

### Journal of Geoscience Education



ISSN: (Print) (Online) Journal homepage: <a href="https://www.tandfonline.com/loi/ujge20">https://www.tandfonline.com/loi/ujge20</a>

## Activation of the Multicontext model in a fieldbased program for traditionally underserved students

Lily S. Pfeifer, Michael J. Soreghan, Kelly K. Feille, Gerilyn S. Soreghan, Gary S. Weissmann, Robert A. Ibarra & Wesley A. Stroud

To cite this article: Lily S. Pfeifer , Michael J. Soreghan , Kelly K. Feille , Gerilyn S. Soreghan , Gary S. Weissmann , Robert A. Ibarra & Wesley A. Stroud (2021) Activation of the Multicontext model in a field-based program for traditionally underserved students, Journal of Geoscience Education, 69:1, 85-95, DOI: 10.1080/10899995.2020.1838850

To link to this article: <a href="https://doi.org/10.1080/10899995.2020.1838850">https://doi.org/10.1080/10899995.2020.1838850</a>







# Activation of the Multicontext model in a field-based program for traditionally underserved students

Lily S. Pfeifer<sup>a</sup> (b), Michael J. Soreghan<sup>a</sup> (b), Kelly K. Feille<sup>b</sup> (b), Gerilyn S. Soreghan<sup>a</sup> (b), Gary S. Weissmann<sup>c</sup> (b), Robert A. Ibarra<sup>d</sup>, and Wesley A. Stroud<sup>e</sup> (b)

<sup>a</sup>School of Geosciences, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma, USA; <sup>b</sup>Jeannine Rainbolt College of Education, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma, USA; <sup>c</sup>Department of Earth and Planetary Sciences, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico, USA; <sup>d</sup>Department of Sociology, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico, USA; <sup>e</sup>Research and Learning Services, Oklahoma State University, Norman, Oklahoma, USA

#### **ABSTRACT**

This paper presents results from our multi-year NSF-IRES program: a four-week, field-based summer program involving the participation and mentorship of U.S. undergraduate geoscience cohorts to develop knowledge and skills in sedimentary geology while immersed in an international research collaboration. Student participants in our program are predominantly firstgeneration college students, largely from historically underrepresented groups in STEM, and most have a "high context" orientation. Academic culture (especially in STEM) tends to favor the "low-context" approach of scientific inquiry (task-oriented, linear, individuated), but many students bring different cultural values from personal or community-based experiences that tend to be higher-context (process-oriented, systems-thinking, integrated). Herein we discuss how activating a Multicontext model—one that recognizes and includes a broader spectrum of "knowing and doing"—resulted in measurable advances, especially for higher-context students, from the first to second year of the program in terms of self-efficacy in field and analytical competencies, as well as in student engagement. To balance cultural frameworks, specific implementations in the field curriculum included (1) a non-linear, learning cycle-structured orientation prior to fieldwork that clearly introduces research objectives early, and promotes scientific inquiry and peer-to-peer interaction, (2) frequent discussions during fieldwork to place low-context tasks such as making field measurements into a broader context, and (3) a pre-defined mini-project option that allows students to set an individual intent for growth as a scientist in this experience. Leaders of similar programs to NSF IRES that support undergraduate students from underrepresented groups in STEM research might enhance program quality, student engagement, and inclusivity by recognizing and adapting to a broader spectrum of culturally-based learning perspectives. This study represents a small segment within the Multicontext system for redefining and expanding diversity and inclusion—a theory that has broad implications for the entirety of academic culture.

#### **ARTICLE HISTORY**

Received 22 November 2019 Revised 29 August 2020 Accepted 10 October 2020

#### **KEYWORDS**

Context diversity; Multicontext; undergraduate geoscience education; 5E learning; field education

#### Purpose and learning goals

At all degree levels, the geosciences remain the least diverse of all STEM fields, with almost no change in number of geoscience PhDs attained by Native American and Black (non-Hispanic) minorities in over 40 years (Bernard & Cooperdock, 2018; Dutt, 2020). Weissmann et al. (2019), Chávez and Longerbeam (2016), and Ibarra (1999, 2001) describe how activation of Multicontext Theory can broaden academic (and geoscience) culture to create an inclusive environment that values a *spectrum* of cultural strengths for all students. Participants in our month-long, summer field program (NSF-IRES) are students from racial/ethnic minority groups, low socioeconomic status, and/or are nontraditional students, and mostly have a "high context"

orientation (discussed below). We applied a Multicontext model to instructional sequence design in the second year of the program as an intervention to evaluate whether action taken to recognize a broader spectrum of context orientation could positively impact the participating student cohort. Success of this adjustment is defined by measurable advances in student self-efficacy for all program participants. This paper presents a comparison of student survey responses and auxiliary qualitative data from the first and second field seasons (FS1 and FS2, respectively) in order to evaluate how adjustments in instructional sequence design affected student engagement and self-efficacy. Our results suggest that adopting this approach could make a significant positive difference in analogous programs.

CONTACT Lily S. Pfeifer lily.s.pfeifer@gmail.com School of Geosciences, University of Oklahoma, 100 East Boyd Street, Suite 710, Norman, Oklahoma 73069. USA

• Supplemental data for this article can be accessed at the publisher's website.



#### **Literature context**

#### The Multicontext theory

Both the challenges of science education in underrepresented communities, and in turn, the low numbers of underrepresented people in STEM fields relate largely to the incompatibility between traditional science cultures and cultures of underrepresented groups (Aikenhead, 1996, 1997; Murray, 1997; Riggs, 1998; Riggs & Semken, 2001; Semken & Morgan, 1997; Wolfe & Riggs, 2017). As the numbers of minority populations grow and scholarship programs for underrepresented groups in geoscience are more available, this cultural dichotomy becomes increasingly apparent. Educational research has shown a continued motivation to find ways to "make teaching and learning relevant and responsive to the languages, literacies, and cultural practices of students across categories of difference and (in)equality" (Paris, 2012 p. 93, and references therein), but academic culture is slow to adapt. Hall (1959, 1966, 1976) defined the cultural context of people from different backgrounds along a spectrum according to the way they prefer to approach, interpret and perceive information according to family or community influences. The defining characteristics of high (HC) vs. low (LC) context are summarized in Table 1. Academic culture (especially in STEM) favors the "low-context" approach of scientific inquiry as articulated by Weissmann et al. (2019), Ibarra (1999, 2001), and others (Chávez & Longerbeam, 2016; Halverson, 1993), but many students (e.g. women and underrepresented minority populations) bring different cultural values from personal or community-based experiences that tend to be higher-context (Chávez & Longerbeam, 2016; Hall, 1959, 1966, 1976; Ibarra, 2001). Low-context cultures tend to be task-oriented, apply linear thought processes, and compartmentalize information, whereas high-context cultures tend to be processoriented, think in terms of systems, and value information in a broader context and with integrated topics. Low-context cultures require less social context to interact and interpret

the world than high-context cultures (Hall, 1976). Though they are termed "low" and "high," both are equally valued and valid (and complimentary) approaches to understanding and interacting with the world and should not be used to stereotype (Weissmann et al., 2019). Furthermore, Ibarra (2001) recognized that despite an inclination for either end of the context spectrum, individuals often have the flexibility to act across the spectrum situationally or through time.

