. I can do even the hardest coursework if I try.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. I've had one or more instructors at this college whom I thought of as a mentor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. My instructors generally remember my name.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. I'm certain I can figure out how to do the most difficult coursework.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

CIRCLE THE ONE ANSWER THAT FITS BEST:

In your experiences at this college, how often have you done each of the following:	Very often	Often	Sometimes	Never
Used email to communicate with an instructor	1	2	3	4
Discussed grades or assignments with an instructor	1	2	3	4
Talked about career plans with an instructor or advisor	1	2	3	4
Discussed ideas from your readings or classes with instructors outside of class	1	2	3	4
Received prompt feedback (written or oral) from instructors on your performance	1	2	3	4
Worked with instructors on activities other than coursework	1	2	3	4

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Please share some information about you:

a.   What is your gender?
        ___ Male
        ___ Female

b.   What is your racial/ethnic background (mark the one best response)?
        ___ White
        ___ Black or African American
        ___ Hispanic/Latino
        ___ Asian or Pacific Islander
        ___ American Indian or Alaska Native
        ___ Other_____

c.   What is your age?_____

d.   I last attended high school in _____ and my high school GPA was ____.   *(city/state/country)*

e.   When did you first start taking courses at this college? Month/year_____

f.   Over the entire time you have been enrolled in college (here and elsewhere), how many college credit hours have you earned? _____

g.   How many college credit hours are you taking this semester?_____

h.   What is your overall college GPA?_____

i.   What is (or will be) your college major?_____

j.   For the purposes of this research, we would like to know whether you return to college in Fall 2006. May we call you next fall to see whether you are enrolled?
        ___ No, I would prefer not to share this information.
        ___ Yes, I _____ can be reached at _____ or
                (first name)   *(phone number)*
        _____.
            (email)

k.   Which statement best describes the highest level your parents reached in school (check one for each parent).

	Mother	Father
Did not attend high school…………………………..	___	___
Attended but didn't finish high school………………	___	___
Completed high school………………………………….	___	___
Completed some college…………………………..	___	___
Earned an associate's degree………………………..	___	___
Earned a bachelor's degree……………………………	___	___
Earned a graduate degree……………………………	___	___
Don't know…………………………………………..	___	___

l.   I expect to complete a degree or certificate from this college (check one):
        ___ At the end of this semester.
        ___ Within one year.
        ___ In more than a year, but less than two years.
        ___ In more than two years.
        ___ I don't expect to complete a degree or certificate.

THANK YOU FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY!!

APPENDIX C

INITIAL MESSAGE TO PATTERSON ENGLISH INSTRUCTORS

APPENDIX C

INITIAL MESSAGE TO PATTERSON ENGLISH INSTRUCTORS

Message to English 100 Instructors to Call for Interview Subjects
English 100 colleagues,

Attached is a message from Dan Hogan, who is working on his doctorate in educational leadership at California State University, San Bernardino. For his dissertation, "Removing the Fence?: A Mixed-Methods Study of Corequisite Courses, Faculty Validation, and Equity for Male Students of Color in Community College English" he is studying the effects of AB 705, specifically how changes at the state level might affect relationships between faculty and male Black and Latino students. With all the changes related to AB 705, Dan's work is an important part of the process to understand how we can continue to serve students to the best of our ability. Understand that while he is studying faculty-student relationships, in no way is his research designed to be an evaluation of any specific instructor. All his research will be kept completely confidential, and all names and identifying information will be hidden with pseudonyms. Neither I nor the department will be privy to any identifying information of either the students in the study, nor their instructors. I believe this is important research, so I hope that you will be able to help Dan in his study. However, you are by no means required by me or the department to assist him.

Sincerely,

Karla Smith,
Department Chair, English
Patterson College

Dear English instructors,

I wanted to inform you about research I am conducting on campus, and I might need your help! This e-mail is just to let you know ahead of the fall semester that I might ask for your participation in my research on the effects of AB 705 on professor-student relationships in English 100 and English 99.

Who? - For those of you who don't know me, my name is Dan Hogan. I've been a college English professor since 2012. For the past year, I have been a doctoral student at Cal State University, San Bernardino studying education. For my dissertation, I have chosen to conduct research here at Patterson.

