Video Observations of Student and Facilitator Processes in Intergroup Dialogues

by

Elizabeth Ann Meier

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Doctoral Committee:

Emeritus Professor Patricia Y. Gurin, Co-Chair
Professor Lorraine M. Gutierrez, Co-Chair
Professor Richard Gonzalez
Professor Oliver C. Schultheiss
Professor Brett A. Seabury

DEDICATION

To Patricia Y. Gurin, Lorraine M. Gutierrez, Oliver C. Schultheiss, and Janice E. Verkler

“Patience and fortitude conquer all things” - Ralph Waldo Emerson

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

The United States, like many other countries, is becoming increasingly multi-ethnic, multi-racial, and multi-cultural. In the face of these demographic changes, there is a growing consensus that diversity and intergroup contact plays a key role in preparing students to live and work in an increasingly multicultural world. Debate continues, though, about how – and if – multicultural education may be used to leverage diversity as a resource in public education settings (King & Baxter-Magolda, 2005; Pasque, Bowman, Small, & Lewis, 2009; Putnam, 2007; Schoem, Frankel, Zuniga, & Lewis, 1994).

Intergroup dialogue (IGD) programs provide an innovative multicultural model for using diversity as a resource for learning. Intergroup dialogue contrasts with traditional, lecture-based classes focusing on teaching students about diversity issues. Passive learning about diversity may occur during incidental intergroup contact and team building activities in intergroup dialogues, but the dialogical pedagogical model is far from passive. Intergroup dialogue brings students together from different identity groups and actively engages them in guided discussions about their identities, perspectives, and experiences. Participants have the chance to get to know each other as individuals and also build solidarity by identifying similarities across groups, building the kind of "in-group" identity Goffman (1959) describes. An equal goal of intergroup dialogue, though, is to identify, appreciate, and learn to work across differences.

Prior research on intergroup dialogue has consisted of case-studies of dialogues at a single institution. Most of these studies were quasi-experimental semester-long

studies. They tended to focus on pre- and post-survey-test results, without paying attention to processes occurring within dialogues leading to different outcomes for dialogue participants.

This dissertation research represents a subcomponent of a larger study that aims to evaluate the effects of gender and race/ethnicity intergroup dialogues on undergraduates across nine universities. This research project, the "Multi-University Evaluation of the Educational Effects of Intergroup Dialogues" (hereafter referred to as the “Multi-University Evaluation"), was funded by W.T. Grant and Ford Foundations, and IRB approved through 2010[1]. The Multi-University Evaluation explores how to effectively leverage diversity on college campuses to produce educational benefits. Three sets of student outcomes, emphasized in the Michigan affirmative action cases, are measured: social identities; intergroup communication skills; and commitment to intergroup understanding. The project aims to predict effects of intergroup dialogues and "differential effects on cognitive and affective/action outcomes of course content and active learning processes within the dialogues” (p. 1, Gurin, Nagda, & Zuniga, 2007).

The Multi-University Evaluation is the first to use random assignment to assess the effects of intergroup dialogue. This research design ensures that that the measurable effects of participating in an intergroup dialogue cannot be attributed to self-selection (i.e., to the particular characteristics of students who choose to enroll in intergroup dialogue courses). The Multi-University Evaluation also has a broader scope than previous studies of intergroup dialogue: it was conducted over a three-year period across nine universities. The participating institutions include:

Arizona State University

Occidental College

Syracuse University

University of California, San Diego

[1] The lead investigators for this evaluation are Patricia Gurin (University of Michigan), Biren (Ratnesh) Nagda (University of Washington), and Ximena Zuniga (University of Massachusetts-Amherst).

University of Maryland

University of Massachusetts at Amherst

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

University of Texas, Austin

University of Washington, Seattle

These institutions were selected to be part of the research project because they already had intergroup dialogue programs, or were in the process of developing them.

Undergraduate students were widely recruited to enroll in for-credit, semester-long, intergroup dialogue classes focusing on either gender or race/ethnicity. Applicants to these intergroup dialogues were randomly assigned to either an experimental dialogue or a wait-list control group. Both the experimental and the control groups were balanced by race (minority/Caucasian) and gender (female/male). Each experimental gender and race/ethnicity dialogue group was also balanced to ensure that half of the participants of each dialogue group would be women, and half would be students of color. Efforts were made to ensure balance within demographic subgroups as well (e.g., an equal balance of males of color and females of color).

Applicants to intergroup dialogues were randomly assigned to either a dialogue or wait-list control group. A living-learning community and social science classes focusing on gender and race/ethnicity were used as additional comparison groups. Pre-, post-, and one year delayed post measures were administered. In addition, a variety of qualitative methods were used, including analyses of interviews, final papers, and video-recordings of dialogue sessions.

My dissertation project is a subcomponent of the Multi-University Evaluation, and is the first study to use video research methods, to our knowledge, to study communication and affective processes occurring during intergroup dialogues. The video research component of the Multi-University Evaluation is the focus of this thesis and will hereafter be referred to as “this study", for the sake of convenience.

The primary aim of this study is to better understand how verbal and nonverbal communication processes differ between participants of gender dialogues relative to participants of race/ethnicity dialogues. The second aim of this study is to assess the influence of different facilitation styles on student processes. It is hoped that these results will help shed light on how dialogue participants get to know each other as individuals, form common in-group identities, and learn to appreciate and work across differences.

In Chapter II, literature is reviewed on intergroup relations and other topics relevant to the research hypotheses and video-coding research methods developed for this study. In Chapter III, data collection methods, coding methods, specific hypotheses, and approaches to analysis are discussed. Chapter IV and Chapter V present results from analyses of quantitative data on student processes, and facilitator processes (respectively). Chapter VI provides a summary of these results, and some qualitative examples to illustrate the quantitative findings. In Chapter VI, implications of these results for future research, facilitator training, community organizing, and social work are discussed.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Introduction

There are three distinct theories about how intergroup relations may be improved, and how people may to learn to work collaboratively across differences. Goffman (1959) proposes that individuals form a common in-group identity that becomes more salient than individual attributes, and differences within the group. Dovidio and colleagues (2002) suggested a similar idea: that a common in-group identity will override the original identity separating a group, help to reduce prejudice, and increase intergroup harmony. Brewer and Miller (1984, 1996) suggest an alternative theory, which states that as individuals get to know each other personally as individuals, group identities become less salient. These two theories have contributed to the idea of being "colorblind". Both theories are often cited in arguments about whether people may become "blind" to differences – even ones considered taboo to talk about– simply by focusing on individual characteristics, or a common in-group identity. For example, drawing from Goffman's (1959) theory, Putnam (2007) suggests that people will become more comfortable with diversity in the "long run," as they focus on creating "new" identities that cut across, and become "more encompassing" than old identities, such as race and ethnicity (p. 137). Putnam (2007) applauds religion and the military for helping to contribute to this trend.

The third theory does not reject the notion that people can get to know each other as individuals, and even form in-group identities, but it does reject the notion that people therefore become "blind" to easily discernable differences in identity associated with real differences in power and privilege in the wider society. According to this

perspective (Hewstone and Brown, 1986, Nagda and Gurin, 2007), the latter identities are like "the elephant in the room": everyone is aware it is there, and tensions tend to build the longer it is not acknowledged or understood. This theory is considered "multicultural" because it suggests that salient differences in identity and culture need to be talked about and understood on some level in order for groups to have the best chance of working collaboratively across differences.

While tensions between colorblind and multicultural perspectives may be observed in nearly all sectors of work and education, in recent years the clash between these two perspectives is most apparent in debates about the role of diversity and affirmative action in higher education. Seventy-four *amici curiae* were filed in defense of the University of Michigan's affirmative action policies before the Supreme Court in 2003. Contributors to these *amicus* briefs underscored the key role diversity plays in student learning, and the need for colleges and universities to use diversity as an institutional resource (Chang et al., 2003, Gurin et al., 2002, Nagda et al., 2009). Echoing this sentiment, the Association of American Colleges and Universities calls for institutions to deploy diversity "as an educational asset for all students" in order to prepare future graduates for "socially responsible engagement in a diverse democracy and interdependent world" (Diversity, 2010).

Intergroup dialogue was developed as a method of balancing the tension between goals of intercultural understanding and goals of social transformation. The overall aims of intergroup dialogue are (p. 3, Multi-University IGD Research Project Guidebook, 2009):

- To develop a language and capacity for dialogue -- deep listening, suspending; judgments, identifying assumptions, reflecting, and inquiring—in a diverse society;
- To reflect upon and learn about self and others as members of a social group(s) in the context of systems of privilege and inequality;

- To explore the similarities and differences in experiences within and across social group memberships;
- To gain knowledge and understand the impact of sex and gender on gender relations in the United States;
- To develop skills to work with differences, disagreements, and conflicts as opportunities for deeper understanding; and
- To identify and plan individual and collective actions that contribute toward more inclusive and just communities.

Roots of Intergroup Dialogue in Socratic Dialogue and Popular Education

In order to understand these goals, it is important to trace them back to their roots. Hearing the term "dialogue", many immediately think of Socratic dialogue, Dialogue Education, and the Freireian (1970) problem-posing method. These methods of dialogue provided a historical grounding for intergroup dialogue (IGD) to flourish, particularly Dialogue Education, as will be discussed in this section. While IGD is historically rooted in these other approaches to dialogue, IGD also represents a unique approach to dialogical and multicultural education in higher education settings, and contrasts in many respects from historical approaches to dialogue, as will be discussed.

"Socratic dialogue" is a term sometimes used to describe stories involving a wise philosopher giving advice inspired by the teachings of Socrates (470 B.C. – 399 B.C.), but more often, is refers to the use of the Socratic dialogical method. The latter type of Socratic dialogue emphasizes following a negative line of inquiry and debate that requires one to continuously defend any moral and epistemological assumptions underlying an assertion that appear to be in contradiction with one another (Frede, 1992). The goal of this line of inquiry is to develop critical thinking skills, and eliminate assertions wrought with internal contradictions, until one is left with ones that are both logical and consistent with one's other beliefs.

Socratic dialogical methods helped to shape the historical development of dialogical methods, as they are conceptualized today. This may readily be observed by studying parallels between Socratic dialogue and other dialogical methods, such as the "Popular Education" problem posing methods Paulo Freire (1970) developed, and the Dialogue Education model Vella (2007), and other radical educational reformers following Freire refined over the last few decades.

The Socratic dialogue method was developed to address the problems of ignorance and lack of critical awareness of contradictions between ideals and reality (Frede, 1992). Dialogue methods rooted in the Socratic method use dialogue as a tool for developing critical thinking skills and empowering individuals to identify beliefs and values they share in common, and therefore, to come to agreement about what social and individual actions must be taken if one hopes to live a life in line with one's ideals.

Both ancient Socratic dialogue and modern forms of dialogue are methods of public discourse born of contrast between blind, ignorant allegiance to unquestioned values and beliefs passed down from society and authority figures on the one hand, and on the other, engaging in revolutionary action if necessary (as Socrates did) to defend knowledge acquired through critical inquiry, debate, and discourse. Paulo Freire (1970), for example, contrasts Dialogue Education with the modern "monologue" or "banking" approach to education that involves "investing" information in students as if they were empty savings accounts that may someday be willing and able to "give back" to society. He viewed education as the means to both self-empowerment, and social transformation. Socrates, in contrast, often conceptualized the root of social problems as being moral and epistemological, by nature, while Dialogue Education tends to focus on feelings, personal experience, self-empowerment, and both experiential and self-directed learning.

Several commonalities may be identified between IGD, the Socratic method, and Freirian Popular / Dialogue Education:

i. safety (creating ground rules to ensure participants feel safe and empowered)
ii. egalitarianism (diffused hierarchy; peers often serving as facilitators)
iii. "conscientization" / consciousness raising (becoming aware of both structural oppression and the role of individuals in propagating oppression)
iv. investigation (investigating real-life examples of inequality and oppression in popular media, and through personal observation)
v. problem-posing / dichotomies (examining conflicts between ideals and reality)
vi. promoting social justice (focus on reducing inequality on both a personal and structural level)

Intergroup dialogue's and Dialogue Education's shared focus on egalitarianism, conscientization, and promoting social justice sets both methods apart from many traditional methods of health and mental health intervention, which tend to emphasize individual deficiencies, personal accountability, and formulaic approaches to pursuing personal change (Dessel, Rogge, and Garlington, 2006; Dewees, 2002). Intergroup dialogue also contrasts with Dialogue Education in several notable ways, though. Some of the differences between IGD and Dialogue Education are the specific methods used to achieve similar ends, which will be discussed in more depth below.

Intergroup dialogue, as it is implemented within academic settings, is understandably not concerned with promoting literacy in the literal sense of the word, as Freirian (1970) and other popular education methods typically are, at least as a first step toward liberation (Vella, 2007). Students in for-credit intergroup dialogues are required to complete the kinds of academic reading and writing assignments one might expect in any other for-credit, college or master's level course. There is also a unique emphasis on learning new vocabularies of identity in intergroup dialogue.