The Multicontext Theory has broad implications for redefining and expanding diversity and inclusion within the entire system of prevailing academic culture in the United States (see Weissmann et al., 2019), but this paper specifically emphasizes the impact of balanced cultural frameworks for teaching effectively at a "classroom level" in the specific academic community of geoscience. Chávez Longerbeam (2016) described how teaching and learning relationships are embedded in culture and noted methods for teaching on a continuum, from individuated (LC) to integrated (HC) world views, in order to engage the cultural strengths of all learners. To teach with a mixed, Multicontexted framework—one that recognizes, embraces, and includes a broader spectrum of "knowing and doing" (Ibarra, 2001; Weissmann et al., 2019)—enriches learning, fosters a sense of belonging (Moore, 2020), provides more equal opportunities for all students to thrive in academia, and creates a more well-rounded and dynamic workforce in STEM.

#### A note about field education as Multicontexted potential

Many have recognized that field experiences in geoscience are more effective at helping students to understand concepts than classroom-based courses (e.g. Boyle et al., 2007; Feig et al., 2019; Orion & Hofstein, 1994; Riggs et al., 2009; Stokes & Boyle, 2009; Thrift, 1975; Waldron et al., 2016; Whitmeyer et al., 2009) but the measurements of educational benefits are difficult to quantify. Streule and Craig

Table 1. Summary of high context (HC) and low context (LC) cultural values modified from Weissmann et al. (2019), Chávez and Longerbeam (2016), and Ibarra (2001).

Thinking style

LC	HC		
Information compartmentalized/possibly separate from context	Information only meaningful when evaluated in context with integrated topics		
Examination of isolated ideas valued over real world application	Real world application of knowledge valued over examination of isolated ideas		
Linear thinking and analysis	Interconnected (nonlinear) systems thinking and analysis		
Interact using direct communication and fact	Interact using indirect communication and embellishment of fact		
Task oriented (success evaluated on completion of task)	Process oriented (success evaluated on how well group conducted work)		
Time - emphasis on schedules, timelines, deadlines	Time - Time may not fit in a specific schedule; deadlines are flexible		
Space - personal property is shared less	Space - personal property is shared more		
	Teaching style		
LC	HC		
Individual	Social context		
Isolated components and their attributes	Systems, relationships and connections		
Less interactive	Interactive		
Teacher-oriented	Student-oriented		
Theory before application	Application before theory		
Multiple choice	Open-ended, place-based		
Small to big picture: Understand concept and process first then	Big to small picture: Understand purpose first; concepts without context are		
determine how findings fit into context.	challenging.		



Table 2. Context inventory survey results (Halverson, 1993; Supplemental Materials) and corresponding demographic information for students in FS1 and FS2.

	HC/LC	First gen/low income	Native American, Hispanic, Black	Female	Other (LGBTQ, parent status, age)	FS
Student 1	Low	Х		х		FS1
Student 2	High	x	x	X	x	FS1
Student 3	High	x	x	X	x	FS1
Student 4	High	x	x	X	x	FS1
Student 5	Low	x			x	FS2
Student 6	High	x	x	X		FS2
Student 7	High	x	x	x		FS2
Student 8	Low		X	x		FS2

(2016) and Kortz et al. (2020) attributed the value of field education in the context of the social framework it provides: one where students develop independent thinking skills, versatility, and self-efficacy. Mogk and Goodwin (2012) posited that it is the immersive nature of learning in the field that allows it to be so effective, and similarly, Elkins and Elkins (2007) suggested the social novelty of the field setting motivates student learning. However, it is important to consider that inaccessibility, unfamiliarity, or unappealing perceptions of fieldwork conditions and logistics introduce barriers for many (O'Connell & Holmes, 2011; Sherman-Morris & Mcneal, 2016). Integration of field-based training, for example, in small liberal arts courses (e.g. Knapp et al., 2006) or Earth science education programs designed for adult learners in Indigenous communities (e.g. Riggs, 2005; Semken & Morgan, 1997), has shown to be broadly impactful when appropriately applied for the student population.

Compton (2016; p. 1) posited that "field studies are founded on three kinds of information": (1) Objective data: simple, straightforward facts from direct observation and measurement, (2) Interpretive data: founded on perception and experience, where genetic insight clarifies a host of interrelated data, and (3) Age relations: organizing facts and interpretations into an order of events. Note the symmetry of factual (detailed, operational, observational, literal) and philosophical (interpretive, interrelated, contexted, imaginative) data: A Multicontext unity. There is space in the field for students across the spectrum to practice their strengths, and it requires flexibility to adapt to their non-preferred context (high context learners must be meticulous about detailed descriptions and data acquisition; low context learners must be able to interconnect past environments and depositional systems). Field education can be taught with a very low-context approach, but education in the field setting has already presented us with an ideal potential for balanced cultural frameworks in teaching—We just have to activate it.

#### Study population and setting

Landscapes of Deep Time in the Red Earth of France (NSF International Research Experience for Students) is a fourweek, field-based summer program that aims to mentor U.S. undergraduate science students from underserved populations in geological research. Planned as a three-year project, it involves recruitment of a new undergraduate cohort for each season and includes a stipend in addition to full financial support (for travel and living expenses). The program is designed to mentor students in developing basic skillsets (e.g. sedimentologic field techniques and analyses) while being exposed to an interdisciplinary research collaboration and international cultural experience. Initially, recruitment was focused on Native American populations in Oklahoma, but we found local recruitment state-wide to be a challenge owing to the narrow applicant pool and the cultural burden of international travel requiring an extended period of time away from home (e.g. family and tribal obligations). Native American students are the least likely group to attend college or participate in study abroad programs (Field, 2016; Wanger et al., 2012) owing to a desire for support systems that recognize and align values with those of their families and communities (Guillory, 2009; HeavyRunner & DeCelles, 2002). Due to the low response rate from local Native American communities, the recruitment and participation of students expanded nationwide through advertising with the Geoscience Alliance, GeoForce, and other geoscience society forums (e.g. Geological Society of America, American Geophysical Union, NSF Research Experiences for Undergraduate students, Earth Science Women's Network, American Indian Science and Engineering Society). The FS1 and FS2 student cohorts (Table 2; n = 4 per summer, n = 8total) were composed of undergraduates (rising juniors and seniors) pursuing a B.S. or B.A. in geoscience (or natural resources) where 7/8 were first-generation college students, 7/8 were women, 6/8 were Native American, Hispanic, or African American, and about half were also either nontraditional students in the sense of age, sexual orientation, or parental status. Students originated from a wide range of rural, suburban, and urban communities. According to the cultural context inventory (Halverson, 1993), the majority (5/8) were high-context-preferred, and the others were lowcontext-preferred (as assessed at the beginning of the field season). Academic ranks varied, but most (6/8) students were rising seniors. Previous backgrounds in relevant coursework, undergraduate research or field experience varied considerably by student (ranging from training at large universities with formal geoscience majors to smaller colleges or tribal schools with integrated environmental programs), and slightly by cohort (with FS2 students being slightly more experienced on average upon entry).