What? - I am studying the effects of AB 705 on English 100 and English 99, specifically how this big structural change might affect the way that teachers and

students relate to one another, and specifically how this might affect equity for Black and Latino men. I am hoping to administer a survey to a representative sample of English 100 and English 99 classrooms to ask students about their classroom experiences in English 100 and/or 99 along with experiences relating to faculty. I will follow this quantitative portion of the research with in-depth interviews with several students to hear in their own words how they experienced English 100 and/or 99 in a post-AB 705 world.

Where? – I am hoping to conduct my research here at Patterson in your classroom during your English 100 and/or 99 classes. While I will not attempt to visit every classroom, I will use semi-random sampling to attempt to get a broad sample of classes with a diverse mix of part-time and full-time faculty, class time (morning, afternoon, evening), and class meeting days of the week. To survey those students not in a sampled class, I will be creating a digital version of the survey as well, so I can get the contribution of as many students as possible.

When? – I am hoping to conduct my research between November 1st and 18th. This would involve approximately 20 minutes of class time. I am hoping to arrange my class visits with the instructors for my sample of classes in early October.

Why? – Many of us as instructors have unanswered questions and confusion surrounding AB 705. We all want what is best for our students, and we hope that such a big change like AB 705 will lead to positive student success and equity outcomes. But we simply will not know those outcomes unless we do the research. While the office of institutional effectiveness at Patterson can more easily measure outcomes of AB 705 like student success, student GPA, and equity outcomes for who passes the course, these outcome measures do not explain the lived experiences of students in the classroom, nor the work do to help students succeed. My study seeks to examine the ways that faculty members can encourage and validate their students, and how those experiences contribute to the overall success of students, particularly our male students of color.

How? – All instructors value their students, but asking students about their experiences in their classrooms might be uncomfortable, as there is no telling how their responses might reflect on their teachers. I know just as well as you that AB 705 can be scary partly because it means there is extra scrutiny on us as instructors, and I want you to know this: **IN NO WAY IS THIS RESEARCH DESIGNED TO EVALUATE YOU AS A PROFESSOR*, and all information collected in this study will be kept strictly confidential*****; nowhere in the research I am conducting will a professor's name ever appear on the data I will analyze, and even students will only be identifiable by ID number. The research I am conducting is designed to analyze general trends in student attitudes and

their experiences, including how they feel about and relate to their professors; it is not intended as a critique of any individual faculty member. Neither in my dissertation, nor any subsequent published versions of the research (at a professional conference, in print, or in presentation or publications here at Patterson), will I ever name any of the students or professors who participated in the survey. While Dr. Smith and Dean McKenzie have offered their general support to my research, I will not be reporting to them, and they will not have access to the confidential data I will be collecting either. I will be the only person ever to handle student data and information, and their physical surveys will be kept on my person or in a locked filing cabinet at all times; any digital data will be kept in a password-protected laptop and in a password-protected cloud service at all times.

What's Next? – As I continue to prepare for the study, keep your eyes peeled for an e-mail from me in case you are one of the instructors of the classes selected in my sample. While I hope you would help me in my research so that we can better understand how best to serve students, **YOU ARE NOT IN ANY WAY OBLIGATED TO HELP ME OR PARTICIPATE IN ANY WAY.** I know that course schedules are often very full, so if you do not have time for me to administer the survey, or you feel uncomfortable, I will take no offense and select another class. **Whether you choose to participate in this study or not will also be kept strictly confidential.**
If you have any questions about the research at any point in the process, feel free to e-mail me at 0067120234@coyote.csusb.edu or call or text me at (XXX) XXX-XXXX. I'd be more than willing to answer any potential questions.

Thank you for your time,
Sincerely,
Daniel Hogan
Doctoral Candidate, Educational Leadership
California State University, San Bernardino

APPENDIX D

SCRIPT FOR ADMINISTRATION OF THE SURVEY

APPENDIX D

SCRIPT FOR ADMINISTRATION OF THE SURVEY

Researcher:

Hello!