The foci of for-credit intergroup dialogues are usually pre-determined by curriculum developers, or by the facilitators themselves. Intergroup dialogue

participants still play an integral role in co-facilitating the dialogue, though, by raising questions, and by identifying differences and commonalities between participants.

Intergroup dialogues participants choose to sign up for an intergroup dialogue class, which will typically focus on a specific topic of interest to them (e.g., religion), and then they generally meet once or twice a week, for an hour or two at a time, to dialogue about that topic. Unlike in Freirian (1970) dialogues, the wider community is not typically invited *into* the dialogue process at the end stages of an intergroup dialogue, although the students may work on a final project that is of potential benefit to the wider community. An intergroup dialogue may consist of several to 18 dialogue participants who may only reencounter each other in passing outside of the course. With intergroup dialogue, there is also the assumption of confidentiality (i.e., "what is said in here, stays in here"). There is also more of a focus on emotional processing within individuals, as well as within the group as a whole. Thus, participating in an intergroup dialogue provides a more academic, yet emotional, insular, and private experience than the kind of public, community-inclusive dialogue Freire (1970) advocated.

Dialogical Pedagogy and Processes

There are aspects of intergroup dialogue that involve learning new vocabularies of identity, and through this process, seeing the world through the different and multifaceted lens of identity diversity. Dialogues bring together agents of inequality (such as men, heterosexuals, and whites) with targets of inequality (such as women, homosexuals, and people of color). Intergroup dialogues are diverse by design. If there are two religion dialogues offered at a University during the same semester, Muslims and Christians are distributed across the two groups to ensure that all the Christian students, for example, do not end up in one "intergroup" dialogue.

Even though intergroup dialogues are diverse by design, dialogue facilitators and participants are encouraged not to ask someone to speak as a representative if "their" identity group. One of the points of having multiple members of an identity group present in a dialogue is to help prevent individuals (e.g., the only white male) from being singled out in that manner (Nagda et al., 1999). Most dialogues have two trained facilitators who each represent at least one of the primary identities that are the focus of the dialogue (e.g., one white woman and one man of color co-facilitating a race-ethnicity dialogue; one homosexual man and one heterosexual woman co-facilitating a gender dialogue).

Dialogue activities and curricula bring increasingly controversial and complex topics to the table. Participants are encouraged to show openness to different perspectives, as well as vulnerability, by sharing their own personal stories and perspectives. Throughout the small and large group activities in a dialogue, trained facilitators are expected to introduce new vocabularies of identity and structural inequality, while modeling methods of communicating that de-escalate conflict and promote intergroup understanding.

There are generally four stages students are guided through in an intergroup dialogue (Nagda et al., 1999). The first stage involves laying the ground rules and engaging students in various ice-breaker kinds of activities that allow students to get to know each other. The second stage focuses on recognizing commonalities and differences, and identifying privileges and disadvantages associated with being a member of the identity groups of interest (e.g., being heterosexual versus homosexual, bisexual, or asexual). Stage three consists of various structured activities that allow students to dialogue in small groups, and as a class, about specific topics, such as interracial dating, or gay marriage. In stage four, students develop a plan of action to interrupt stereotypes, and think about how they could work together, and with others, to carry out their plan (Nagda et al., 1999).

Throughout each of these stages, students are expected to fully participate, and to engage in reflective practices, such as journaling. Manageable levels of conflict are seen as part of the learning process. If communication becomes overly hostile or aggressive, facilitators will attempt to de-escalate, and emphasize the importance of maintaining a safe atmosphere so that dialogue participants will continue sharing openly and candidly with one another.

In intergroup dialogues, there is a strong emphasis on learning to: a) recognize your privilege and power if you are a member of an identity group that has traditionally experienced more of both; and b) develop a deep understanding of the anger, frustration, and perspective of participants who have experienced various kinds of prejudice and inequality because of their identities. Since one of the aims of intergroup dialogue is to learn to work effectively with members of social identity groups different from one's own, many activities in intergroup dialogue classes are focused on developing a better understanding of how individuals define themselves in relation to their identities and how they would like to be treated, in light of, or in spite of their identities (e.g., someone who is not sighted may prefer to *not* be offered special assistance from strangers when crossing a street) (Nagda et al., 1999). The ultimate goal of these dialogical exchanges is to create shared vocabularies, and through those shared vocabularies, a shared understanding and sense of mutual respect that will enable members of different identity groups to form alliances with one another and work together to achieve greater social equality (Nagda et al., 1999).

Theory and Outcomes of Intergroup Dialogue

The core goals of intergroup dialogue are:

- To work across differences, and see diversity as a resource and strength, rather than as a problem that should be ignored or overcome;

- To build awareness of structural factors that promote and reinforce inequality; and
- To learn practical, realistic methods of promoting equality and intergroup understanding in one's day to day life outside of class (e.g., by confronting someone promoting negative stereotypes about a target of inequality).

Building positive intergroup relations, and intergroup empathy, within the context of the dialogue is an essential step in promoting these kinds of learning outcomes. Five factors appear to be especially influential in creating an academic course and curriculum that contributes to positive intergroup relations. The first four factors were developed by Allport (1954) and include:

i. Support and rewards for participation, for example, the fact that a course is offered, and one may receive credit for it, means it must be socially acceptable to enroll (approval from authority figures) and there are rewards associated with completing the course (course credit).
ii. Creating a structure to support equal participation and power in the group, for example, by ensuring that there are equal numbers of representatives of each group, and by assigning two facilitators to the group who each represent one end of a spectrum, who each have equal power in the group, and who each make an effort to encourage members of their group to participate more fully.
iii. Opportunities for members of the different groups to engage in common tasks.
iv. Related to this last factor, opportunities to get to know individuals in the group on a personal level.

Pettigrew (1998) has conducted research supporting the addition of one additional factor relating to getting to know group members on a personal level, which is the development of genuine affective ties or friendships between participants identifying with different groups. Traditional, lecture-based classes may only provide opportunities for the first two, and occasionally the third factor if students are randomly assigned to

work on group projects. In these traditional contexts, students rarely have the chance to get to know their peers on a personal level, and are even less likely to strike up friendships with individuals who are different in salient ways from themselves (e.g., cross-race friendships) as a result of interactions that occur in class, versus outside of class. Intergroup dialogues, in comparison, are structured to provide all the first four kinds of opportunities, and to support the development of friendships between dialogue participants.

Werkmeister Rozas (2003) used pre- and post-test surveys to explore whether race intergroup dialogue participants (*n*= 27) were more likely than students in a control group (*n* = 79) to form cross-race friendships over the course of a ten-week period. All of the participants were undergraduates at an all-women's college. Werkmeister Rozas's (2003) findings indicate that intergroup dialogue participants were more likely to experience a greater increase in cross-racial friendships than control group participants.

Geranios (1997) found that learning outcomes associated with intergroup dialogue participation were similar, though less pronounced, for undergraduates participating in courses covering multicultural content. Specifically, students in both conditions experienced a decrease in negative stereotypes about diverse groups, and an increase in knowledge of diverse groups. This indicates the learning in these domains appears to be enhanced by intergroup dialogue. DeTurk (2004) found that undergraduate participation in intergroup dialogue was associated with another learning outcome of interest: increased perspective taking.

Nagda et al. (1999) administered post-surveys to 50 bachelors of social work intergroup dialogue participants who were diverse both in terms of their self-identified social class and racial/ethnic backgrounds (p. 442). A majority of the students reported finding intergroup dialogue to be a "crucial" learning experience that increased their "awareness of social inequalities" and about "experiences and perspectives of people from other social groups" (Nagda et al., 1999, p. 443).

Adams, Bell, & Griffin (1997) identified some of the different demands intergroup dialogue facilitator struggle to balance:

> The emotional and cognitive components of the learning process; acknowledging and supporting the individual student's experience while illuminating the interactions among social groups; attending to social relations within the classroom; and utilizing reflection and experience as tools for student-centered learning (p. 30).

Match between Dialogue Activities and Learning Styles

Even with random assignment and a common curriculum, each participant enters a dialogue with his or her own motivational disposition and learning goals. A secondary aim of this study is to consider how these dispositions and goals match with the different types of activities that occur during each video session.

For example, during video session one, the *Personal and Social Identity Wheel* activity occurs in both gender and race/ethnicity dialogues. This activity allows individuals to get to know each other on a personal level and form common in-group identities (further details will be provided about each activity in Chapter III). Group differences also begin to become salient in this session. This activity may be most rewarding for participants who joined a dialogue in large part because they wanted to learn how to form friendships and alliances with individuals who are different than themselves.

In video session two, group differences come sharply into focus during the *Fishbowl* activity, an activity that divides the dialogue group into targets of inequality (students of color in race/ethnicity dialogues, and women in gender dialogues) and agents of inequality (Caucasians in race/ethnicity dialogues, men in gender dialogues). Only one group (i.e., the targets or the agents) may speak at a time during most of the activity. Participants who find it rewarding to teach others about their experiences and

press a group to confront controversial topics may enjoy having the spotlight during this session.

Finally, during video session three, all of the participants silently walk around the room and gaze at media representations of targets and agents that each of the participants have brought in and taped to the wall. After the *Gallery Walk* activity (as in the other sessions), the participants dialogue about their thoughts and impressions during the activity. This session may appeal to participants interested in understanding structural influences on oppression and the role of the media in influencing perception and behavior. This kind of knowledge could be used both to critically resist media influences, and to learn how to effectively use media to bring about change.

Facilitation Processes

Spearmon (1999) studied additional factors – such as quality of facilitation role balancing – either facilitated or interfered with learning in intergroup dialogues. Subjects were 50 undergraduate bachelors of social work students. All of them received a post-test survey, and sub samples were individually interviewed or involved in focus groups. Spearmon (1999, p. 7) identified six factors that appeared to facilitate learning in intergroup dialogues:

i. reciprocal teaming;
ii. opportunities which fostered expanded consciousness and critical inquiry;
iii. the creation of safe learning environments;
iv. group size (a smaller group facilitated greater learning);
v. group composition (a more diverse group facilitated greater learning);
vi. and effective facilitative leadership of learning situations.

The factors that seemed to interfere with learning included:

i. poor facilitation (described in more depth below);
ii. trying to do too much in one dialogue session (i.e., too many activities, and too little debriefing); and

iii. a lack of connection – and even inconsistencies – between lectures and dialogues (Spearmon, 1999).

The facilitators for this study were trained undergraduates, as is often the case with intergroup dialogues. Many of the student participating in this study complained that the facilitators had trouble managing conflicts, were afraid to identify stereotypes on the spot (or in other ways challenge students), and were generally ignorant about many of the social justice topics discussed in dialogue. Student participants also thought that student facilitators were ill-equipped to balance their different identities as peers, students, participants, facilitators, and guides. Based on these findings, Spearmon (1999) suggests that the practice of training undergraduate students to facilitate intergroup dialogues with their peers focused on such heated topics as racism and oppression needs to be "seriously critiqued and possibly restructured" (p. 98).

Another interesting finding from Spearmon's (1999) study is that students reported feeling as if the ground rules laid out at the beginning of class pressured students to hold back from sharing their spontaneous thoughts for fear of not being "politically correct" enough. Males were especially likely to voice this complaint. This may indicate a need for facilitators to define more clearly to participants what is acceptable, and what kinds of comments might undermine group processes, to ensure that participants realize that a wide range of observations and comments fall within the "acceptable" category, even if they are not "politically correct." Theorists, researchers, and curriculum developers are likely to continue grappling with the challenge of balancing the need to create a "safe" environment where individuals feel comfortable speaking up, with the need to create a "liberating" environment where individuals feel free to speak their mind.

Overall, Spearmon's (1999) study reveals a need for further research on optimal group sizes, and optimal levels of diversity in intergroup dialogues. Also, there appears to be a need for comparisons to be drawn between the facilitation skills of undergraduate, graduate student, adjunct instructors, and full-time faculty to better

understand the extent to which differences in teaching experience, content knowledge, or even professional practice experience may increase or obstruct the learning processes of intergroup dialogue participants.

This thesis study is the first to assess the moment to moment impact of different facilitation styles on student processes such as *Engagement* and *Openness* within gender and race-ethnicity intergroup dialogues. It does not distinguish between peer facilitators, adjunct instructors, and faculty, but instead, focuses on approaches to facilitation that all facilitators could be trained to use.

Facilitators' ability to build and maintain positive intergroup relations within a dialogue may turn out to be an important predictor of whether dialogue participants will be willing and able to build and maintain positive intergroup alliances in a variety of other contexts after the conclusion of the dialogue course.