#### Materials and implementation: Activation of the Multicontext theory

Instructional sequences (Figure 1) were developed prior to two separate four-week field seasons of the IRES program (FS1 and FS2 respectively). The FS1 curriculum was designed with little focus paid to learning philosophies and retrospect, the pedagogical goals and itinerary

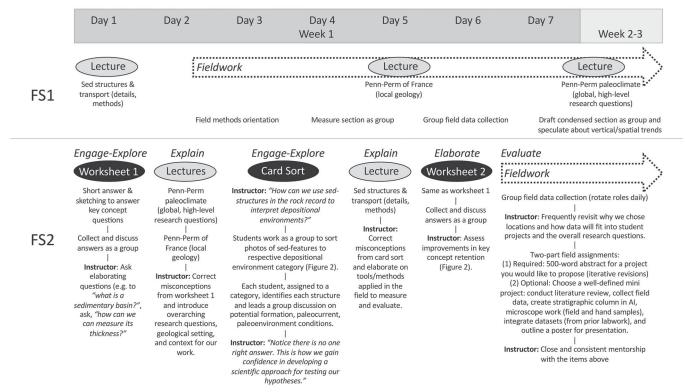


Figure 1. Instructional sequences and corresponding timeline from FS1 (top) and FS2 (bottom).

preferentially served low-context ways of learning and doing. The program orientation was lecture heavy and sequentially ordered from detailed descriptions of field methods to bigpicture, contextual talks presented mid-way through the program (after substantial fieldwork). The majority of the field work curriculum for FS1 involved students conducting detailed, unimodal data collection (e.g. measuring stratigraphic section) with linear analysis of the data (e.g. building stratigraphic profiles) and little integration of multiple datasets.

The aim of our program (structured according to NSF IRES objectives) is twofold—Aside from the education and pedagogy aspect (to attract underrepresented students to STEM), there is a significant component of conducting geological research and collecting new and publishable data to answer questions about ancient climates. Given that (1) our fieldwork takes place internationally with complicated logistics and limited resources, (2) aside from teaching, we had to acquire a large amount of data in a brief time, and (3) our student cohorts did not belong to any one underrepresented demographic (Table 2), it was not possible to adjust the FS2 curriculum design to include elements proven effective for specific cultures (e.g. for Indigenous populations: place-based curricula in traditional homelands, integration of Indigenous knowledge, explicit involvement of Indigenous leaders/educators; Johnson et al., 2014; Murray, 1997; Riggs, 2005; Riggs & Semken, 2001; Semken & Morgan, 1997; Semken, 2005; Semken et al., 2017; Unsworth et al., 2012; Wildcat, 2018). Instead, we focused on a strategy to recognize and include a broad spectrum of culturally-based learning approaches. Guidance for building a Multicontextual classroom (Chávez & Longerbeam, 2016; Ibarra, 2001; Weissmann et al., 2019; Table 1) heavily influenced the revision of the instructional sequence from FS1 to FS2.

The framework for the FS2 instructional sequence (Figure 1) started with a one-week mixed lecture and application orientation structured according to the BSCS (Biological Science Curriculum Study) 5E Instructional Model (Bybee et al., 2006; Bybee & Landes, 1990). Our decision to rely on the framework of the 5E learning-cycle approach for FS2 is grounded in theoretical foundations which veer from traditional teaching methodologies and emphasize the development and application of student-centered lessons (Abraham, 1997; Duran & Duran, 2004). While traditional pedagogical approaches stress the progression of skills toward a pre-determined outcome, learning cycles are based on "constructivist-learning"—emphasizing the investigation of phenomena and use of evidence to support conclusions (Abraham, 1997; Duran & Duran, 2004). There are more opportunities in the 5E learning cycle approach for students to self-reflect, redefine and elaborate, and interact with peers to solve problems (Bybee, 1997). It is more of a non-linear systems approach that holds a greater emphasis on integrated ideas and applications: A traditionally high-context cultural value. The 5E Model consists of five stages (Engage, Explore, Explain, Elaborate, and Evaluate) in which students formulate a better understanding of scientific processes and skills based on first-hand experiences (Açışlı et al., 2011; Newby, 2004). The Engage phase is meant for the instructor to assess and connect to prior knowledge and introduce a new concept through the use of short activities that stimulate curiosity. In Explore, a common experience is provided so that the students can apply prior knowledge to generate new ideas



Figure 2. Photos display examples of elements implemented in FS2. Top right: Pre-to-post field season improvements in Pangea sketches from the Engage-Elaborate phases of 5E orientation. Bottom right: A card sort activity "how can we use sedimentary structures in the rock record to interpret depositional environments?" in the Explore-Explain phases of 5E orientation. Left: Examples of students using equipment in the field (Gigapan outcrop imaging) and at home (DinoLite microscope) to pursue individual projects.

and begin investigation. In the Explanation phase, students are given the opportunity to demonstrate their conceptual understanding and the instructor corrects misconceptions before moving onto Elaboration wherein students have an opportunity to apply their understanding of the concept to a different situation or activity. Finally, in Evaluate, students are encouraged to assess their understanding and abilities to complete a final exercise or activity that allows the instructor to evaluate student progress overall. Figures 1 and 2 detail specific lectures and activities included in each of the 5E steps for FS2 orientation. This model provides shared experiences (e.g. workbooks with exercises to compliment lectures, card-sort activities, sketching, journaling) that place application before theory (HC-preferred; Table 1). Lectures are ordered from overarching research questions to basic concepts and field skills (opposite of FS1, as requested in FS1 student feedback; Table 5) and are completed before the start of work in the field. This way, students gain awareness of relevant background knowledge and major research questions prior to beginning field work, enabling all new data and information-first-hand experiences in the field-to be evaluated in a broader context (HC-preferred; Table 1).

After the 5E-structured orientation, it is important to continue integration of the Multicontext model in field pedagogy. Skills and concepts taught in the field are coupled with discussion (and frequent review) to specify the contribution of the process or data to the overarching research questions. For example, "we are doing this [low-context activity] today, but with integration of [other datasets] it relates to the broader context by addressing [this primary research question]." This way, data collection—which tends to be repetitive, detailed, low-context work—is able to be perceived in a more process-oriented, relevant, and interconnected way (HC-preferred; Table 1). Furthermore, additional equipment (e.g. Gigapan for outcrop imaging and lithostratigraphic correlation, portable DinoLite microscope for hand sample and thin section analysis, drafting software; Figure 2) and data from FS1 (e.g. thin sections, geochemical data) are available for students to pursue an optional predefined individual "mini-project." This added an element to FS2 for students to interpret and integrate multiple data sets (e.g. stratigraphy and magnetic susceptibility), opening doors for systems thinking and analysis (HC-preferred; Table 1).