My name is Dan, and I am a doctoral student at Cal State San Bernardino. I'm doing this study for my dissertation. **Note: This study has been approved by the California State University, San Bernardino Institutional Review Board**. At the state level, California has changed a lot about the way community colleges have to teach English. Because of that, I'm trying to learn about how those big changes might affect how students experience their English classes. I would like to ask you to participation in this survey. It should only take about fifteen minutes.

The first thing I am going to do is ask that the professor step out of the room while we do this—this is just so that we can ensure you have complete confidentiality.

(Ask professor to step outside; once professor has left, distribute informed consent forms, using student assistance if necessary)

While you're passing these out, if anyone needs something to write with, just let me know. I have some pens up here. This is what's called an informed consent form, which I need from you so that my research will be valid. Please read this carefully and sign it before you take the survey. The four biggest things I need you to know are these: 1) Your information will be kept completely confidential. As you can see, your professor has left the room, and no one but me will ever know what you've written on this survey. 2) You have to be at least eighteen to participate in the survey for legal reasons. 3) I am asking you in the form whether the college can show me your grade at the end of the course. I'm doing this because I am trying to measure correlations between what students say on the survey and the grade they end up getting in the class. 4) You do not have to participate in this survey if you don't want to, and you can skip any questions. If you decide not to take the survey, feel free to work on homework or your essay. **In no way will your professor ever learn whether you participated in this study, or what you said on the survey. Neither your answers, nor your participation in the study will affect your grade whatsoever.**

When you're done, I'll collect the forms. Does anyone have questions about this part?

(Collect forms and distribute surveys)

Ok, so here's the survey. Answer honestly, and when you're done, go ahead and return it to me. If you have any questions, let me know, and remember that you can skip any question if you feel like it. One last thing: you'll notice is that at the end of the survey, I have a spot where you can give me your contact information. Next year, I will be conducting a few interviews with students to get more information about their experiences. If you would be interested in participating in this section, please fill that section out. If you end up participating in this part next year, you will be given a $20 Subway gift card for their time. If you're not interested, feel free to skip this part.

(Collect surveys)

Thanks for helping me out, everybody! Have a good day!

(Leave classroom)

APPENDIX E

INFORMED CONSENT FOR QUALITATIVE PHASE

APPENDIX E

INFORMED CONSENT FOR QUANTITATIVE PHASE

Removing the Fence?: A Mixed-Methods Study of Corequisite Courses, Faculty

Validation, and Equity for Men of Color in Community College English

PURPOSE: Daniel Hogan, a doctoral candidate in Educational Leadership at California State University, San Bernardino, under the direction of Nancy Acevedo-Gil, PhD, Assistant Professor of Educational Leadership, invites you to participate in a research study. A piece of legislation at the state level, AB 705, has changed the way California community colleges must teach English 100. The purpose of the study is to understand the experiences of Black and Latino men in English 100 at Patterson College in light of these changes, specifically as it relates to the influence of their professors. This project has been approved by the Institutional Review Boards at California State University, San Bernardino.

Overall, this project is designed to help colleges understand the various effects of the statewide legislation. AB 705 is intended to advance both student success and equity, and this study is partly designed to explore how it achieves its intended goals. Furthermore, this study is a part of an ongoing discussion about how faculty can better serve students in achieving student success and equity.

DESCRIPTION: Attached is a survey asking you about your experiences in this class. It will take approximately 15 minutes to fill out. Furthermore, I would like to follow up at the end of the semester and see the eventual course grade you received in this class. You will be identifiable by student ID number only.

PARTICIPATION: I am seeking the participation of any and all students enrolled in English 100 and/or English 99 at Patterson College for fall 2019 who are eighteen years of age or older. Persons under the age of eighteen cannot participate in the study. Your participation is completely voluntary. You do not have to be in this study and you do not have to answer any questions you do not wish to answer. You may skip or not answer any questions and can freely withdraw from participation at any time.