How do individuals promote cooperation and positive intergroup relations? Gottman (1994) found that marital-conflict escalates to levels predictive of divorce when couples share more negative interactions than positive ones. Gottman (1994) defines negative interactions as those characterized by hostility, contempt, defensiveness, stonewalling, and criticism. He suggests that negative interactions result from the misguided attempts of one partner to influence or resist the influence of the other in a way that provokes the other partner to adopt similarly negative strategies to achieve the same aim. Losada and Heaphy (2004) observed parallel processes in work-groups: work-groups whose members advocated for their own plan and made more negative statements were less productive than groups whose members took an inquiry or dialogue-based approach and made more positive statements.

Winter et al. (Langner & Winter, 2001; Peterson et al., 1994; Winter, 2003) observed parallel processes on an international level. Winter et al. hypothesizes that a cycle of conflict escalation is initiated between two countries when the leader of one country expresses interest in influencing the people or controlling the resources of the other country. These statements lead to what Winter (2003) describes as a (potentially)

distorted, increased sense of threat, which in turn, may lead heads of state to make the case for war and eventually initiate an attack or war on the other country.

Research Hypotheses

Two general themes may be extracted from these studies about communication processes contributing to either cooperation or conflict:

i. a negative, controlling approach to communication often leads to stonewalling and conflict escalation; while
ii. a positive, inquiry-based, dialogical approach to communication often promotes openness, engagement, and cooperation.

This thesis study tests two basic predictions inspired by these previous studies:

i. facilitator advocacy, and "triggered reactions" contribute to higher mean levels of student *Anxiety*, and lower mean levels of student *Openness* and *Engagement*; while
ii. facilitator inquiry, reflective/redirection, and support/listening contribute to lower mean levels student *Anxiety*, and higher mean levels of student *Openness* and *Engagement*.

This study uses qualitative and quantitative video research methods to explore the moment to moment impact of these facilitation styles on student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness.* Individuals rarely keep track of moment to moment changes in their personal levels of *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness*, thus, observational methods are likely to more effective than self-report methods, which would also be disruptive to the flow of a intergroup dialogue. Video research methods are particularly well-suited for this kind of observational research, because videos allow one to watch an interaction multiple times, and thereby systematically code subtle behaviors that would be difficult to consistently detect and measure if one were coding behavior without the aid of a video-recording.

Intergroup dialogue courses are facilitated by two facilitators who work together as a team. Each facilitator receives intensive training focusing on facilitation skills such as creating ground rules, neutrally reflecting on student comments, and identifying underlying assumptions. Conflicts, differences, and disagreements between dialogue participants are seen as learning opportunities, as long as conflicts are not allowed to escalate to the point that students disrespect others, emotionally withdraw, or cease to fully participate. Facilitators are responsible for ensuring conflicts do not get out of hand, and for modeling a style of communication that facilitates dialogue rather than debate.

The following quote from one of the facilitators participating in this study illustrates the role facilitators typically play in intergroup dialogue. In the following example, a gender dialogue facilitator (a man of color) initiates a dialogue within an agent (men) caucus group circle, while the target (women) caucus group observes. The facilitator rustles some papers, and then says the following with a calm voice, and a neutral facial expression: *"*Okay, so think of this as a conversation between us. Remember to uphold our ground rules while in this space, okay? So, what was hard or easy about being split up into caucus groups last week?" In this example, the facilitator reminded participants of the ground rules, and promoted a topic for discussion to get the dialogue going, without polarizing an issue, or advocating for a particular position.

To what extent do facilitators actually use the facilitation skills they are trained to use? How does *facilitation style* vary between gender and race/ethnicity dialogues, and depending on other factors, such as: the size of dialogue groups; the type of activity; the particular session; and interactions between these predictive factors (e.g., smaller dialogues during video session one)? This is the first study to provide minute-by-minute coding data to address these kinds of questions. Another aim of this study is to assess the impact of (minute-by-minute) dialogue facilitation practices on (minute-by-minute) changes in student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness*. This is also the first study to explore this impact, and the relationship between predictive factors such as

dialogue topic (gender or race/ethnicity) and *facilitation style* on student processes observed (minute-by-minute) in intergroup dialogues.

A larger question this study aims to address is whether there are notable differences in student processes observed between gender and race/ethnicity dialogues, beyond what may be attributed to responses to different styles of facilitation. There are reasons to expect that these two types of dialogue may be inherently different, and that those differences may even prompt different styles of facilitation, but the literature thus far has not examined these issues adequately. Some of those reasons may be related to culture, society, and popular media. In the United States, for example, individuals tend to be far more sensitive to issues of racial discrimination than they are to gender discrimination. There is constant language policing around issues of race and ethnicity in the popular media, yet the majority of demeaning language about women seems to not even be questioned.

Gender social movements have a different history and foundation than race/ethnicity social movements in the United States, at least based on scholarship in these two areas of study. Some of these movements have been critiqued for ignoring other dimensions, and recent theorists such as Kimberle Crenshaw, Patricia Hill Collins, and Iris Marion Young have increasingly focused on intersectional analyses of identity and oppression. While the lived experiences of gender inequality and race/ethnicity inequality are theoretically intersectional, how do differences in these experiences play out in the context of intergroup dialogues? Half of the participants of each dialogue in this study were female, and half were students of color, and half of the dialogues focused on gender, while the other half focused on race/ethnicity issues. This experimental design provided a unique opportunity to explore differences in both student and facilitator communication and affective processes that may be attributable to the dialogue topic (either gender or race/ethnicity).

CHAPTER III

Method

A Multi-University Evaluation of the Educational Effects of Intergroup Dialogues

Intergroup dialogue courses are generally facilitated by two facilitators who work together as a team. Each facilitation team participating in the Multi-University Evaluation consisted of a man and a woman, one of whom was Caucasian, and one of whom was a person of color. Intergroup dialogue facilitators could be faculty, graduate student assistants, or undergraduate peer facilitators. To qualify as an undergraduate peer facilitator, a student must have completed an intergroup dialogue course, and been selected through an application and screening process. The individuals who trained intergroup dialogue facilitators for this study followed the same basic protocol, and used the same materials for training facilitators across all nine campuses. Each dialogue facilitator received intensive training focusing on facilitation skills such as creating ground rules, neutrally reflecting on student comments, and identifying underlying assumptions.

To ensure a degree of uniformity across the experimental dialogues, each institution used identical curricula. The curricula only differed by focusing on either gender or race/ethnicity issues. For example, during the third class session, students across the two types of dialogues, and across the nine campuses, would participate in the same "Social and Personal Identity Wheel" activity. At the end of the class in which the this activity occurred, across all nine campuses, all of the gender dialogue participants were assigned the same set of reading materials focusing on gender issues, while all of the race/ethnicity dialogue participants were assigned the same set of readings focusing on race/ethnicity issues.

Pre-, post-, and one-year-delayed-post measures were administered to the experimental, control, and comparison group participants of this study. A variety of qualitative methods were used to study processes occurring within the experimental dialogues. Final papers written by dialogue participants were coded. Transcriptions of post-dialogue-course interviews with participants were coded. Video-recordings of dialogue sessions were also coded.

Overview of the Video Research Component of the Multi-University Evaluation

There is a tendency to be overly ambitious when designing a video-research project. A natural, first inclination is to try to capture everything on video, and code anything remotely interesting observed in the videos. It quickly becomes apparent that doing either is infeasible on a number of levels. Hypothetically, for example, if we had decided to code each participant every second they were in their two-hour intergroup dialogue class, this would amount to over 100,000 seconds of coding, and over 100,000 coding incidences per participant. Multiply this estimate by up to sixteen participants per class, and by twenty dialogues, and the estimate of total seconds that would need to be coded jumps to thirty-two million. Add a dozen video coding scales to this equation, so we are coding more than one behavior of interest, and this number jumps to two-hundred-and-twenty-four-billion. To achieve this coding feat, one would need either an army of coders, or many years to complete the coding (most likely both).

During our early brainstorming sessions in the fall of 2005, we had to make a number of difficult decisions to ensure we were designing a study that was limited enough its scope that we could feasibly complete it within a three-year time-frame, yet broad enough in its scope to allow us to address key research hypotheses of the Multi-University Evaluation. This was not an easy task, since we knew that each decision we made would have a tremendous impact on every other aspect of the study. Our process for developing methods for this study demonstrates the complex interaction between a

video-research team's hypotheses, the participants of a video-research study, and the logistical constraints posed by video-recording, editing, coding, and data analyses.

For example, consider all of the implications of the seemingly simple decision of choosing the unit of time, or the type of discrete action to video-code. In this context, a discrete action might be someone crossing her legs, rolling her eyes, or a verbal interaction. Every action need not be coded, but changes that are visible during the interactions that are relevant to the coding scheme may be coded. Generally speaking, brief, discrete actions, or smaller units of time are better suited for coding subtle changes in non-verbal behavior, such as the facial actions and expressions Ekman, Friesen, and Hager (2002) systematically classified as distinct universal emotions. For example, Gottman (1994) was interested in exploring the relationship between the facial expressions and body language married couples exhibited while arguing, and the couple's subsequent marriage and divorce outcomes. Gottman chose one-second time segments in order to code behaviors and facial expressions that could be as subtle as smirking and eye-rolling.

Data from smaller units of time, or from brief, discrete actions, may be compiled and analyzed for trends and patterns, but the total amount of time or actions that may be coded is limited by a number of factors, including, but not limited to:

i. the number of qualified video-coders the video-research team is able to employ, train, and supervise;
ii. the amount of time each video-coder requires to make coding decisions and enter coding data; and
iii. the amount of video coding coders may feasibly complete within a given time-period without undermining the quality of the coding data (coding can be tedious at times, thus coder burn-out is a significant consideration).

Typically, video-researchers coding facial expressions have one video-camera per research subject, just as Gottman (1994) did in his early video-research studies of

married couples arguing. Coding facial expressions and body language on a second-by-second basis is feasible when studying individuals, or dyads, but is difficult to accomplish for a variety of reasons when studying groups. For example, if each research subject in a group requires an additional video-camera and videographer, than each subject that is added to the group increases the likelihood that study participants will find the presence of video-cameras and videographers intrusive, and act differently than they normally would, were additional video-cameras and videographers not present. While there is the possibility of using hidden cameras (with the informed consent of participants), this is currently not a financially feasible option for most video-research teams.

Reflecting these constraints, Birdwhistel – an anthropologist who founded kinesics – developed a detailed, moment by moment coding system with over hundred categories of non-verbal behavior (Barfield, 1997). Bales' (1979) SYMLOG system (a system for the multiple level observation of groups) for analyzing interactions in task groups also adapted a moment to moment approach to coding.

In conclusion, larger units of time, and more inclusive categories of action (e.g., an instance of inquiry or debate), are generally better suited for coding groups, especially when the intrusiveness of multiple video-cameras and videographers is a concern. Larger units of time, and more inclusive categories of action, are also better-suited for coding trends in behavior over time (such as whether a subject looks “notably relaxed” over a one-minute period), as well as complex communication processes (such as when a subject repeatedly interrupts and talks over other subjects).

Because of our concerns about the potential intrusiveness of having multiple video-cameras present, our research team decided we only wanted one video-camera and one videographer (sometimes accompanied by a sound technician) per dialogue course. We also decided our primary unit of time for video coding would be one-minute. In other words, when a video coder made a decision about whether a participant’s behavior met the criteria for a particular scale (or a unit of a scale, such as “high” versus

"moderate" anxiety), that decision was based on one-minute of observation of the participant's behavior.

Our decision about the unit of time we were interested in coding allowed us to estimate how many units of time could realistically be coded per video, how many videos per dialogue could feasibly be coded, and thus how many dialogues we should aim to video-tape. The decision to make one-minute our unit of observation reflected our interest in sampling relatively large units of time from each dialogue course, capturing different types of in-class activities across three video-recording sessions. This decision also reflected our interest in observing multiple examples of both types of dialogues (gender and race/ethnicity) on each of the nine campuses participating in the study.

Our decision about what unit of time to measure was informed by our conversations about what kind of data we could collect from the videos that would be unique, versus complementary to other forms of quantitative and qualitative data being collected for the Multi-University Evaluation. Our emphasis was on what would be unique, yet also pertinent to the key hypotheses of the Multi-University Evaluation, and feasible to code with a relatively high degree of inter-coder reliability. With these goals in mind, we began the process of developing scales for nonverbal behaviors and communication processes that we were interested in coding on a minute-by-minute basis, a process that took over a year and a half to fine-tune using literature reviews, pilot video coding, and numerous brainstorming and consultation sessions (described in more detail later). In summary, our hypotheses, and our sense of what we wanted the scope of this study to be, formed the foundation for all of our subsequent decisions about the design of our video-research methods.