#### **Evaluation**

Students did not receive course credit or grades for their participation in the IRES program, so while exam performance is the quantitative standard for evaluating student success in academic environments, here we focus on the quantitative measurement of gains in student self-confidence through exposure to the change in curriculum from FS1 to FS2. The social cognitive theory investigates how perceived self-efficacy affects human action and thought. From Bandura (1986, p. 367-368): "Self-efficacy scales do not measure skill; they measure what people believe they can do under varied circumstances, whatever skills they possess, or the particular skills required by the task... Judgements of operative self-efficacy are concerned not with the skills one has, but with beliefs about what one can do with the sub skills one possesses in dealing with continuously changing realities, most of which contain ambiguous, unpredictable, and stressful elements."

Student participants each summer (FS1 and FS2) completed identical surveys that served as pre and post measures of self-efficacy and a culminating attitudinal survey to evaluate the quality of the overall program. The questions and structure did not change between FS1 to FS2. The surveys were developed by the authors prior to the first field season and were administered by the same instructor on the



Table 3. Raw data from pre-post and attitudinal assessments (Supplemental Materials). Questions from each survey are provided at the bottom of the table. Total Pre and Total Post is the score total per student for the whole assessment. The score for each question on the pre-post assessment is between 1 and 3 where 1 indicates highest confidence (1= yes, I understand this sufficiently so that I can do or explain this independently, 2= I can follow this in class or when I have an example but am confused when I work on my own, and 3= I recognize what this is referring to, but I don't understand or know how to do it). The score for each question on the attitudinal survey (comprehensive program evaluation) is between 0 and 3 where 3 indicates the highest rating (3= Excellent/ very satisfied, 2= Very good/satisfied, 1= Average/neutral, and 0= Below average/dissatisfied).

			Pre-Post self-rated assessment			Attitudinal Survey
Student ID	Year	Context	Total Pre	Total Post	Gains (Pre-Post)	Total Score
Student 1	FS1	High	27	16	11	25
Student 2	FS1	Low	23	13	10	26
Student 3	FS1	High	19	12	7	25
Student 4	FS1	High	16	20	-4	28
Student 5	FS2	High	27	13	14	30
Student 6	FS2	Low	15	12	3	30
Student 7	FS2	High	22	12	10	28
Student 8	FS2	Low	21	12	9	23

Pre-Post self-rated assessment questions (n = 12)

Defining what a sedimentary basin is and why we're interested in studying one. Understanding of what the continents looked like

250 million years ago. Understanding of global icehouse vs. greenhouse paleoclimate conditions. Ability to use a Jacob's staff to measure and record a stratigraphic section. Ability to thoroughly describe and identify sedimentary rocks in outcrop.

Ability to identify sed structures in outcrop and hypothesize about formation.

Understanding/IDing sediment transport mechanisms + associated structures. Ability to hypothesize about sed transport/depositional environs based on obs.

Confidence in formulating several hypotheses based on observations.

Confidence in developing a methodical scientific approach to testing hypotheses.

Ability to integrate mult. datasets to make well-supported interpretations. Conducting independent geological fieldwork.

Attitudinal survey questions: Program evaluation (n = 10)

This international REU program was well organized as a whole. The international component of program added value to scientific experience.

I would recommend this program to others.

I would recommend my mentor(s) for future projects.

The value of your project to your future graduate school or professional career.

Information presented during orientation (workbooks, evening lecture series).

The program in providing a broader view of what geoscience is. The program in providing you with skillsets that make you more confident in field.

The program in helping you understand uncertainty and interpretation in science.

Your acceptance into the research group as a contributing member.

mornings of the first and last days of the program. No time limit was enforced for completing the survey; with both the survey questions and follow-up short answer questions, the typical student took about one hour to complete the survey. The identical pre and post survey includes  $\sim$ 12 items (Table 3) designed to measure development of self-efficacy in research applications and content knowledge (e.g. understanding of past climates, sedimentological skillsets). For each item, students self-rank their level of confidence (1-3 from highest to lowest) in each concept or skill. The attitudinal survey-taken only at the conclusion of each field season (at the same time as the post-survey above)—asks students to rate  $\sim 10$  aspects of the program on a scale 0-3 from lowest to highest quality (Table 3). Quantitative data from surveys (Table 3) were analyzed in R Studio using paired t-tests, and t-tests to assess differences between two populations (Table 4).

In addition to the surveys described above, qualitative data sources include (1) instructor logs from informal, weekly reflections (group share) and (2) short-answer responses at the end of pre- and post-surveys (described above). The informal, weekly reflections were held as a group (all students and mentors) and were meant to encourage self-reflection and career development discussion. The students were asked to reflect on their experience weekly through journaling, but sharing was optional. Participant responses during informal reflections were transcribed by

the instructor and unitized into unique data pieces. A constant comparative approach (Glaser, 1965) was used to identify key themes in areas of program improvement (from a student perspective). Select data units that exemplified this theme are summarized in Table 5 for each field season. Each (pre- and post-survey) includes six short answer questions: Most are intended to obtain background (e.g., coursework or motivation to participate in the program) or general career goal (e.g., intent to apply to grad school) information. However, two of the open-ended questions prompted responses from the FS2-student cohort that were characteristic in nature according to their context inventory (selected for summary in Table 6). Students in FS2 took the cultural context inventory survey (Halverson, 1993) at the beginning of the season to document preferred context and associated work ethic/learning behaviors, and students in FS1 were asked to complete it retroactively. All survey instruments are accessible in the Supplemental Materials.

#### **Results**

Student participants in the NSF IRES program are from racial/ethnic minority groups, low socioeconomic status, and/or are nontraditional students, and are primarily high context-preferred learners (Table 2). In the final attitudinal survey (Table 3), students rated the overall quality of the program higher in FS2 (mean 28) than in FS1 (mean 26).



Table 4. Summary of pre-post self-rated assessment (Supplemental Materials) statistical analysis. Shaded cells indicate where gains are statistically significant.

		Year	Context	Total Pre	Total Post	Gains (Pre-Post)		P-value*
а	Mean (n = 8)	All	All	21.3	13.8	7.5		< 0.01
b	Mean $(n = 5)$	All	High	22.2	14.6	7.6		0.07
C	Mean $(n=3)$	All	Low	19.7	12.3	7.3		0.08
	Signif. of gains FS	1 to FS2					Difference	P-value**
d	Mean $(n=4)$	FS1	All	21.3	15.3	6.0		
е	Mean $(n=4)$	FS2	All	21.3	12.3	9.0	3.0	0.50
	Signif. of gains FS	1 to FS2, HC	vs. LC				Difference	P-value**
f	Mean $(n=3)$	FS1	High	20.7	16.0	4.7		
g	Mean $(n=2)$	FS2	High	24.5	12.5	12.0	7.3	0.24
ĥ	Single $(n=1)$	FS1	Low	23.0	13.0	10.0		
i	Mean $(n=2)$	FS2	Low	18.0	12.0	6.0	-4.0	N/A

<sup>\*</sup>using paired t-test.

Table 5. Select student feedback from informal weekly reflections. These statements represent key themes regarding areas of improvement from a student perspective (by field season).