CONFIDENTIALITY: I will do everything I can to protect your confidentiality. Specifically, your name will never be used in any dissemination of the work (e.g., my dissertation, or any subsequent articles or presentations based on this study). During data analysis, your information will only be identifiable by student ID number, and your professor's name will not appear at all. Upon dissemination of this research, even your ID number will be withheld, so there should be no way to identify you whatsoever. Furthermore, your responses will be kept on my person

or in a secure, locked filing cabinet; any digital data will be kept in a password-protected laptop, and backed up on a password-protected cloud service. Your personal responses will never be shared with your instructor or the college. On December 31st, 2024, all physical survey data will be destroyed.

DURATION: The extent of your participation is filling out the attached survey.

RISKS: I do not know of any risks to you in this research, as neither you nor your institution will be identifiable by name. Answering questions about your school experiences, your professor, and your identity may cause discomfort; however, you also have the option to skip questions or opt out of the study at any time.

BENEFITS: I do not know of any way you would benefit directly from taking part in this study, except for your participation helping contribute to researching important issues for serving students in community colleges.

CONTACT: If you have any questions regarding this study, please contact Daniel Hogan at 006712024@coyote.csusb.edu. You may also contact California State University, San Bernardino's Institutional Review Board Office at 909-537-7588, or Dr. Nancy Acevedo-Gil at (909) 537-5623 or nacevedo-gil@csusb.edu

RESULTS: The results of this study will be disseminated through various outlets, primarily in my doctoral dissertation, but potentially in conference presentations and publication. An executive summary of findings will also be provided to research participants and their respective institutions.

CONFIRMATION STATEMENT:

I hereby certify that
   a) I have read the information above and agree to participate in your study.
   b) I am eighteen years of age or older
   c) I agree to allow the Patterson College office of institutional effectiveness to provide the researcher with my final grade in this section of English 100 and/or English 99 as a part of the research project.

SIGNATURE:
Signature: _____ Date: _____

Student ID# _____

APPENDIX F

QUALITATIVE PHASE INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

APPENDIX F

QUALITATIVE PHASE INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Interview description: Interviews will be semi-structured. The interview process will follow the subsequent protocol.

1) Introduction
2) Share purpose of study and provide informed consent form to interviewee
3) Provide interviewee with the opportunity to ask questions and express concerns
4) Upon completion of consent form begin recording and proceed with interview

The following questions will guide the interview:
1. Please tell me a little bit about yourself.
    1. How long have you been a student at Patterson College?
    2. Before Patterson College, how would you describe your experience in high school (or college)?
2. How would you describe yourself as a writer before taking English 100? Now?
3. What do you think are some of the biggest difficulties students have in English 100?
    1. Which aspects of the course did you find the most difficult personally?
4. Tell me about your identity. How would you describe yourself?
    1. As a [student's identity] how would you describe your experience in this class?
    2. How would you describe the experiences you had with your classmates in this class?
5. How would you describe your professor?
    1. How did your professor teach?
        1. Is there anything you particularly liked or disliked about the way your professor taught the class?
        2. Do you think that your experiences with the professor were different from students who were not like you, for example, women in the class or students from another racial background?
    2. How would you compare the way your professor taught to the way other professors teach?
6. Is there anything else you would like to add that would help me understand your experience in English 100?

(For students who took English 99 only)

7. Tell me a little bit about English 99.
    1. What did a typical English 99 class look like?

(For students who passed the course only)
8. Why do you think you were successful in this course?
   1. What, if anything, do you think was your biggest help?

(For students who did not pass the course only)

9. Why do you think you didn't pass the course?
   1. Do you think there's anything that could have gone differently to help you pass?

APPENDIX G

INFORMED CONSENT FOR QUALITATIVE PHASE

APPENDIX G

INFORMED CONSENT FOR QUALITATIVE PHASE

Removing the Fence?: A Mixed-Methods Study of Corequisite Courses, Faculty

Validation, and Equity for Men of Color in Community College English

PURPOSE: Daniel Hogan, a doctoral candidate in Educational Leadership at California State University, San Bernardino, under the direction of Nancy Acevedo-Gil, PhD, Assistant Professor of Educational Leadership, invites you to participate in a research study. A piece of legislation at the state level, AB 705, has changed the way California community colleges must teach English 100. The purpose of the study is to understand the experiences of Black and Latino men in English 100 at Patterson College in light of these changes, specifically as it relates to the influence of their professors. This project has been approved by the Institutional Review Boards at California State University, San Bernardino.