Dissertation Study Sample

20 experimental dialogue courses from year two of the Multi-University Evaluation were used for this study. 10 of them were gender dialogues, and 10 were race/ethnicity dialogues. The 20 dialogues video-taped each had two facilitators: one male, and one female, one of whom was a person of color, and one of whom was Caucasian. Each of the 20 dialogue groups were evenly balanced by gender and race. Each of the dialogue groups were also evenly balanced by the four primary demographic groups: women of color; men of color; white women; and white men.

40 facilitators and 264 students participated in this study. The number of students participating per dialogue ranged from seven to 16 students. The average number of students per dialogue was 13 (+/- *SD* 2.32). There are notable differences in the number of students per dialogue in the two types of dialogues, and this difference in dialogue size appears to have an influence on variability in some video coding variables. Later in this chapter, I will describe measures I took to test and control for the influence of dialogue size on dependent video coding variables.

Within the gender dialogues: one had seven students, and one had 9 students, while another had 11 students. The smallest race/ethnicity dialogue consisted of 12 students, in comparison. The minimum and maximum size for each group was seven to 16 students for gender dialogues (*Average:* 12, *SD*: 2.7), and 12 to 16 students for race/ethnicity dialogues (*Average:* 14, *SD*: 1.5).

As will be discussed later in this chapter, the videographer, sound technician, facilitators, and video-supervisor each played key roles in ensuring the success of every video-taping session. Although there were some checks and balances in place, if one of these individuals failed to show up (e.g., the videographer), or made a serious mistake during a single video-taping session (e.g., the videographer failing to follow the video-taping protocol, or the sound technician failing to notice that the microphone was accidentally unplugged during the break), all three sets of video-tapes for that dialogue would need to be excluded from the data sample. At the University of Michigan, I

helped supervise two gender dialogues, and two race/ethnicity dialogues being video-taped. Collaborators at the other eight campuses supervised one gender dialogue, and one race/ethnicity dialogue being video-taped on their campus.

Video Sessions and Activity Types

Each of the semester-long dialogue courses was video-taped on the same three occasions over the span of a semester. These occasions will be referred to as "**video sessions**[1] **one, two**, and **three**". The identical curricula shared between the experimental gender and race/ethnicity dialogues proved crucial for the design of this study because it allowed us to video-tape participants on the day a particular activity occurred across all nine campuses (see Table I). "**Video session one**" always captured the day the "Social and Personal Identity Wheel" activity occurred. "**Video session two**" always took place on the day of the "Fishbowl" activity. "**Video session three**" always occurred on the day of the "Gallery Walk" activity. These particular activities were selected because they each reveal distinct aspects of the pedagogical approach used in intergroup dialogues. They will be described in more detail in the paragraphs that follow.

Each of the three **video sessions** started with a "*Check-in*" activity, which is usually a brief activity that allows each participant to let everyone know how they are feeling (e.g., "if you were the weather, what kind of weather would you be today?"). Following *Check-in* is the main "**activity***"* for the day (e.g., the "Gallery Walk" **activity**). Following the main **activity** is a period of facilitated dialogue called the "*Dialogue about the Activity*". In two of the three sessions (**video sessions one and three**), this dialogue is followed by a period of meta-dialogue, during which the participants reflect on and

[1] Key predictive factors were written in bold to remind the reader that they are not descriptions, but references to key predictive variables in this study

dialogue about how their previous discussion went, and about the entire class session: the "*Dialogue about Dialogue*"[2] (see Table I).

Four types of **activities** (*Check-In*, *Activity, Dialogue about the Activity,* and *Dialogue about the Dialogue*) were selected for coding in this study. Two of the main class **activities** were excluded from coding since they involved small group activities (the "Social and Personal Identity Wheel" **activity**) or complete silence (the "Gallery Walk" **activity**). When the main class **activity** retained (the "Fishbowl" *Activity* from **session two**) was compared with *Dialogue about the Activity*, and *Dialogue about the Dialogue*, these three different **activity types** appeared similar across the student process variables (i.e., across all of the video coding scales focusing on student non-verbal behavior and communication processes) (see Table I)

Check-in contrasted with *Activity, Dialogue about the Activity,* and *Dialogue about the Dialogue*, because the focus of the *Check-in* "ice-breaker" **activity** varied widely from group to group, and rarely directly related to gender or race/ethnicity issues (e.g., students were sometimes asked, "What superhero would you be?"). To address the research questions for this thesis, we were only interested in analyzing coding data from dialogue focusing broadly on the topics of gender or race/ethnicity: dialogue that involved students actually interacting with each other, and not merely sitting in a circle. Thus, coding data from the *Check-in* activities were excluded from analysis for this dissertation, but may be analyzed in future studies. By excluding the *Check-in* **activity** from analysis for this study, 21 of the 106 coding minutes were removed from the data sample, as will be discussed later in this chapter (see Table I).

[2] These three types of activities (*Activity, Dialogue about the Activity,* and *Dialogue about the Dialogue*) are treated as predictive categories of comparison in this study's analyses and results, thus, are noted in italics and capital letters to draw attention to them as factors predictive of variability in the data.

Codable Minutes

Before I describe further how the decision to exclude *Check-in* impacted the data sample, I would like to emphasize the difference between "coding" minutes, and "*Codable*[3]" minutes. "Coding" minutes are the one-minute coding periods (~ 35 per two-hour video session, 106 across the three **video sessions**) coders systematically reviewed to screen participants for further coding (see Table I). Each student and facilitator that spoke and/or was in the picture (for at least ten non-consecutive seconds) during a coding minute was marked in the data set as "*Codable*". Participants who did not meet these criteria were marked as "not *Codable*" for that minute.

Typically, one video coder screened each participant for a particular dialogue and **video session** (e.g., Dialogue #19, **video session three**), then shared the *Codable* data with all subsequent coders. This saved subsequent coders a lot of time, and reduced errors that might have resulted from disagreements about which participants were *Codable* in a given coding minute.

The *Codable* column allowed coders to ignore every participant who appeared in the picture during a one-minute period except the two or three individuals who were "*Codable*" during that minute. The *Codable* column further specified whether an individual was "in the picture and did not speak", "spoke but was not in the picture", or "spoke and was in the picture". This additional data allowed video coders to save even more time while coding, because it allowed them to ignore participants who were "*Codable*", but who failed to meet the basic criteria for a scale, either because the scale required them to speak and they did not speak (e.g., when coding "positive statement about an abstract idea or movement"), or because the scale required them to be in the picture, and they spoke, but were not in the picture (e.g., when coding non-verbal behavior).

[3] Names of video coding scales are in italics

There were a number of additional factors that contributed to variation in the proportion of the 106 original coding minutes each individual was "*Codable*". First, keep in mind that dialogue groups could be as large as sixteen students and two facilitators (18 individuals total), and there was only one camera per dialogue. The video-taping protocol specified that when multiple individuals were not laughing or speaking simultaneously, videographers would zoom in to the current speaker, and two to three students sitting beside the speaker. This meant that individuals who were: 1) facilitators; 2) talkative; and/or 3) sitting near either of these types of individuals, were more likely to be in the picture, and thus more likely to be "*Codable*". If they were *Codable*, this in turn meant they would be coded with a variety of video coding scales.

All of the facilitators were trained to listen, reflect, ask questions, and redirect dialogue in order to encourage less talkative students to equally participate. If applied appropriately, these facilitation methods had the potential of evening the distribution of *Codable* minutes across participants.

Absences and Attendance Rates

As previously mentioned, each dialogue was video-taped three times: once early in the semester, once mid-semester, and once toward the end of the semester. 218 (82.5%) of the 264 student participants of this study attended all three video recording sessions. 46 (17.4%) student participants missed one or more video recording sessions (there were 51 absences in total due to five students missing two different video sessions).

Most of the students (41, 15.5%) who were absent from a **video session** were only absent from a single **video session**. Five students were absent from two different **video sessions**, which always included **video session two**. Two of these five students missed **video sessions one and two** (a female of color in a gender dialogue, and a white male in a gender dialogue). The other three students missed **video sessions two and**

three (two males of color in race/ethnicity dialogues, and one female of color in a gender dialogue).

Attendance was highest in the **first video session**, which occurred early in the semester. During **video session one**, nine of the 264 (3.4%) student participants were absent. 22 (8.3%) students were absent from **video session two**, which occurred mid-semester, and 20 (7.5%) were absent from **video session three**, which occurred toward the end of the semester.

Approximately 85 one-minute coding segments were retained for analysis (Table I). 19 of the 20 dialogues had between 80 to 88 minutes per individual, while one dialogue had only 62 minutes per individual due to a scheduling issue (*Mean*: 83.50, *SD*: 5.55). Multiplying 83.50 minutes with the 264 students in this study sample, one might expect there to be 22,044 one-minute coding segments in the final data set. Due to absences, though, participants were coded between 26 and 88 minutes. The average student was coded for 77.8 minutes (*SD*: 13.8). There are 20,561 one-minute coding segments (1,483 rows of missing data due to absences and due to some students arriving late to video sessions, or leaving early). 55.1% (11,331) of those minutes are coded as "not *Codable*" because the student did not speak, and was not in the picture for at least ten non-consecutive seconds during the one-minute coding period. This means that 44.9% (9,230) of the one-minute coding segments are "*Codable*" minutes.

Incidence Rates of Students Speaking

Student participants were in the picture for at least ten non-consecutive seconds, but did not speak, in 29.2% (6,006) of the one-minute coding segments. Students were not in the picture, but spoke, and their voice was recognizable to the coder, 0.8% (160) of the one-minute coding segments. Students both spoke, and were in the picture, 14.9% (3,065) of the one-minute coding segments. This means students spoke during 15.7% (3,225) of the one-minute coding segments. The average student spoke during a total of

12.2 minutes (*SD*: 7.5) of the approximately 77.8 one-minute segments coded on average, for each participant (*Speaking* minutes: *Mode*: five, *Median*: 11, *Minimum*: zero, *Maximum*: 47).

In other words, the average student in an intergroup dialogue course consisting of two facilitators, and 13 students (i.e., 15 participants, in total), spoke during approximately 16% of the "dialogue" minutes. Hypothetically, if only one participant spoke per minute, than each participant (including facilitators) would speak only $1/15^{th}$, or approximately 7% of the dialogue minutes. The general convention that is used by group leaders in a face-to-face group is to allow 30% of the most talkative members to take up about 70% of the speaking time. The fact that each student participant is speaking around 16% percent of all dialogue minutes, on average, indicates that at least two students spoke, on average, during every single minute of the dialogue that was video-coded (i.e., not taking into account how often the two facilitators spoke).

Later in this chapter, a description will be provided of the scales used to code non-verbal behaviors and communication processes among students and facilitators participating in this study. The overview provided thus far has touched upon the more prominent elements of this video-research study. In the sections that follow, each major aspect of the methods used in this study will be described in more detail. Many of these aspects occurred behind the scenes, and may not be described in depth in forthcoming research articles and publications, but were nonetheless crucial to the completion of this project. These aspects include:

i. developing a protocol for video-recording across campuses;
ii. video editing, and managing digital media and records;
iii. video coding scale piloting and design; and
iv. developing hypotheses and methods of analysis.

Developing Protocol for Video-Recording across Campuses

A professional film crew video-taped pilot sessions of non-experimental gender and race/ethnicity intergroup dialogues at the University of Michigan during the spring semester of 2006. These pilot-video-taping sessions provided opportunities to experiment with "filming" (technically video-taping) techniques. They also provided opportunities to use interviews and observations to assess the kinds of issues that were likely to arise with videographers, facilitators, and dialogue participants, once "official" video-taping was underway.

For example, interviews with professional videographers revealed that they were usually hired to create videos that have memorable, dramatic moments. The variety of techniques they use to create these dramatic moments, such as zooming in to a student's face for several minutes while she dominates discussion, create inconsistency – and a tremendous amount of frustration – from the perspective of video coders. My research assistants and I discovered this first-hand as we tested initial drafts of the video coding scales with the pilot-videos.

I edited sections of the pilot videos into one-minute training and coding segments, and burned the entire videos onto DVDs with menus coders could navigate. These DVDs, available for check-out by coders, resembled the DVDs that would be used once official coding was underway, with two notable differences:

i. the videos were of randomly selected in-class activities and discussions; and
ii. sometimes the picture featured a close-up of a few individuals, and sometimes the picture featured a "zoomed-out" view of the entire class.

The latter contrasting perspectives allowed me to refine both the video coding scales and the video-taping protocol to complement each other, ensuring that other coders and I could see a level of detail in the videos that would allow us to code facial expressions and subtle body language.

At a cross-site meeting in July of 2006 that involved the lead and collaborative investigators from each campus, I facilitated a half-day workshop focusing on all aspects of video-taping dialogues across the nine campuses. During my presentation, I provided multi-university project members with the preliminary materials they needed to arrange for professional crews to video-tape dialogue sessions at their institutions. I also reported on what I had learned while overseeing the pilot video-taping and coding thus far at the University of Michigan, and while interviewing student participants, facilitators, and videographers. I welcomed suggestions and feedback from the entire research group, and then met in a small focus group session with Patricia Gurin, a few other investigators, and curriculum developers to finalize the official instructions for "filming coordinators" on each campus.