FS1	FS2
Evening lectures were a valuable part of the learning experience, but I wish they were given in reverse order.	Mini lectures every so often IN the field (e.g. map-reading) would be helpful.
Assigned readings of overview papers would've been helpful to prepare for the field season.  Big picture lectures would've provided a better foundation before fieldwork	The onboarding series and order of lectures provided a good foundation prior to field work.

Findings from the pre-to-post self-rated assessments suggest that student participation in the program, regardless of year or cultural context, resulted in advancement of student confidence in research application, independent field work, and their ability to contribute to science (Table 3; all but one student show positive gains from the beginning to end of the field season). As shown in Table 4a, this overall positive gain in pre-to-post survey scores (mean +7.5) for all students (n = 8) both years, is statistically significant  $(p \ll 0.05)$ . Within this group, HC (n = 5) and LC (n = 3)students each improved ( $\sim+7.0$ ; Table 4*b-c*) by insignificant (p = 0.07-0.08) gains, but there is no statistical difference (p = 0.94) in the mean gain between context groups overall.

Establishing significance is not possible with analysis by distinct year and context orientation due to small sample sizes, but the improvements are still quantitatively measurable. For example, the pre-to-post difference in mean scores (+3.0) for all students from FS1 (n=4) to FS2 (n=4) indicates self-rated improvement overall in FS2, though not by a statistically significant margin (p = 0.50; Table 4d-e). However, if we isolate the data to examine only those students who tested as high context, the increase in mean preto-post-survey gains (+7.3) from FS1 (n=3) to FS2 (n=2)is closer to being statistically significant (p = 0.24; Table 4fg), but not quite due to the small numbers of students. In contrast, students who tested as low context at the beginning of the field season saw a minor decline in mean pre-to-post gains (-4.0) from FS1 (n=1) to FS2 (n=2), but it is not possible to assess significance with only one student in FS1 (Table 4h-i).

Key themes in qualitative data are identified and reported in Tables 5 and 6. Table 5 summarizes areas for program improvement (from a student perspective) that influenced changes in instructional sequence design for each subsequent field season. Table 6 summarizes open-ended responses (from FS2 only) to select questions from the preand post-survey that demonstrate the expected nature of student participants as predicted by their context inventory.

#### **Discussion**

The Multicontext Theory does not suggest that one way of knowing and doing (high or low context) is better than the other. However, because academia (and especially STEM) traditionally favors low context approaches, the objective for FS2 was to integrate more aspects into the instructional design that are typically high-context-favorable (see Table 1), especially given the demographic of the students in the program. We consider that the overall success of the program is defined by the ability to have all participating students improve by quantifiable (pre-to-post survey) margins and to observe qualitative behaviors that demonstrate a connection and engagement to the work. In this discussion, we will first review components of the FS2 Multicontext model, and the data (quantitative and qualitative) that largely support its positive impact. Then we will assess other factors that possibly contributed to the change in student experience from FS1 to FS2.

Student participation in the program in general results in measurable and significant advances in student self-efficacy (Table 4a), but to assess the impact of Multicontext activation in curriculum design in FS2 (with the particular objective of being more inclusive of higher-context modes), we must analyze the results by year and by preferred context orientation. From FS1 to FS2 we see an increase in the preto-post survey margin (+3.0; Table 4d-e) of self-assessed student confidence (e.g. in relevant skills/competencies, research application, independent field work, scientific thinking) and in the student-rated overall quality of the program. Despite the inability to determine statistical significance due to small sample size, substantial gains in student self-efficacy from FS1 to FS2 were reported by higher-

<sup>\*\*</sup>using t-test.



Table 6. Open-ended survey responses from select questions on the pre-and post-assessments (Supplemental Materials) by context inventory (FS2 only).

"Mhat are your	anale?" (	nro accoccmont)	us "Moro	vour goals	accomplished?"	(post-assessment)
wnat are vour	goals!" (	pre-assessment) v	vs. "vvere	vour goals	accomplished?"	(post-assessment)

	Pre-Assessment	Post-Assessment Post-Assessment
High	I want to become more prepared for my future career	Yes, I made a poster outline and learned about fieldwork in geology
High	Learn how to conduct paleoclimate research and field research skills	Yes, I learned how to complete geological fieldwork and use different techniques in formulating hypotheses and how to test them.
Low	I would like to learn more about the methodology of paleoclimatology to help decide between that and paleoecology	Yes, fully.
Low	I'd like to have a good experience in field research and interpretation so that I know what to expect in the future and feel comfortable to conduct fieldwork independently.	Yes, my main goal was to have a real research experience - field work, discussion, interpretation, written product. I am looking forward to continued work on my mini project at home and eventually presenting.

"What do you like about science (e.g. fieldwork/research/sedimentology/paleoclimate)?" and "How would you rate your ability to think scientifically/work independent research projects?" (pre vs. post assessments)

	Pre-Assessment	Post-Assessment
High	I think I understand research well and can think independently	I like the mystery and problem solving. I would rate my abilities at adequate but needs improvement.
High	I love that science is very methodological and the concepts are concrete but it can also be examined and reshaped. I love the interdisciplinary nature of science.	I had a great time doing fieldwork. I would rate my ability at a 8/10
Low	I adore learning new things and science is the best way to do that; I am not sure how good I am, but I do work alone often.	I enjoy learning new things in a scientific process and in sed/ paleoclimate I can understand the history of earth was like at the time. I would note that my ability to work independently is high.
Low	I like being able to interpret what happened in the past and then apply it to the future. I would say that I can think scientifically and work well independently.	I look at science as a "healthy challenge"—I can think very well scientifically and ask good questions. I am excited to pursue a small independent research project with guidance.

context students (+7.3; Table 4f-g) while lower-context students reported a slight decline (-4.0; Table 4h-i). Based on these data and observations, we interpret that FS1 was more supportive of low-context students, and that activation of a Multicontext approach in FS2 (Figure 1) resulted in a more inclusive environment, especially for higher-context students.

Observationally, there was a stark contrast between FS1 and FS2 in individual student level of focus and engagement through the field season. FS1 student feedback (Table 5) suggested a lack of clarity around how their work fit into the broader research questions. It is likely that instruction of content and skills without a broader context (e.g. how/where data collected in the field would eventually be applied) resulted in a potentially challenging and unsupportive learning environment, especially for higher-context students. Balancing across cultural frameworks (Chávez & Longerbeam, 2016; Weissmann et al., 2019) in the instructional design for FS2 (Figure 1) resulted in improved student engagement. Defining research objectives early (week one pre-field 5E-structured orientation) and revisiting them often (discussing how data collected throughout the field season fits into broader research questions) resulted in a strong understanding of the purpose of the research before beginning work in the field. During the 5E orientation, highcontext students were particularly animated and tended to lead the group in activities like the card sort (Figure 2), not just because it was "active" but because it involved systems thinking about how detailed observations (sedimentary structures) were produced in different systems (depositional environments) and speculation about contextually significant implications (regional climate). For example, while lower-context students focused on assigning the correct name and paleocurrent direction to each feature, higher-context students would ask questions like: "Why can't this feature belong to both fluvial and glacial systems?" and "Why can't this feature indicate paleoflow going in multiple different directions?" The answer to both being that they can! It is a perfect example of how in science there is "no one right answer"— but there is also no single "right" way of *thinking*. It is hard to determine how the prevailing role of higher-context students in these scenarios impacted the learning environment for lower-context students: But it did seem to positively influence lower-context students to consider alternative solutions (usually further outside of the textbook definitions). The option to have ownership of individual projects/products, access to equipment, and continued mentorship associated with evening (after-field) work also fostered a better overall student connection to the research in FS2 by allowing them to take direction in their learning experience.