Overall, this project is designed to help colleges understand the various effects of the statewide legislation. AB 705 is intended to advance both student success and equity, and this study is partly designed to explore how it achieves its intended goals. Furthermore, this study is a part of an ongoing discussion about how faculty can better serve students in achieving student success and equity.

DESCRIPTION: If you are a male student who identifies as Black and/or Latino, I would like to interview you about your experiences in English 100 in fall 2019. Your participation in the interview will require approximately 45 minutes. The interviews will be conducted in a format preferable to you, either face-to-face, via telephone, or face-to-face remote conversation using Skype. Interviews will take place between January 20th and February 7th, 2020. The exact time and location of the interview will be at your convenience. I have arranged for a meeting space on campus at Patterson college, but I am willing to go elsewhere. With your permission, all interviews will be audio recorded and transcribed. I will rely on a secure transcription service to help transcribe the interviews, if needed. If you prefer that I transcribe your interview personally, I will transcribe your interview myself. Furthermore, upon completion of the transcript, I will allow you to view the transcript to offer any feedback about what I have recorded.

PARTICIPATION: Your participation is completely voluntary. You do not have to be in this study and you do not have to answer any questions you do not wish to answer. You may skip or not answer any questions and can freely withdraw from participation at any time.

CONFIDENTIALITY: I will do everything I can to protect your confidentiality. Specifically, your name will never be used in any dissemination of the work (e.g., my

dissertation, or any subsequent articles or presentations based on this study). Any identifying details about you, your class, your professor, or your college will be disguised with pseudonyms. Furthermore, I am relying on a secure transcription service to transcribe the interviews, if needed. Lastly, in efforts to protect confidentiality, any data collected will be kept under lock and key and in password-protected computer files. The audio recordings will be destroyed three years after the project has ended.

DURATION: The extent of your participation would include one interview. The interview would last approximately 45 minutes. Following the interview, you would be contacted via e-mail with a copy of your transcript for your consideration. Additionally, you may be contacted via e-mail for follow-up or clarifying questions about your interview. Such an exchange would require no more than ten minutes time.

RISKS: I do not know of any risks to you in this research, as neither you nor your institution will be identifiable by name. Answering questions about your school experiences, your professor, and your identity may cause discomfort; however, you also have the option to skip questions or opt out of the study at any time.

BENEFITS: Upon completion of the interview, you will receive a $20 gift card to Subway restaurants for your time. Otherwise, I do not know of any way you would benefit directly from taking part in this study. Additionally, upon completion of the study, you will be provided with an analysis of an important issue in community colleges.

AUDIO: I understand that this research will be audio recorded. Initials _____

CONTACT: If you have any questions regarding this study, please contact Daniel Hogan at 006712024@coyote.csusb.edu. You may also contact California State University, San Bernardino's Institutional Review Board Office at 909-537-7588, or Dr. Nancy Acevedo-Gil at (909) 537-5623 or nacevedo-gil@csusb.edu

RESULTS: The results of this study will be disseminated through various outlets, primarily in my doctoral dissertation, but potentially in conference presentations and publication. An executive summary of findings will also be provided to research participants and their respective institutions.

CONFIRMATION STATEMENT:
I hereby certify that
    a) I have read the information above and agree to participate in your study.
    b) I am eighteen years of age or older

SIGNATURE:

Signature: _____ Date: _____
Student ID# _____

APPENDIX H

INITIAL FOLLOW-UP FOR QUALITATIVE PHASE

Appendix H

INITIAL FOLLOW-UP MESSAGE FOR QUALITATIVE PHASE

Hello,

My name is Dan Hogan and I'm a doctoral student in Educational Leadership at Cal State San Bernardino. Last semester I visited your English class to distribute a survey about your experiences in English 100 and/or English 99. Now that the fall has passed, I am doing the second phase of my research. I collected over 1,000 student questionnaires to help me understand the big picture of how students experienced English 100 and/or English 99, but now I'd like to talk to some students more in-depth to help me get a more complete picture of how students experienced English 100 and/or English 99 last fall.