Some members of our focus group were concerned about the potential negative impacts of introducing a video-camera, a videographer, and in many cases, a sound technician, into an intergroup dialogue. Collaborators were concerned their presence might make participants feel uncomfortable, and alter their behavior in undesirable ways (e.g., leading them to act unnaturally rigid or inhibited). While these effects may be reliably observed in the first several minutes of every first video-taping session, I emphasized to our focus group that they tend to quickly abate, and then disappear. I also emphasized that there were a variety of methods I had developed (and was urging them to use on their campuses) that appeared to reliably increase the comfort-levels of participants taking part in a video-research study.

One key is repetition. An investigator or filming coordinator on each campus was instructed to describe the video-research aspect of the Multi-University Evaluation project, and gain consent, weeks prior to when the first video-taping session would occur. The filming coordinator was then instructed to meet with the facilitators and ask them to help with record keeping, and fielding questions about the taping. Coordinators were asked to offer the facilitators a small amount of compensation for the extra time it would take them to fill out the extra paper-work each week. The coordinator was then instructed to ask the facilitators to remind students about the upcoming video-taping

sessions, prior to every session.

If these instructions were followed, by the time the filming coordinator arrived with a videographer and gave the students another overview of the video-research aspect of the Multi-University Evaluation project, the research participants were usually tired of hearing about it. By then, the participants knew the videos were not going to end up on *You Tube*, they would not be individually identified by name, and they were not expected to act any different than normal – in fact, they were encouraged to proceed with class as usual, as if the video camera was not present.

The consistent feedback I received during the pilot video-taping sessions, and throughout the official video-taping across all nine campuses, was that most dialogue participants and facilitators reported feeling surprisingly comfortable once the class (and the video-taping) was underway. To further increase comfort levels, the videographers and sound technicians were asked to remain as still as possible on the outskirts of the dialogue circle during video-taping (e.g., using a tripod, not coming into the circle for a "close up"). Students and facilitators were also assured that the videographer, sound technician, and filming coordinator had each promised (as the video coders would later promise) to abide by the same confidentially agreement the participants had when they agreed to participate in the dialogue.

After addressing our cross-site focus group's concerns about students feeling safe and comfortable, the collaborators and I decided we wanted to find a happy medium between coding the maximum number of students we were able to per minute, while still being able to see a level of detail in the videos necessary for determining whether nonverbal criteria were being met. During pilot video-coding, my research assistants and I had found that when the picture was zoomed out wide enough to capture all of the class participants, it was very difficult to tell, for example, if a student was looking intently at the current speaker, or dozing with his eyes shut while sitting up straight. This seemed like an important distinction to make.

One point became clear from pilot-coding with the pilot videos: if the videographers were given the license to video-tape "as usual", the happy medium we

desired would rarely be maintained for more than a few minutes at a time. We knew we had to narrow the focus of the view, and provide simple, concise, clear directions that would be easy for videographers across campuses to memorize and follow. We also decided that it was infeasible, due both to costs, and to the extra disturbance it would cause to the classes, to have more than one video-camera at a time in each class.

One videographer candidly told me that videographers sometimes feel offended when they are told "how" to video-tape, because they take pride in their work, and are often over-qualified for their jobs, so they understandably want to maintain a degree of "artistic license". Based on this interview, I realized we would need to clearly explain to videographers that the video-taping job they were being hired for was not like most of their jobs, because the videos were going to be coded for a research project. We needed to explain that minutes of the videos, and potentially entire videos, would be unusable to our video-coders if our video-taping protocol was not carefully followed.

I was warned during the pilot video-taping that videographers often "fill in" for each other at the last minute, and sometimes arrive just in time for video-taping session to begin (even when asked to arrive early), so a video-taping coordinator needed to be present, and ready to quickly review the video-taping protocol with a videographer, at the beginning of every video-taping session. The video-taping protocol also needed to be as concise and straight-forward as possible to lend itself to a quick review (see Appendix II for details).

After videographers asked me several times during and between video-taping the pilot sessions to remind them what the video-taping protocol was, I decided to include simple illustrations of key aspects of the video-taping protocol in the instructions so videographers could refer to them as a quick reminder while video-taping (Appendix II). They were instructed to keep the current speaker, and two to three additional students around the speaker, in view at any given moment (the default video-taping method), and to zoom out when multiple students laughed or spoke simultaneously. As soon as simultaneous laughter or speaking ceased, the videographer was expected to resume the default video-taping method.

Observations, interviews, and insights, in combination with feedback I received from collaborators at the cross-site meeting, helped me to create the complete set of instructions for the filming/video-taping coordinators on each campus (Appendix II). These include instructions on:

i. gaining the full, informed consent and participation of participants and facilitators (with a sample consent form included);
ii. hiring, training, and supervising videographers; and
iii. filling out "filming session summary sheets" at the end of each video-taping session, with the help of facilitators.

I posted all of these materials to a web-site for easy download and reference.

Each part of these instructions, especially the video-taping protocol, would profoundly shape and guide the kinds of coding and analyses we could do once official video-taping was underway. Researchers who use our videos in the future will both benefit from, and be constrained by, our video-taping methods and protocol. I was grateful, in retrospect, that we included instructions in the protocol that would help to keep small mistakes from making a whole set of videos become usable. For example, we asked filming coordinators to ask the videographer and sound-technician to double-check sound connections after the mid-class break, to make sure the microphone(s) had not been accidentally turned off, or become unplugged during break. This kind of attention to detail allowed us to complete the official video-taping across nine-campuses over a two year period.

Managing Digital Media and Records

During the spring semester of 2006, while editing the pilot videos for coding, I consulted with a video-media specialist to seek advice on creating a protocol for editing that could be used by our project video editor, whom I hoped to hire and train in subsequent semesters. The video-editor would be responsible for organizing, backing up, editing, and making uniformly labeled copies of the approximately 120 Mini DV tapes (i.e., two sixty-minute Mini DVs per two-hour video-taping session) we anticipated

receiving from nine different campuses over a two-year period. Our labeling protocol guarded against data becoming unidentifiable due to the separation, for example, of a Mini DV tape from its labeled tape holder, or a DVD from its DVD holder (Appendix II).

I sampled four sets of dialogue videos (two gender, two race/ethnicity), across **video sessions one, two, and three**, to estimate a minimum, mean, and maximum number of minutes each different type of activity we were interested in coding might occur. For example, we found that *Dialogue about the Activity* in **video session one** lasted a minimum of 7 minutes and 48 seconds, a maximum of 13 minutes, and a mean of 10 minutes and 50 seconds. These ranges allowed me to create a video-editing protocol that maximized the number of minutes we could code of each type of activity (e.g., 8 minutes of the *Dialogue about the Activity* in **video session one**), while minimizing the likelihood that an activity would end before the number of coding minutes allotted to that type of activity had been exceeded. This would ensure greater comparability within **video sessions** (e.g., within all the **first video sessions**), across the two types of dialogues (gender and race/ethnicity), and across the nine campuses.

How we allotted the coding and training minutes across **Video Session one, two, and three**. As noted earlier, after all of the coding was completed, 21 coding minutes were removed from analysis with the removal of the *Check-in* **activity**. This left 85 of the original 106 coding minutes for analysis. We excluded 21 minutes, and the 85 minutes retained for analysis are distributed across the three **video sessions**.

The video-editor was responsible for the difficult task of identifying and marking when each transition point occurred between the different types of activities during each **video session**. To complete this task, s/he had to watch portions of each video and listen and watch for signs indicating that a facilitator had announced that the class was transitioning to the next activity. Facilitators for the experimental dialogues were asked to audibly announce when these transitions occurred, but facilitators sometimes forgot to state the transitions explicitly (e.g., between the *Dialogue about the Activity* and the *Dialogue about the Dialogue*). The editor's next task was to enter each coding and training minute number, one by one, along the video menu timeline in *Final Cut Pro*,

starting from the beginning of each type of activity (since training minutes always followed coding minutes).

The entire editing process could take up to eight hours per video-taped class session for an experienced video editor, because it required:

i. uploading data from two, sixty-minute-long Mini DVs *in real time* onto a Macintosh computer;

ii. editing the digital files with *Final Cut Pro*, and inserting a variety of pre-specified menu titles and time points, depending on when specific transitions occurred during the class;

iii. saving the edited two-hour movie file *in real time* to a new Mini DV back-up; and then

iv. burning the edited movie onto three blank DVDs, labeling the DVDs, and then arranging to drop them off at the video coding lab.

We stored the original and edited Mini DV tapes separately, to ensure years of valuable research data would not be lost in a fire, or due to theft or natural disaster. We anticipated burning and labeling a total of 180 DVDs via this process (three DVDs per **video session** – one to keep in the lab, and two for coders to check out). If all the DVDs happened to be lost or broken (something we made every effort to prevent), the edited video would still be available to be burned to a DVD, without requiring hours of uploading video and additional editing work.

I hired and trained a few video-editors who quit within a few weeks of being trained, due to the tedious, time-consuming, and complicated nature of the video editing work. I spent a semester or two editing all the videos we received while managing the development of the video coding scales, making video coding data sets for every coding assignment, supervising and training video-coders, and supervising video-taping across the nine campuses. We were lucky to find a talented videographer and video-editor named Blake Tereau who could both tolerate the tedious, time-consuming nature of video-editing work, and who also paid enough attention to detail that he could recognize subtle transition-points in the dialogues that needed to be marked with menu

markers. He improved and fine-tuned our protocol, created editing templates, and innovatively incorporated additional data from the filming session summary sheets (Appendix II) into the DVD menus to aid coders with common coding tasks.

The DVDs our video editors produced were crucial to our research. We had sixty videos to code from 20 dialogues (10 gender, and 10 race/ethnicity), and were hoping to have two coders code every video. It would have been time-consuming for the coders to fast-forward or rewind a Mini DV tape each time they re-watched a minute. This was not a small consideration, because coders were usually coding three to four individuals in any given minute, using two video coding scales at a time. This meant a coder needed to code one individual with one scale, then move on to the next individual, whom they coded with the same scale, and so on, then start over with the first individual and the second scale, and so on, until all individuals were coded within the one-minute period, using both scales. For this reason, it was common for a coder to watch a minute of video several times before s/he was ready to move on to the next minute. The DVD allowed them to hit the "back" button to restart the minute, and fast-forward to the point a particular individual appeared in the picture.

Furthermore, every semester, we had up to several video-coders sharing one designated video coding computer in a one-room lab that was shared with a dozen or so research assistants working on other aspects of the Multi-University Evaluation. A majority of coders opted to do most of their coding with headphones and their personal laptop in the privacy of their room or apartment, where distractions were minimal. Our use of DVDs, versus Mini DVs for coding, gave them this option.

Each DVD was divided into three types of video:

i. unedited video;
ii. coding minutes; and
iii. training minutes.

Coders were encouraged to watch as much of the unedited portions of the video as they had time to in order to gain an intuitive sense of context for behavior and communication processes observed during one-minute coding segments.

The coding minutes were minutes the coders were strictly required to code independently, without consulting with one another. Furthermore, coders were not permitted to change how they coded coding minutes after they turned in their coding assignment.

The training minutes were one-minute segments that occurred after the coding minutes (Table I). Coders would meet in the lab with their coding partner on a weekly basis (a meeting I sometimes supervised), and with our entire coding lab group, to practice coding, talk about coding disagreements, and discuss ways to improve inter-coder reliability.

Practice sessions were facilitated by the DVD menus, which had a set of training minutes marked after each set of coding minutes (Table I). When students had questions about particular minutes in a video, they could note them and then we could easily navigate to them during lab meetings using the DVD menu.

Video Coding: Scale Design, Scale Piloting, and Official Coding

The Video Coding Scales

Each student was coded on a minute-by-minute basis using seven of the eight scales: *Codable, Engagement, Anxiety, Openness & Inquiry, Advocacy & Debate, Negativity,* and *Positivity*. Each of these eight scales – with the exception of the *Anxiety* scale – was broken down into categorical subcomponents for further analysis. Note that only three of these eight student process scales are the focus of this study, and described in detail in this thesis: *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness* (Appendix I).

I worked with Patricia Gurin, collaborators, and my research assistants to develop the video coding scales described briefly below. Full copies of each of these coding scales may be found in Appendix I. Note that each scale has multiple units, some of which categorically differ from each other:

1. **Student and Facilitator "Codability":** Which moments a student or facilitator met, or failed to meet the most basic coding-criteria for the scales below, such as whether s/he spoke (i.e., certain units would not be applicable unless s/he had).
2. **Student Engagement:** The degree to which a student listens and reacts to what is being said; speaks in an animated, enthusiastic manner; speaks out of his/her own initiative; and speaks to other students.
3. **Student Anxiety:** The extent to which a student seems uneasy, agitated or especially observant of how others may be reacting to his/her behavior or comments.
4. **Student Openness:** The extent to which a student shows vulnerability, self-reflection, and appreciation for differences.
5. **Facilitator's Facilitation Style:** The manner with which facilitators react and respond to student comments and behavior.