Survey responses from FS2 (Table 6) characterize the typical or expected nature of student behavior as predicted by their context inventory. Lower-context students were very goal-specific and product-focused—almost disappointed if they did not fully complete the assembly of a poster presentation during their time (Table 6; row 4, 8, col 2)—whereas higher-context students had intentions to absorb diversified aspects of the entire system (and consider all the data) rather than being limited to an individual project. Lowercontext students excelled at data collection, drawing upon an inherent inclination to metrics and detail, whereas higher-context students struggled to maintain focus during these activities, but asked relevant and impactful questions such as "Why did we choose this locality?" and "What does this feature mean about the climate at the time of deposition?" Questions, group discussions, and student-lead initiatives to conduct literature reviews and practice petrography skills (with the DinoLite microscope) showed a level of interest and engagement in and out of the field that was not apparent in FS1. The quality and quantity of work produced by students during FS2 was impressive. Three students (a mix of higher- and lower-context) continued work on individual research projects after their return from the field

program and have presented at undergraduate research symposia (at their home institutions) as well as at Geological Society of America conferences (Birkett et al., 2020; Mueller et al., 2020).

The development of a positive or negative team chemistry was also a driving element in the overall learning experience in regard to student level of focus and engagement. It is possible that activation of a Multicontext approach reduced competition and individuation, cultivating a more integrated student cohort in FS2. On the other hand, an initially more cohesive cohort in FS2 could have also contributed to the margin of improvement over FS1 (effectively minimizing the importance of the change in instructional approach). In FS1, an abrupt shift from excitement and euphoria to arguments and alienation among student participants occurred in the second week. This shift, known as "forming" to "storming" according to Tuckman's small group dynamics hypothesis (Tuckman, 1965, Tuckman & Jensen, 1977), negatively impacted the learning environment and contributed to a degradation in student engagement despite its intangibility. Integration and discussion of personality assessment data (Myers-Briggs; Briggs, 1987) at the beginning of the field season, coupled with a more naturally-cohesive cohort, generally resulted in a more positive team dynamic and sustained engagement. The personality assessment included a brief discussion on context orientation, but it would be interesting to elaborate on cultural context and the Multicontext model at the beginning of FS3 to see if there is an influence on group dynamic with improved comprehension of self and teammate tendencies in respect to the cultural context spectrum. With work like this that involves small-group collaboration in a field context where different personalities are forced to work closely and interact both in a working and living space, we can expect that student focus and engagement will be affected in part by team chemistry and dynamic.

Additional factors that potentially influence the improvement from FS1 to FS2 include: (1) the varied academic background of students upon entering the program. However, the FS2 cohort had more previous experience in geoscience-specific courses and experiences, so this is likely not a driving factor, as we would expect to see smaller preto-post assessment gains in FS2 than in FS1. Also, note that the mean total self-assessed pre-score for FS1 and FS2 match (Table 4d-e). (2) Another factor could be adaptability (e.g. culturally or intense fieldwork) that was covert. These aspects could have varied with time—by individual or by group—and may have influenced some assessment responses as well. Finally, (3) as noted above, the field setting is inherently underlain by Multicontexted potential.

#### Limitations

Some of the most valued intentions of this experience are inherently difficult to measure (e.g., improved understanding of the scientific process, a stimulated passion to pursue a STEM career, student interest/engagement), especially with the limitations of a particularly small and diverse sample

size (four students annually). A more robust sample set in terms of number of students and number of survey questions may have changed or enhanced the significance of results. Additionally, several variables are difficult to control (e.g. the impact of small group dynamic, changes in the applicant pool or recruitment/selection procedures, varying levels of prior experience by student). Finally, the data are acquired through means of self-reporting so it is subjective, and we are limited to discussion about improvements in self-efficacy. To obtain a more direct read of student skill acquisition or concept retention, an objective method of measurement is required (e.g. formal exams or demonstrations in the field), but likely not possible for this program given the lack of formal grading or option to obtain coursework credit. All of these potential limitations should be considered in the interpretation of results and in planning for the final field season (FS3).

#### Implications and future study

This study is only one example of how a short field-based program like IRES can benefit from a broadened spectrum of context teaching frameworks. Future plans include continued implementation of the Multicontext model for the final season of the NSF IRES program (FS3) to assess whether results are reproducible with a different group and/ or location. Pre- and post-survey formats will be preserved to keep data comparable between successive field seasons. Changes will include expanding on the informal reflections, lunch discussions, and integration of "mini lectures" into the field day. The integration of mini in-field lectures for brief skillset review (e.g. map-reading) is based on FS2 student feedback (Table 5) and serves as an opportunity to continue tying the selection of field locations and data collection plans back to broader context research questions (as discussed in FS2). Students in FS3 will complete the same context inventory survey (Halverson, 1993), as well as a more comprehensive scaled Context Diversity matrix developed by Ibarra (pers. commun. 2019). An introduction to the Multicontext Theory will be shared with the students at the beginning of the field season so they can begin to recognize when they are engaged in higher- or lower-contexted work. We are interested to (1) test which (if either) of the context inventory tests is more insightful, and (2) observe the fluidity of student context orientation over the four-week timeframe. We expect that if the students have some awareness of the Multicontext model, and where tasks fit on the spectrum, we will observe shifts over the course of the field season in their context-inventory results, indicating their adaptability to use both perspectives in comprehension and application.

#### **Conclusions**

Programs (like NSF IRES) that support undergraduate students from historically underrepresented groups in international STEM research might find more success in student engagement when leaders and instructors recognize and activate the Multicontexted culture of their research group. With heavy

(international) travel logistics, a different student cohort each year, and a relatively short field season, it is challenging to assess context orientation, manage interpersonal group dynamics, and provide students a meaningful educational experience that is well-balanced with productive data collection. We found it important to fuze typical (by definition) "high" and "low" (integrated and individuated) context teaching frameworks because students may shift higher or lower on the spectrum situationally or through time, and the ultimate goal is to create Multicontextual thinkers (both low and high context are equally as important, but the full spectrum must be valued).