You indicated you might be interested in participating in a follow-up interview, so I would like to interview you about your experiences in English 100 and/or English 99 in fall 2019. This interview should be about 30 minutes long, and I can work around your schedule to find a time and place that works for you to conduct the interview. With your permission, all interviews will be audio recorded and transcribed. **I'm hoping to schedule the interviews during the month of March on campus at Patterson, but I would be willing to accommodate you for time, day, and location, as much as I'm able.**

Keep in mind that you don't have to participate in this research if you don't want to – it's completely up to you. And even if you participate, you won't have to answer any questions you don't want to, and you can quit at any time. I will keep your name and any answers to my interview questions 100% confidential. For your time, I will be providing each participant with a $20 gift card to a local restaurant (Chipotle, Subway, etc. -- I will let you choose ahead of time if you'd like).

If you would be willing to participate in this interview, or you'd like more information about my research, please e-mail me at 006712024@coyote.csusb.edu. You can also call or text me at (714) XXX-XXX.

Thanks!

Daniel Hogan

Doctoral Candidate, Educational Leadership

California State University, San Bernardino

Note: **This study has been approved by the California State University, San Bernardino Institutional Review Board**

APPENDIX I

MESSAGE TO CULTURAL ENGAGEMENT CENTERS

Appendix I

MESSAGE TO CULTURAL ENGAGEMENT CENTERS

Dear _____

As you might have heard, my name is Dan, and I'm currently working on my doctorate at CSUSB, and I recently ran into a road block in my dissertation study I've been conducting on campus. I thought you might be able to offer some insight.

Last semester, in my study, I surveyed 1,000+ students, and I was hoping to do around 12 follow-up interviews, specifically with Black and Latino men, to hear their experiences first-hand and give a voice to the numbers on the spreadsheets. On the back of my survey, around 70 Black and Latino men gave me their emails indicating they would be interested in a follow-up interview, but then Covid-19 happened, and after repeated attempts to reach out, I have only been able to interview five. While I always knew it might be hard to get participants, I know students are going through a lot right now, and my e-mail is likely a drop in the bucket in an avalanche of other info.

I was recently able to amend my research study to ask faculty and staff for help in recruiting more participants. I'm hoping that if students hear about my study from someone they already know and trust, vs. just another email in their inbox from a random (white) guy they saw once last semester, they might be more willing to participate.

The long and short of what I'm asking students for is around a 30-minute confidential (for both student and professor) interview via phone or Zoom about students' experiences in English 100 and/or 99 in fall 2019. I'm giving students a $20 gift card to the retailer or restaurant of their choice for helping me out. I'm looking for students both who took English 100-standalone and English 100+99 courses, students who passed the course and students who failed the course, etc. The questions ask broadly about student experiences, but ultimately attempt to learn specific validating professor practices students experienced that helped them succeed (or the opposite, which I am also interested in, though my focus in the study will be on best practices *to do*, vs. *not do)*.

Ultimately, I wanted to see if you had any insights on how I might approach recruiting more students, or talking to faculty and staff about this. I want to make sure that the voices of our men of color are represented well in my research on English 100, but I also know that the way I go about messaging, both to students and to faculty/staff is important as well.

If you could offer any advice, I would be very grateful,

- Daniel Hogan
Doctoral Candidate, Cal State San Bernardino

APPENDIX J

MESSAGE TO ENGLISH FACULTY AND STAFF

APPENDIX J

MESSAGE TO ENGLISH FACULTY AND STAFF

English faculty,

As many of you know, I am currently working on my dissertation at Cal State San Bernardino. I am studying student experiences in English 100/99, specifically surrounding equity for male Black and Latino students. Last semester I surveyed over 1,000 students (in many of your classes) and dozens of male Black and Latino students indicated they would be interested in a follow-up interview (so I can pair real student voices along with my spreadsheets and data analysis). But since COVID-19 and the transition online, I've had a hard time getting in touch with students for those follow-up interview--I know my e-mail is probably a drop in the bucket in online learning, and the last thing students are worrying about right now. I hoped for around 12 interviews, but I've only been able to do about 7.