Coding Facilitation Style

The *Facilitation style* scale included an additional component we called "matching" that matched the facilitator with one to two students s/he may have shared a significant interaction with during the one minute coding period. A significant interaction was characterized as:

i. a student responding to a facilitator's behavior and/or comment; and/or
ii. a facilitator responding to a student's behavior and/or comment.

When a facilitator was matched with two students, the first student listed was the first significant interaction with the facilitator, based on the timing of the interaction, and in cases where the timing was ambiguous, based on the emotional valence of the interaction (i.e., higher valence would move a student to first student status).

Each facilitator was coded on a minute-by-minute basis using three of the eight scales:

i. *Codable*;
ii. *Negativity* (considered a rare "adverse event" to note); and
iii. *Facilitation Style and Matching*.

Only one *Facilitation style* could be coded within a one-minute period for each facilitator. Although facilitators were coded individually, their coding data was aggregated, minute-by-minute, by facilitator dyads. The rationale for aggregating the data by facilitator dyads is that facilitators are trained to act as a team, compensating for and complementing each other. Also, the influence of one facilitator would be difficult to tease apart from the influence of the other within the same dialogue.

I developed rules for resolving differences between the *facilitation styles* used by two facilitators within the same one-minute coding period. The final *Facilitation style* selected for a one-minute coding period represents the style used by one or both facilitators in the minute that we believed would have the most impact on student processes. For example, facilitator reflection and redirection trumps facilitator minimal reaction, and facilitator advocacy trumps all other categories. These rules parallel those coders used to decide which *facilitation style* to code an individual facilitator for when s/he used more than one method of facilitation within a one-minute coding period.

Video Coding Scale Development: Reliability and Incidence Rates

These eight video coding scales began with lists, notes, and diagrams describing a variety of concepts, research questions, non-verbal behaviors, and communication processes. Our initial task was to organize the items and concepts from these notes into sketches of scales, and to select drafts of these scales for further development based on two criteria:

i. their centrality to the central hypotheses of the Multi-University Evaluation; and
ii. based on how well the scales "held up" while being tested under "normal coding conditions".

Both of these criteria are essential, because if only one of them was met, a lot of effort would have been wasted producing quantitative video coding data that would ultimately be useless, either due to the lack of relevancy of the findings to the research questions, or due to unreliability of the data.

In video-research, unreliability problems usually result when video-coders find that the criteria for a scale only clearly applies in a few, rare incidences, and/or when coders rarely agree about when the criteria applies. These two unreliability problems tend to co-occur. On the flip-side, our most reliable coding data has come from scales with criteria that often apply, such as our *Engagement, Anxiety,* and *Openness* scales. This may be because these scales have criteria that are easier or more intuitive to meet (e.g., "normal", mundane, non-verbal behaviors), and/or because repetitive practice allows coders to quickly become "experts" at spotting behaviors meeting the criteria. Coding with these types of scales became so second nature that coders regularly joked about how often they would find themselves unintentionally "coding" people on television or while sitting in class for *Engagement* and *Anxiety*.

The student process and *Facilitation style* variables were each coded on a minute-by-minute basis approximately 35 minutes per video session (i.e., approximately 105 minutes across the three video sessions). *Anxiety* and *Engagement* are two continuous student process variables that were coded every one-minute time-segment a student was in the picture, even if s/he did not speak. As a result, the proportion of one-minute time-segments students met the criteria for these two continuous student process measures was relatively high.

For example, *Anxiety*, a scale ranging from one (low) to five (high), was coded for a total of 8,460 one-minute segments in this study. This means that the 264 students participating in this study were each coded for *Anxiety* 32 times, on average, across the three video sessions. In contrast, in order to qualify for the criteria for a binary student process variable such as *Debate*, coded as either a one ("applicable") or a zero ("non-applicable"), a student has to speak and engage in specific kinds of communication

processes (e.g., disagreeing with, or challenging perspective of another participant). Students engaged in *Debate* for 229 one-minute coding instances. In other words, students engaged in *Debate* only about once, on average, across the three video sessions. The fact that some student processes occurred so infrequently may help to explain why *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness* are the only student process variables that significantly vary between gender and race/ethnicity dialogues. The other scales were coded so infrequently that the chance of detecting significant variation in them between gender and race/ethnicity dialogues, is much smaller.

Video Coding Scale Development: From Pilot Testing to Official Coding

Testing scales under "normal coding conditions" means testing under the conditions one anticipates will be present once scale-piloting is complete and video coding is officially underway. For us, this meant training a few perceptive, well-qualified undergraduate and graduate research assistants to pilot-code drafts of scales using pilot videos of non-research intergroup dialogues over the summer of 2005. Initially, coders coded the videos using kitchen timers, coding one-minute segments.

We met on a weekly basis to code as a group, discuss and critique the scales, and discuss ways the scales might be revised, clarified and improved. Scales that appeared to have low levels of validity and/or reliability, or that seemed peripheral to the theoretical models we were most interested in testing, were dropped, while those we retained were further tested and refined. This process of developing and refining coding scales was completed in the fall of 2006.

Every effort was made to ensure that each scale described a set of behaviors different and independent from the collection of behaviors described by another scale. Even independent behaviors, though, have the potential to significantly increase or decrease the probability that another set of independent behaviors will occur within the same observation period.

During pilot coding, and once official coding was underway, most videos were independently coded by at least two coders. I developed uniform coding data sets for each dialogue, and for each **video session (one, two, and three),** including all of the coding scales, creating over sixty data set templates. I used these templates to create simplified, unique data sets each time I gave a coding assignment to a student. Coders received one data set per dialogue and **video session** (e.g., University of Texas gender dialogue, **video session two**), that included only the scales they were assigned to code, renamed to include their initials in the variable name (e.g., Engagement_LM), and the basic data they needed to identify participants and record their coding data. This additional data included:

i. a short-code to help students identify the dialogue and session (and thus find the DVD to match it);
ii. the session number;
iii. the ten-digit id of each student present that day, or a facilitator number, listed in the order they were sitting in a clockwise motion;
iv. each participant's gender (as an aid in helping to identify who is who);
v. a description of unique clothing items worn by participants that day;
vi. the seating order (clockwise, starting from the left of where the video-camera is, looking from the perspective of the videographer);
vii. each minute in the session;
viii. type of activity; and
ix. each minute within an activity.

Data sets were all pre-sorted by minute in session, and by seating order. Once a coder had coded the *Codable* column for a data set, that *Codable* column was used in every future data set for that dialogue group and **video session** number. Beneath each coding scale, I often filled in all the minutes that were not *Codable* with a 99, and all the minutes in which a student could not qualify for a scale (e.g., because he did not speak, and the scale required him to speak) with an 88. This created a "fill in the dots" kind of

pattern in the data set which made it easier for coders to see which individuals they needed to code, and with which scales, every coding minute.

Students used the *Filming Session Summary Sheet* (FSSS) as a reference while coding (see Appendix II for an example). This sheet was filled out by hand by the filming coordinator with the help of the facilitators at every video-taping session. Once we received the FSSSs, a research assistant or I would type in all of the data into a digital template of the FSSS, to reduce strain in trying to interpret hand-writing.

Each FSSS provided an illustration of where every participant was sitting, and included each participant's gender, unique clothing items, and their ten-digit ID (or facilitator code) as a reference. The FSSSs often included additional illustrations if multiple participants changed their seating positions after an activity (i.e., they were encouraged to try to maintain the same seating order in large group discussions each session, but this guideline was not always followed). The FSSSs also noted if a student arrived late, or left before the end of class. The combination of ID's, gender, clothing descriptions, and seating orders helped coders to be sure that the person they were coding on the video-screen was the same person in their data set.

I posted assignments at a regular time each week on a password protected website. Each written assignment was tailored for each individual coder, and coded within a folder with the date of the assignment as the title, located within a subfolder with the coders name on it. The assignment listed which videos s/he would code, who her/his coding partner was, the scales s/he was coding with, and when her/his completed data sets were due. Accompanying this written assignment description were the data sets each coder needed. Each coder knew how to find the relevant FSSSs and copies of coding scales they would need to complete their coding assignment on our video coding lab website.

Pairs of coders calculated their intercoder reliability each week as a percentage of agreement on each scale and visually compared their data sets to see where the disagreements were occurring, and what kinds of disagreements were occurring (e.g.,

one coding “moderate” on a scale, when the other codes “high”). Then the pair would proceed to practice coding together using training minutes with the aim of talking about and resolving these sources of disagreement in their approaches to coding in the future. As noted earlier, coders were not permitted to change their coding once they had completed a coding assignment, and they were required to complete their coding assignment prior to meeting with their partner to practice coding.

I often attended these dyadic meetings. When I did not, coders would email me, or report to me in our weekly lab meetings about incidences when a coder and her coding partner could not come to an agreement on their own about how to approach an ambiguous situation. Coders would also report when they had consistently different interpretations of a scale (e.g., one tending to code high while the other tends to code low). When I discovered ways to resolve these differences, such as by providing an illustrative example or a rule of thumb, I tended to incorporate those example and tips into the coding protocol I used to train coders during subsequent semesters.

Some of our coders stuck with the same coding partner, while others switched around once during a semester. Some coding teams specialized in coding with a set of scales, while others opted to try coding with multiple sets of scales. We had over a dozen coders assist us in total over the period of this project, most for two semesters, and a few for three or more semesters.

I wanted to bring diverse perspectives to the coding process, and intentionally selected both male and female undergraduate and graduate student research assistants from diverse backgrounds among the pool of applicants for research assistant positions. Thus, our intercoder reliability statistics represent agreement across a diverse group of video coders.

The average percentage of agreement between all video-coding pairs, across the all three student video coding scales analyzed for this study, appeared to vary depending on the level of the scale (see Appendix I for full copies of each original scale). For level "two" of each scale (either on a scale from one to two for student *Engagement*

and student *Openness*, or on a scale from one to three in the case of student *Anxiety*), the average percentage of agreement between coding pairs was 82%. The average percentage of agreement between coding pairs for level "one", the lowest level of each scale, was 87% for student *Engagement* (Kappa 0.623), and at the level of chance (50/50) for both low student *Anxiety* and low student *Openness.* The student *Anxiety* scale was the only student scale analyzed in this study that originally had three levels, rather than two, and agreement across all coders for the third and highest level of this scale was also at level of chance (50/50).

We suspect that coders had a lower level of agreement for "high" levels of student *Anxiety*, and "low" levels of both student *Anxiety* and *Openness*, relative to the levels of agreement observed for any level of student *Engagement*, since low *Engagement* occurs far more frequently than either low or high levels of *Anxiety* and *Openness.* Thus, a few disagreements (e.g., one coder coding moderate *Anxiety* while another coded low *Anxiety*) are more likely to skew overall percentages of disagreement for each **video session** coded, bringing down the overall average percentage of agreement between coding pairs across **video sessions**, and across dialogues. In addition, *Anxiety* is generally considered by behaviorists to be difficult to code since it can manifest both as: a) hyperactivity and fidgeting; and b) as the restriction and inhibition of speech and movement. The latter type of manifestation of moderate to high *Anxiety* tends to be more subtle, and thus is more difficult to reach agreement on.

We identified several possible approaches for addressing the lower levels of agreement for high student *Anxiety* and low student *Anxiety* and low student *Openness*:

i. create a control variable containing a unique number corresponding to every combination of coders for each coding scale
ii. create a control variable that is a disagreement indicator, coded as 0 for agreement between two coders, 1 for disagreement, and 2 as independent coding (e.g., when there was only one coder)

iii. remove data from coders who demonstrate low levels of agreement with other coders

iv. automatically recode all disagreements as "missing data", then conduct multiple imputations (MI) analysis, estimating / imputing the value those minutes were most likely to have if former coding trends continued.

v. conduct an analysis to determine whether coders with low standard deviations also have higher rates of disagreement when paired, compared to other coders

vi. experiment with one or more of the above steps to see if results hold up

vii. resolve differences, also called "independent verification

viii. recode videos with low intercoder reliability

For this dissertation, the first approach was used. Adding this control variable to all of the analyses described in this study, we found that who coded each scale had a significant effect, but overall trends, and the significance levels of other main effects, as well as of interactions between predictive variables, was minimal. This finding seems to indicate that results for student *Anxiety* and student *Openness* reported in this study are not an artifact of idiosyncrasies in individual coder's approach to coding with these scales. We plan to explore additional steps outlined above to address this issue in the future.