Separate cohorts for the first two years of our program are mostly first-generation college students from historically underrepresented groups in STEM, and most are "high context"-preferred learners. From FS1 to FS2, there are measurable improvements in student self-efficacy overall (e.g. in concept comprehension, field/analytical competencies, research application), but they are dominantly reported by high-context students. Associated with these quantitative (survey-derived) gains, observational transformations into FS2 include a higher quality of work, and a positive, productive and integrated group dynamic that we interpret to reflect higher levels of student engagement and inclusion as scientists. These improvements (quantitative and qualitative) can be attributed partially to the shift from an FS1 low context-preferred instructional framework to a more balanced, Multicontexted culture in FS2. The FS2 instructional sequence includes (1) a mixed lecture-application 5E-structured orientation prior to fieldwork that clearly introduces the broad research objectives early, (2) frequent discussions during fieldwork to place low-context tasks in a broader context (e.g. explain how the current dataset will be integrated with other information and ultimately impact major research questions) and (3) a pre-defined mini-project option that allowed students to set an individual intent for growth in this experience (e.g. integrating multiple datasets to focus on a single idea vs. applying diversified field methods to contribute to several ideas). Weissmann et al. (2019, p. 7) stated that "activation of the Multicontexted approach requires systemic, institutional cultural change by broadening values to be inclusive of high contexted approaches." Within the Multicontext system—a theory that has broad implications for the entirety of academic culture—this study represents a small segment of how awareness of the Multicontext Theory as an instructor, coupled with relatively minor adjustments to balance across cultural frameworks in teaching, results in a more inclusive environment for students to apply their individual strengths and cultural context to effect an enhanced learning experience.

#### **Acknowledgements**

NSF IRES student participants (2018 and 2019). M. Powell for review and assistance with statistical analysis. Thank you to our reviewers (A. Aitken, M. Moore, M. Powell, and others) and editors at JGE for their assistance improving this work. University of Oklahoma Office of Human Research Participant Protection/Institutional Review Board (IRB No. 9330).

#### **Funding**

This work was supported by the National Science Foundation under International Research Experiences for Students (IRES) grant No. 1658614 (G.S. Soreghan, M.J. Soreghan) and National Science Foundation grant No. 1338331 (G.S. Soreghan). Additional support was provided by the Eberly Family Chair in Geosciences at the University of Oklahoma (G.S. Soreghan).

#### **ORCID**

Lily S. Pfeifer (b) http://orcid.org/0000-0003-2723-001X Michael J. Soreghan (D) http://orcid.org/0000-0002-2424-0194 Kelly K. Feille http://orcid.org/0000-0002-5320-7641 Gerilyn S. Soreghan (D) http://orcid.org/0000-0001-6925-5675 Gary S. Weissmann http://orcid.org/0000-0003-0609-0871 Wesley A. Stroud http://orcid.org/0000-0003-0419-102X

#### References

Abraham, M. R. (1997). The learning cycle approach to science instruction (Research matters - To the science teacher, No. 9701). The National Association for Research in Science Teaching.

Açışlı, S., Yalçın, S. A., & Turgut, U. (2011). Effects of the 5E learning model on students' academic achievements in movement and force issues. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 15, 2459-2462. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.04.128

Aikenhead, G. S. (1996). Science education: Border crossing into the subculture of science. Studies in Science Education, 27(1), 1-52. https://doi.org/10.1080/03057269608560077

Aikenhead, G. S. (1997). Toward a first nations cross-cultural science and technology curriculum. Science Education, 81(2), 217-238. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1098-237X(199704)81:2<217::AID-SCE6 >3.0.CO;2-I

Bandura, A. (1986). The explanatory and predictive scope of self-efficacy theory. Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 4(3), 359-373. https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.1986.4.3.359

Bernard, R. E., & Cooperdock, H. G. (2018). No progress on diversity in 40 years. Nature Geoscience, 11(5), 292-295. doi:10.1038/s41561-018-0116-6.

Birkett, B. A., Pfeifer, L. S., Pochat, S., Van den Driessche, J., Soreghan, G. S., & Soreghan, M. J. (2020). Hypothesized freezing in low-latitude lakes of the early Permian: Examples from the Usclas Formation. Geological Society of America Abstracts with Programs.

Boyle, A., Maguire, S., Martin, A., Milsom, C., Nash, R., Rawlinson, S., Turner, A., Wurthmann, S., & Conchie, S. (2007). Fieldwork is good: The student perception and the affective domain. Journal of Geography in Higher Education, 31(2), 299-317. https://doi.org/10. 1080/03098260601063628

Briggs, K. C. (1987). Myers-Briggs type indicator. Form G. Consulting Psychologists Press.

Bybee, R. W., & Landes, N. M. (1990). Science for life and living: An elementary school science program from Biological Sciences Improvement Study (BSCS). The American Biology Teacher, 52(2), 92-98. https://doi.org/10.2307/4449042

Bybee, R. W. (1997). Achieving scientific literacy: From purposes to practices. Heinemann Publications.

Bybee, R. W., Taylor, J. A., Gardner, A., Scotter, P. V., Powell, J. C., Westbrook, A., & Landes, N. (2006). The BCBS 5E instructional model: Origins and effectiveness (pp. 1-80). Office of Science Education National Institutes of Health.

Chávez, A. F., & Longerbeam, S. D. (2016). Teaching across cultural strengths: A guide to balancing integrated and individuated cultural frameworks in college teaching (pp. 241). Stylus Press.

Compton, R. R. (2016). Geology in the field (pp. 1-2). Earthspun Books. Dutt, K. (2020). Race and racism in the geosciences. Nature Geoscience, 13(1), 2-3. (https://doi.org/10.1038/s41561-019-0519-z