The long and short of what I'm asking students for is around a 30-minute confidential interview (I will keep the student's name confidential, along with their professor's name, if they mention it) via phone or Zoom about students' experiences in English 100 and/or 99 in fall 2019. I'm offering students a $20 gift card to the retailer or restaurant of their choice for helping me out. I'm hoping to speak with male Black and Latino students both who took English 100-standalone and English 100+99 courses, students who passed the course and students who failed the course, etc. The questions ask broadly about student experiences, but ultimately attempt to learn specific validating professor practices students experienced that helped them succeed (or the opposite, though my research focus in the study will be on best practices *to do*, vs. *not do)*.

At this point, I want to make sure my research represents the voices of our male students of color well. If you would be willing to share the attached flyer with your students (your current or former English 100 students, or your English 200 students) I would greatly appreciate it.

APPENDIX K

MESSAGE TO STUDENTS

APPENDIX K

MESSAGE TO STUDENTS

Did you take English 100 in Fall 2019?

SHARE YOUR EXPERIENCE

I am conducting research to help the college best serve male students of color in English 100. If you are a Black or Latino man who took English 100 last semester, I'd love to interview you to learn about your experiences.

Participants will receive a $20 gift card to the retailer of their choice for participating in a 30-minute confidential phone or Zoom interview.

Call or text Dan Hogan at (714)XXX-XXXX for more info. or to participate. Or e-mail him @ XXXXXXXXXXXXXXX@XXX.XXX .

This study has been approved by the California State University, San Bernardino Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX L

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

APPENDIX L

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

November 3, 2019

CSUSB INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
Administrative/Exempt Review Determination
Status: Determined Exempt
IRB-FY2020-66

Mr. Daniel Hogan and Prof. Acevedo-Gil
COE - Doctoral Studies
California State University, San Bernardino
5500 University Parkway
San Bernardino, California 92407

Dear Mr. Hogan and Prof. Acevedo-Gil:

Your application to use human subjects, titled "Removing the Fence?: A Mixed-Methods Study of Corequisite Courses, the Relational Domain, and Equity for Men of Color in Community College English" has been reviewed and approved by the Chair of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of California State University, San Bernardino has determined that your application meets the requirements for exemption from IRB review Federal requirements under 45 CFR 46. As the researcher under the exempt category you do not have to follow the requirements under 45 CFR 46 which requires annual renewal and documentation of written informed consent which are not required for the exempt category. However, exempt status still requires you to attain consent from participants before conducting your research as needed. Please ensure your CITI Human Subjects Training is kept up-to-date and current throughout the study.

- Please submit your final approval letter from ▮▮▮ after it is received by submitting a modification through Cayuse.

The CSUSB IRB has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval notice does not replace any departmental or additional approvals which may be required.

Your responsibilities as the researcher/investigator reporting to the IRB Committee the following three requirements highlighted below. Please note failure of the investigator to notify the IRB of the below requirements may result in disciplinary action.

- Submit a protocol modification (change) form if any changes (no matter how minor) are proposed in your study for review and approval by the IRB before implemented in your study to ensure the risk level to participants has not increased,
- If any unanticipated/adverse events are experienced by subjects during your research, and
- Submit a study closure through the Cayuse IRB submission system when your study has ended.

The protocol modification, adverse/unanticipated event, and closure forms are located in the Cayuse IRB System. If you have any questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Michael Gillespie, the Research Compliance Officer. Mr. Michael Gillespie can be reached by phone at (909) 537-7588, by fax at (909) 537-7028, or by email at mgillesp@csusb.edu. Please include your application approval identification number (listed at the top) in all correspondence.

If you have any questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Michael Gillespie, the Research Compliance Officer. Mr. Michael Gillespie can be reached by phone at (909) 537-7588, by fax at (909) 537-7028, or by email at mgillesp@csusb.edu. Please include your application approval identification number (listed at the top) in all correspondence.

Best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Donna Garcia

Donna Garcia, Ph.D., IRB Chair
CSUSB Institutional Review Board

DG/MG

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