Hypotheses and Methods of Analysis

Introduction

The purpose of this study was three-fold. First, I aimed to determine whether student communication processes and nonverbal dynamics (hereafter referred to as "student process variables") varied by **dialogue topic**[4] (gender or race/ethnicity). Second, I hoped

[4] Key predictive factors are written in bold for emphasis

to assess the influence of four additional factors on variation in student processes that initially appeared to be attributable to **dialogue topic**:

i. **dialogue size** (smaller or larger than average);
ii. **video session** (one, two, or three);
iii. **activity type** (*Activity, Dialogue about the Activity,* or *Dialogue about the Dialogue)*; and
iv. **target-agent status** (target or agent, depending on the dialogue topic).

Third, I aimed to add **facilitation style** to these predictive models to get an overall picture of the relative impact of different methods of facilitation, versus other explanatory factors (**dialogue topic, dialogue size, video session, activity type,** and **target-agent status**), on variation in student process variables. Results from analyses focusing on **facilitation style** are reported in Chapter V (Results from Facilitation Analyses). Chapter IV (Results from Student Process Analyses) presents general descriptive statistics, and results from analyses exploring how student process variables vary depending on **dialogue topic, dialogue size, video session, activity type,** and **target-agent status.**

Overview of Predictive Factors

Dialogue topic, dialogue size, video session, activity type, and **target-agent status** are key predictive factors in the models in this study. Each will be briefly described in this section. A more detailed description of each factor may be found in Chapter III (Method). **Dialogue topic** refers to whether the experimental dialogue was focusing on gender issues, or race/ethnicity issues. **Dialogue size** breaks up the 20 dialogues into two groups of 10 (each consisting of six of one **dialogue topic**, and four of the other) based on whether the dialogue is larger than average (more than 13 students), or the same or smaller than average (seven to 13 students).

Video session refers to the three video-taping sessions that each dialogue was recorded and observed during. The **video sessions** were evenly spaced in time over an academic semester, with session one occurring early in the semester, session two occurring mid-semester, and session three occurring toward the end of the semester. Each **video session** captures the exact same curriculum-based in-class dialogue activities, categorized into three different dialogue **activity types** participants were subsequently coded during**.** Sessions one and three always start with a *Dialogue about the Activity*, and end with a *Dialogue about the Dialogue*. Session two always starts with the "Fishbowl" *Activity* (which involves dialogue), and ends with *Dialogue about the Activity*.

The four factors just described are environmental factors, whereas **target-agent status** describes an interaction between a personal characteristic (the participants' identity), and an environmental factor (**dialogue topic**) that could influence variation in student processes. Targets of inequality are women in the gender dialogues, and people of color in the race/ethnicity dialogues. Agents of inequality are men in the gender dialogues, and Caucasians in the race/ethnicity dialogues.

Methods of Analysis

Turning to selection of methods of analysis, standard linear regression models assume that each observation is independent. To avoid violating the assumption of independence, all of the ratings for a scale measured across the three **video sessions** for an individual could be aggregated into a single mean (e.g., one mean *Engagement* score). This method is useful for making large-scale comparisons, such as between the mean levels of *Engagement* of gender dialogue students compared to race/ethnicity dialogue students. There are a few disadvantages associated with this approach, though.

First, aggregating data does not make full use of all the data available for each subject. Second, a lot of variability in the data is lost when data is aggregated. Third,

aggregating to a single mean per student, and per student process variable, would prevent modeling linear and non-linear changes that occur over time in one variable, as they predict changes that occur over time in another variable.

Linear mixed-effects models procedure in SPSS was selected as the primary method of analysis for this study's data because it is not as restrictive as end-point analysis, rANOVA, and rMANOVA procedures (Gueorguieva & Krystal, 2004). Mixed-effect models are based on maximum likelihood (ML) and restricted maximum likelihood (REML) methods. Linear mixed-effect models allow linear models to be fit, which might have non-linear relationships. Mixed-effect models also allow for correlations to be accounted for in observations by including random effects. In linear mixed-effect models, REML allows for likelihood ratio tests for variances of random effects while the ML estimation method enables likelihood ratio tests for fixed effects.

As with many multivariate, repeated measures data sets, the variance-covariance structure of this study's data is unstructured. The linear mixed-effects procedure allows one to specify this when one models the relationships between covariates and dependent variables, as they change in the presence of different factors (such as a participant's target-agent status within their dialogue group) or levels of factors (Verbeke & Molenberghs, 2000). The linear mixed-effects procedure allows one to relax the assumption of independence in the error terms by adding variables that identify the subjects of repeated observation (subject variables) and variables that represent multiple observations of an individual (repeated effects variables) (Verbeke & Molenberghs, 2000). Error terms are then computed for each individual that are independent from the error terms computed for other individuals. This allows one to flexibly estimate average trends over time in specific subgroups and estimate how much individual variation exists around a subgroup-level trend (Gueorguieva & Krystal, 2004).

Models were fit including random effects, which allow for effects of time-varying variables to vary by subject. Variances of the random subject effects are reported in the

results. I also report evidence of unexplained variance between subjects, along with potential causes of the unexplained variance.

Throughout the linear mixed-effects model analyses conducted for this study, student process variables were treated as dependent variables. To test for the conditional influence of dialogue size, a continuous dialogue size variable (ranging from seven to 16) was added as a covariate, and a binary **dialogue size** variable (smaller or larger than average) was added as a main effect and interaction to initial mixed effect models.

The binary **dialogue size** variable divides the 20 dialogues into two groups of 10 based on dialogue size, with the "smaller dialogues" consisting of seven to 13 students (six gender dialogues, four race/ethnicity dialogues), and the "larger dialogues" consisting of 14 to 16 students (four gender dialogues, six race/ethnicity dialogues). Since the smallest race/ethnicity dialogues consist of 12 students, the "smaller" race/ethnicity dialogues for the binary **dialogue size** variable consist of 12 to 13 students. If this binary **dialogue size** variable did not have a significant main effect or interaction, it was removed from the model, while the continuous dialogue size variable was retained as a conditional predictive covariate. The continuous dialogue size covariate has consistently reduced random individual variance in models thus far, which indicates that it helps to explain variation in student process variables.

To explore potential influences on student absenteeism, I created an aggregated data set, with only one row per student, and created both a quantitative attendance summary variable (the number of video sessions a student attended) and a categorical absenteeism scale (weighted more heavily: the more video sessions a student missed, and the later in the semester the students missed a session). I used a linear regression model to explore whether higher mean student anxiety was correlated with either attendance or absenteeism, and found no significant relationships between student anxiety, and either quantitative attendance or categorical absenteeism. Next, I used

independent t-tests to explore potential differences in attendance rates or absenteeism in the following binary sub-groups:

i. **gender** (male or female);
ii. **race** (white student or student of color);
iii. **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity);
iv. **target-agent status** (defined by dialogue topic); and
v. **dialogue size** (smaller or larger than average).

There appear to be no significant differences between these binary groups in either attendance or absenteeism. Since attendance and absenteeism appears to randomly vary, aside from being more common in **video sessions two and three**, attendance and absenteeism measures were not included as control variables in the mixed-effect model analyses conducted for this study.

I recoded the *Codable*[5] variable to create a new variable called *Speaking* that indicates whether or not a student spoke on a minute by minute basis (coded as a zero or one within each one-minute coding segment). A higher mean *Speaking* score indicates that a higher number of students spoke per minute within the group being analyzed (e.g., gender dialogues). I hypothesized that a larger number of dialogue students would speak per minute in smaller dialogue groups (seven to 13 participants), compared to larger groups (14 to 16 participants), and conducted a few statistical analyses, as described below, to assess the potential influence of dialogue size on *Speaking*.

I divided the sum number of minutes each student spoke with the number of minutes s/he was present across the three sessions. I aggregated the resulting individual percentage into a mean speaking percentage for each dialogue group. Next, I used a linear regression analysis to assess the extent that continuous dialogue size (seven to 16) co-varies with the mean speaking percentage for each dialogue group. The

[5] Student process variables are noted in italics, and with capital letters, for clarity in this section

correlation between dialogue size (*Mean* = 13.2, *SD* = 2.3, N = 20) and dialogue speaking percentage (*Mean* = 0.15, *SD* = 0.03) is significant (r2 = .249, *p* = 0.025), but the r squared value in this model indicates that only about 25% of the variation in dialogue speaking percentage may be explained by dialogue size. This model predicts that for every one-unit, positive increase in dialogue size, there is a corresponding decrease of 0.007 in the mean speaking percentage for the dialogue, equivalent to a change from speaking 15% to 14.3% of the minutes.

A Type III omnibus linear mixed model analysis was used to assess potential interactions between and main effects of **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity) and **dialogue size** (smaller or larger), predicting student *Speaking* (coded as applicable or not-applicable, minute-to-minute). Time across sessions (one to 88) and continuous dialogue size (seven to 16) were predictive covariates in the model.

The following three additional factors were added to the previous linear mixed-effect model to assess the role of other influences on student *Speaking*:

i. **video session** (one, two, or three);
ii. **activity type** (*Activity*, *Dialogue about the Activity*, and *Dialogue about the Dialogue*); and
iii. **target-agent status**.

Type III omnibus linear mixed-effect model analyses were used to explore main effects of **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity) first, while controlling for the potential influences of *Speaking* (or *Codable*) and continuous (versus binary) dialogue size (seven to 16). Main effects of **dialogue topic** emerged for three student process variables: *Anxiety, Engagement, and Openness*.

Prior to conducting linear mixed-effect model analyses for this study, I predicted that both gender and race/ethnicity dialogue student *Anxiety* would decrease across sessions, while gender and race/ethnicity student *Engagement* and *Openness* would increase across sessions. This reflected my expectation that students would grow more

comfortable with each other, and with their facilitators, over the course of the semester, even though their dialogue groups were delving into increasingly controversial and complex topics relating to privilege and inequality. I hypothesized that increased comfort would be reflected by fewer signs of discomfort (*Anxiety*), increased student speaking and affective responsiveness (*Engagement*), and increased willingness to share stories about oneself (*Openness*).

When I say mean levels of a student process variable "increase" or "decrease" between **video sessions**, note that there is a complicated relationship between **video session** and **activity type**. As described earlier in this chapter, a different main activity occurs during every dialogue class, including during the three class periods video-taped for this project. We chose not to code the two main activities occurring during **video sessions one and three**, because one of the activities involved small private group discussions (the "Personal and Social Identity Wheel" *Activity* during **video session one**), while the other required complete silence (the "Gallery Walk" *Activity* during **video session three**). We coded only one main activity during **video session two** (the "Fishbowl" *Activity*), because the activity involved dialogue between all members of the dialogue group (Table I). Thus, *Activity* only occurs **during video session two** (Table I). *Dialogue about the Dialogue* only occurs during **video sessions one and three**. *Dialogue about the Activity* occurs during all three **video sessions**.

Activity type (*Activity*, *Dialogue about the Activity*, and *Dialogue about the Dialogue*) could exert as powerful of an influence as **video session** on variation between gender and race/ethnicity dialogues in student process variables. Due to the complicated nature of the relationship between **video session** and **activity type**, I decided not to test for three-way interactions between **dialogue topic, video session,** and **activity type**. In every full model, though, I test for two-way interactions between the latter two factors and **dialogue topic** (respectively), as well as for main effects of **video session** and **activity type**. The linear mixed effect analyses conducted for this study are Type III omnibus tests, thus, results for every factor in the model (whether **dialogue topic, video**

session, or **activity type**) are conditional on the effects of all other terms in the model (West, Welch, and Gelecki, 2007).

Target-agent status was added to the existing models (described earlier in this chapter) to explore potential interactions between **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity), **target-agent status** (since target-agent status is dependent on dialogue topic), and: i) **dialogue size**, ii) **video session**, and iii) **activity type**. The hope was that **target-agent status** might help to explain why there appeared to be differences between gender and race/ethnicity dialogue students in mean levels of *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness*.

Prior to conducting these analyses, I predicted that targets of inequality (women in the gender dialogues, students of color in the race/ethnicity dialogues) would exhibit lower mean levels of *Anxiety*, and higher mean levels of *Engagement* and *Openness* than agents of inequality (men in the gender dialogues, white students in the race/ethnicity dialogues), since one of the aims of intergroup dialogue was to examine inequality, and I predicted that this dynamic would tend to make agents uncomfortable.

To what extent do facilitators actually use the facilitation skills they are trained to use? How does *facilitation style* vary between gender and race/ethnicity dialogues, and depending on other factors, such as: the size of dialogue groups; the type of activity; the timing in the semester; and interactions between these predictive factors (e.g., within smaller gender dialogues)? This is the first study to provide minute-by-minute coding data to address these kinds of questions. Another aim of this study is to assess the impact of (minute-by-minute) dialogue facilitation practices on (minute-by-minute) changes in student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness*. This is also the first study to explore this impact, and the relationship between predictive factors such as

dialogue topic[6] (gender or race/ethnicity) and *facilitation style*[7] on student processes observed (minute-by-minute) in intergroup dialogues.