- Duran, L. B., & Duran, E. (2004). The 5E instructional model: A learning cycle approach for inquiry-based science teaching. The Science Education Review, 3(2), 49-58.
- Elkins, J. T., & Elkins, N. M. L. (2007). Teaching geology in the field: Significant geoscience concept gains in entirely field-based introductory geology courses. Journal of Geoscience Education, 55(2), 126-132. https://doi.org/10.5408/1089-9995-55.2.126
- Feig, A. D., Atchison, C. L., Stokes, A., & Gilley, B. (2019). Achieving inclusive field-based education: Results and recommendations from an accessible geoscience field trip. Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 19(2), 66-87. https://doi.org/10.14434/josotl.v19i1.23455
- Field, K. (2016). For native students, educations promise has long been broken. Chronicle of Higher Education, 62(41), 26.
- Glaser, B. G. (1965). The constant comparative method of qualitative analysis. Social Problems, 12(4), 436-445. http://www.jstor.org/stable/798843
- Guillory, R. M. (2009). American Indian/Alaska Native college student retention strategies. Journal of Developmental Education, 33, 12-19.
- Hall, E. T. (1959). The silent language. Anchor books.
- Hall, E. T. (1966). The hidden dimension. Anchor books.
- Hall, E. T. (1976). Beyond culture. Anchor books.
- Halverson, C. B. (1993). Cultural-context inventory: the effects of culture on behavior and work style. In Pfeiffer, JW (Ed.), The 1993 annual: Developing human resources (pp. 131-145). Pfeiffer and Company.
- HeavyRunner, I., & DeCelles, R. (2002). Family education model: Meeting the student retention challenge. Journal of American Indian Education, 41(2), 29-37.
- Ibarra, R. A. (1999). Multicontextuality: A new perspective on minority underrepresentation in SEM academic fields. Making Strides, 1, 1-9.
- Ibarra, R. A. (2001). Beyond affirmative action: Reframing the context of higher education (p. 323). University of Wisconsin Press.
- Johnson, A. N., Sievert, R., Durglo, M., Finley, V., Adams, L., & Hofmann, M. H. (2014). Indigenous knowledge and geoscience on the flathead Indian reservation, northwest Montana: Implications for place-based and culturally congruent education. Journal of Geoscience Education, 62(2), 187-202. https://doi.org/10.5408/12-393.1
- Knapp, E. P., Greer, L., Connors, C. D., & Harbor, D. J. (2006). Fieldbased instruction as part of a balanced geoscience curriculum at Washington and Lee University. Journal of Geoscience Education, 54(2), 103-108. https://doi.org/10.5408/knappetal-v54p1
- Kortz, K. M., Cardace, D., & Savage, B. (2020). Affective factors during field research that influence intention to persist in the geosciences. Journal of Geoscience Education, 68(2), 133-151. doi:10.1080/ 10899995.2019.1652463
- Mogk, D. W., & Goodwin, C. (2012). Learning in the field: Synthesis of research on thinking and learning in the geosciences. In Kastens, K.A., Manduca, C.A (Eds.), Earth and mind II: A synthesis of research on thinking and learning in the geoscience (pp. 131-163). Geological Society of America Special Paper 486.
- Moore, M. Z. (2020). Fostering a sense of belonging using a multicontext approach. Journal of College Student Retention, 1-18. https:// doi.org/10.1177/1521025120944828
- Mueller, J. M., Pfeifer, L. S., Soreghan, G. S., & Soreghan, M. J. (2020). Identification of weakly develop paleosols in a Permian loess using micromorphology, geochemistry, and magnetic susceptibility. Geological Society of America Abstracts with Programs.
- Murray, J. J. (1997). Ethnogeology and its implications for the aboriginal geoscience curriculum. Journal of Geoscience Education, 45(2), 117-122. https://doi.org/10.5408/1089-9995-45.2.117
- Newby, D. E. (2004). Using inquiry to connect young learners to science. Retrieved May 18, 2008, from http://www.nationalcharterschols.org/uploads/pdf/resource20040617125804using%20Inguiry.pdf.
- O'Connell, S., & Holmes, M. A. (2011). Obstacles to the recruitment of minorities into the geosciences: A call to action. GSA Today, 21(6), 52-53. https://doi.org/10.1130/G105GW.1
- Orion, N., & Hofstein, A. (1994). Factors that influence learning during a scientific field trip in a natural environment. Journal of Research in Science Teaching, 31(10), 1097-1119. https://doi.org/10.1002/tea. 3660311005

- Paris, D. (2012). Culturally sustaining pedagogy: A needed change in stance, terminology, and practice. Educational Researcher, 41(3), 93-97. doi: 10.3102/0013189X12441244
- Riggs, E. M. (1998). Toward an understanding of the roles of scientific, traditional, and spiritual knowledge in our "demon-haunted world". American Indian Culture and Research Journal, 22(1), 213-226. https://doi.org/10.17953/aicr.22.1.4311l8235u702738
- Riggs, E. M., & Semken, S. C. (2001). Earth science for native Americans. Geotimes, 49(9), 14-17.
- Riggs, E. M. (2005). Field-based education and indigenous knowledge: Essential components of geoscience. Science Education, 89(2), 296–313.
- Riggs, E. M., Lieder, C. C., & Balliet, R. (2009). Geologic problem solving in the field: Analysis of field navigation and mapping by advanced undergraduates. Journal of Geoscience Education, 57(1), 48-63. https://doi.org/10.5408/1.3559525
- Semken, S. C., & Morgan, F. (1997). Navajo pedagogy and earth systems. Journal of Geoscience Education, 45(2), 109-112. https://doi. org/10.5408/1089-9995-45.2.109
- Semken, S. C. (2005). Sense of place and place-based introductory geoscience teaching for American Indian and Alaska native undergraduates. Journal of Geoscience Education, 53(2), 149-157. https://doi. org/10.5408/1089-9995-53.2.149
- Semken, S. C., Ward, E. G., Moosavi, S., & Chinn, P. W. U. (2017). Place-based education in geoscience: Theory, research, practice, and assessment. Journal of Geoscience Education, 65(4), 542-562. https:// doi.org/10.5408/17-276.1
- Sherman-Morris, K., & Mcneal, K. S. (2016). Understanding perceptions of the geosciences among minority and nonminority undergraduate students. Journal of Geoscience Education, 64(2), 147-156. https://doi.org/10.5408/15-112.1.
- Stokes, A., & Boyle, A. P. (2009). The undergraduate geoscience fieldwork experience: Influencing factors and implications for learning. In Whitmeyer, S.J., Mogk, D.W., and Pyle, E.J (Eds.), Field geology education: Historical perspectives and modern approaches (pp. 291-311). Geological Society of America Special Paper 461.
- Streule, M. J., & Craig, L. E. (2016). Social learning theories—An important design consideration for geoscience fieldwork. Journal of Geoscience Education, 64(2), 101–107. https://doi.org/10.5408/15-119.1
- Thrift, D. (1975). Field trips: A priceless ingredient. Journal of Geological Education, 23, 137-139.
- Tuckman, B. W. (1965). Developmental sequence in small groups. Psychological Bulletin, 63(6), 384-399. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0022100
- Tuckman, B. W., & Jensen, M. C. (1977). Stages of small-group development revisited. Group & Organization Studies, 2(4), 419-427. https://doi.org/10.1177/105960117700200404
- Unsworth, S., Riggs, E. M., & Chávez, M. (2012). Creating pathways toward geoscience education for Native American youth: The importance of cultural relevance and self-concept. Journal of Geoscience Education, 60(4), 384-392. https://doi.org/10.5408/11-218.1
- Waldron, J. W., Locock, A. J., & Pujadas-Botey, A. (2016). Building an outdoor classroom for field geology: The geoscience garden. Journal of Geoscience Education, 64(3), 215-230. https://doi.org/10.5408/15-133.1
- Wanger, S. P., Minthorn, R. S., Weinland, K. A., Appleman, B., James, M., & Arnold, A. (2012). Native American student participation in study abroad. American Indian Culture and Research Journal, 36(4), 127-151.
- Weissmann, G. S., Ibarra, R. A., Howland-Davis, M., & Lammey, M. V. (2019). The multicontext path to redefining how we access and think about diversity, equity, and inclusion in STEM. Journal of Geoscience Education, 67(4), 320-329. https://doi.org/10.1080/ 10899995.2019.1620527.
- Whitmeyer, S.J., Mogk, D.W., & Pyle, E.J. (Eds). (2009). Field geology education: Historical perspectives and modern approaches (pp. 356). Geological Society of America Special Paper 461.
- Wildcat, D. (2018). Exploring applications of indigenuity: Incorporating indigenous perspectives in the geoscience classroom. KS.
- Wolfe, B. A., & Riggs, E. M. (2017). Macrosystem analysis of programs and strategies to increase underrepresented populations in the geosciences. Journal of Geoscience Education, 65(4), 577-593. https:// doi.org/10.5408/17-256.1