As described earlier in this chapter, we coded five different "*styles*" or methods of facilitation [see appendix # for full-length *facilitation style* coding scale]:

i. *reflection and redirection*,
ii. *inquiry*,
iii. *minimal reaction*,
iv. *advocacy*, and
v. *triggered reaction*

In Chapter V, I offer an overview of how frequently each *facilitation style* occurs across gender and race/ethnicity dialogues. Next, I describe significant differences in how frequently each *facilitation style* occurs within the following four predictive categories:

i. **dialogue topic** (gender and race/ethnicity);
ii. **dialogue size** (larger and smaller than average);
iii. **video session** (one, two and three); and
iv. **activity type** (*Activity, Dialogue about the Activity,* and *Dialogue about the Dialogue)*.

After offering this overview, I briefly describe each of the five *facilitation styles* coded for in this study, one by one. In each of the five *facilitation style* sections, I describe how significant interactions between the four predictive categories described above help to explain variation (when applicable) within the *facilitation style* in focus. At the end of each *facilitation style* section, I discuss significant impacts (when applicable) of the *facilitation style* on student *Anxiety, Engagement* and *Openness*.

[6] Key predictive factors were written in bold to remind the reader that they are not descriptions, but references to binary predictive variables
[7] References to the *facilitation style* scale and subcomponents of this scale are in italics, for clarity

I used linear mixed-effect model analyses to predict each of the five *facilitation style* variables with the following independent factors:

i. **dialogue topic** (gender and race/ethnicity dialogues),
ii. **dialogue size** (larger and smaller number of students per dialogue),
iii. **video session** (one, two, and three), and
iv. **activity type** (*Activity, Dialogue about the Activity,* and *Dialogue about the Dialogue)*.

I tested for two-way interactions between every factor in this model except between **video session** and **activity type**, since these two variables are confounded.

Chapter IV and V present results from analyses of the student process and facilitation process data. In Chapter V, there is also a discussion of: a) interactions between the factors predicting each of the five *facilitation styles*; and b) interactions between these factors and each of the five *facilitation styles*, predicting student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness.* Chapter VI provides qualitative examples illustrating quantitative video-data findings, as well as a discussion of the potential implications of these results for future research, facilitator training, community organizing, and social work.

CHAPTER IV

Results from Student Process Analyses

Student Processes that Vary by Dialogue Topic

Type III omnibus linear mixed-effect model analyses were used to explore main effects of **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity), while controlling for the potential influence of individual coders, and continuous (versus binary) dialogue size (seven to 16). Main effects of **dialogue topic** emerged for three student process variables: *Anxiety, Engagement, and Openness*.

Mean student *Anxiety* was higher in race/ethnicity dialogues (2.71, *SE:* 0.043) than in gender dialogues (2.31, *SE*: 0.051), $F(1, 302.9) = 34.711$, $p < 0.001$ (Variance Estimate: 0.211, *SE*: 0.022, 95% CI: 0.173 – 0.259). Mean student *Engagement* was marginally higher in race/ethnicity dialogues than in gender dialogues ($p = 0.077$). Mean student *Openness* was higher in race/ethnicity dialogues (1.65, *SE:* 0.023) than in gender dialogues (1.56, *SE*: 0.023), $F(1, 222.6) = 8.847$, $p = 0.003$ (Variance Estimate: 0.030, *SE*: < 0.001, 95% CI: 0.021 – 0.044).

Adding Dialogue Size, Video Session, and Activity Type as Predictive Factors

The next question was whether or not these differences in mean levels of *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness* between gender and race/ethnicity dialogue students could be better explained by interactions between dialogue topic (gender or race/ethnicity) and factors such as the size of their dialogue group, which video session was observed, or which activity type was observed. The answer to this question was a resounding "yes".

Linear mixed-effect model analyses were conducted to explore potential interactions between **dialogue topic** and three other factors that may help to explain why student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness* appeared to vary between gender and race/ethnicity dialogues: **dialogue size** (smaller or larger than average); **video session** (one, two, or three); and **activity type** (*Activity*, *Dialogue about the Activity*, and *Dialogue about the Dialogue*).

Prior to conducting these analyses, I predicted that student *Anxiety* would decrease across sessions, while student *Engagement* and *Openness* would increase across sessions. I predicted that student *Anxiety* levels would be higher overall in race/ethnicity dialogues, since race/ethnicity issues also are often perceived as more socially charged than gender issues, an tend to be more socially taboo to openly discuss. I did not expect **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity) to have an independent main effect on mean student *Engagement* or *Openness*.

Student Anxiety Results

To qualify for student *Anxiety,* students merely needed to be in the picture for at least 10 non-consecutive seconds during a minute. *Anxiety* was initially coded on a scale from one to three, using the following criteria to distinguish between levels of *Anxiety* [full-length student *Anxiety* scale available in Appendix I]:

i. Low *Anxiety* (notably calm and relaxed);
ii. Moderate *Anxiety* (a normal level of fidgeting and agitation); and
iii. High *Anxiety* (notably agitated or uneasy)

The *Anxiety* scale was recoded into a scale ranging from one to five, based on the level of agreement between two coders (e.g., if one coder coded "two", and the other coded "three" on the original scale, a student's new *Anxiety* score became a "four"[1]).

There was evidence of an interaction between **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity) and **dialogue size** (smaller or larger), for mean student *Anxiety*, F(1, 395.7) = 44.196, $p < 0.001$ (Variance Estimate: 0.172, *SE*: < 0.001, 95% CI: 0.140 – 0.212) [Figure 4:1]. Mean levels of student *Anxiety* were the same across smaller race/ethnicity dialogues, larger race/ethnicity dialogues, and larger gender dialogues [Figure 4:1]. Smaller gender dialogues, though, had lower mean levels of student *Anxiety* relative to these other three groups ($p < 0.001$) [Figure 4:1].

There was also evidence of an interaction between **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity) and **video session** (one, two, or three), for mean student *Anxiety*, F(2, 3401.9) = 3.186, $p = 0.041$ [Figure 4:2]. In support of my predictions, mean levels of student *Anxiety* were significantly higher across all three sessions in race/ethnicity dialogues, relative to in gender dialogues, but these higher means were still slightly below what were considered to be "normal" levels of *Anxiety* (3 on a scale from 1 to 5) ($p < 0.001$) [Figure 4:2]. Mean levels of student *Anxiety* remained relatively higher, and did not change, in race/ethnicity dialogues. Contrary to my predictions, though, in gender dialogues, mean levels of student *Anxiety* increased between video sessions one and two ($p = 0.001$), and an overall increase in *Anxiety* was observed between sessions one and three ($p < 0.001$). No increase in mean levels of student *Anxiety* were observed between sessions two and three in the gender dialogues [Figure 4:2].

Each factor in the model, including **activity type** [Figure 4:3], showed evidence of a significant main effect ($p < 0.05$). Student mean *Anxiety* levels were significantly higher during the *Dialogue about the Dialogue* [Figure 4:2] than during both the:

[1] If only one coder coded a dialogue session, his or her coding decisions were treated as if they were agreements between two coders, e.g., a "three" on the old student *Anxiety* scale was recoded as a "five" on the new scale.

i) *Dialogue about the Activity* ($p < 0.01$); and

ii) the *Activity* ($p < 0.05$).

In conclusion, student mean levels of *Anxiety* were lower in gender dialogues than in race/ethnicity dialogues. While this difference decreased over the three sessions as a result of mean *Anxiety* levels increasing among gender dialogue students, these increases were not large enough to result in a convergence of student mean *Anxiety* levels by the third session [Figure 4:2]. Student mean levels of *Anxiety* were lower in smaller gender dialogues, relative to larger gender dialogues, as well as to both smaller and larger race/ethnicity dialogues [Figure 4:1]. Student mean levels of *Anxiety* were significantly lower during the *Activity* and the *Dialogue about the Activity*, relative to during the *Dialogue about the Dialogue* [Figure 4:3].

Student Engagement Results

The original student *Engagement* coding scale included four subcomponents: *Disengagement, Low to Moderate Engagement*[2]*, High Engagement*[3]*,* and *Animated Initiative* [see copy of original scale in Appendix I]. We decided that *Disengagement* and *Animated Initiative* were categorically different than *Low to Moderate Engagement* and *High Engagement,* so student *Engagement* was recoded to include only *Low to Moderate Engagement* and *High Engagement:*

i. *Low to Moderate Engagement* (low to moderate number of indicators that a participant is listening and reacting to what is being said, such as a student looking directly at a speaker when s/he is speaking); and
ii. *High Engagement* (high number of indicators that a participant is listening and reacting to what is being said, such as a student nodding in agreement with a speaker, and then verbally responding to what the speaker said).

[2] Formerly classified "low" *Engagement*
[3] Formerly classified as "moderate" *Engagement*

The *Engagement* scale was recoded into a scale ranging from one to three, based on the level of agreement between two coders (e.g., if one coder coded "one", and the other coded "two" on the original scale, the student's new *Engagement* score became a "two"[4]).

There was evidence of an interaction between **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity) and **video session** (one, two, or three) for *Engagement*, F(2, 3135.3) = 5.323, $p = 0.005$ (Variance Estimate: 0.030, *SE*: 0.004, 95% CI: 0.023 – 0.040) [Figure 4:4]. Race/ethnicity dialogue students exhibited higher mean levels of *Engagement* (2.05) than gender dialogue students (1.94) during video session one ($p = 0.011$) and marginally higher mean levels of *Engagement* during video session two ($p = 0.070$) [Figure 4:4]. Mean levels of student *Engagement* decreased between video sessions one and three among race/ethnicity dialogue students ($p = 0.041$), and increased between sessions one and three among gender dialogue students ($p = 0.017$). Gender and race/ethnicity dialogue students showed the same mean levels of *Engagement* (2.01, and 1.99, respectively) during video session three [Figure 4:4]. I predicted that mean student *Engagement* would significantly increase across sessions in both types of dialogues. This prediction was only supported in gender dialogues.

Again with respect to student *Engagement,* there was evidence of an interaction between **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity) and **activity type** (*Activity*, *Dialogue about the Activity*, and *Dialogue about the Dialogue*), F(2, 3087.7) = 10.251, $p < 0.001$. It appears that race/ethnicity dialogue students exhibited higher mean levels of *Engagement* (2.03) than gender dialogue students (1.91) during the *Dialogue about the Activity* ($p < 0.001$) [Figure 4:5]. There was no difference observed in mean levels of *Engagement* between the gender dialogue and the race/ethnicity dialogue students during either the *Activity* or the *Dialogue about the Dialogue.*

[4] If only one coder coded a dialogue session, his or her coding decisions were treated as if they were agreements between two coders, e.g., a "two" on the old student *Engagement* scale was recoded as a "three" on the new scale.

There was evidence that **activity type** had a main effect ($p < 0.001$) for mean student *Engagement*. There was a marginal main effect of **dialogue topic** ($p = 0.066$) for mean student *Engagement*. **Dialogue size** had no significant interactions or main effect in an initial model including this factor, so it was removed from the final model predicting student *Engagement*. **Video session** also appeared non-significant as a main effect, but was significant in interactions with other factors.

In conclusion, the main effect of **dialogue topic** on student *Engagement* appears to vary considerably by **activity type** [Figure 4:5]. Race/ethnicity dialogue students appear to have exhibited higher mean levels of *Engagement* than gender dialogue students during the *Dialogue about the Activity,* an activity that occurred every video session [Figure 4:5]. Race/ethnicity dialogue students appear to have had higher mean levels of *Engagement* than gender dialogue students during video sessions one ($p = 0.011$) and two ($p = 0.070$), but not during video session three [Figure 4:4]. During video session three, mean levels of student *Engagement* were the same across both types of dialogues [Figure 4:4]. My prediction that mean student *Engagement* would increase between video sessions was only supported among gender dialogue students [Figure 4:4].

Student Openness Results

As the name implies, the original student *Openness and Inquiry* scale (Appendix I) measured both *Openness* and *Inquiry.* This scale was broken into two new scales. To have qualified for the new student *Openness* scale (from one to two), students needed to have met one of the following two criteria:

i. Low Openness:

a) Participant shares a personal perspective; presents someone else's perspective; and/or tells a story about someone other than him/herself.

b) The participant does this without self-reflecting, revealing emotional attachment, and/or talking about how s/he was emotional affected.

ii. Moderate to High Openness:

a) Participant shares a personal perspective; presents someone else's perspective; and/or tells a story about him/herself or someone else.

b) At the same time, the participant self-reflects, reveals emotional attachment, and/or talks about how s/he was emotional affected.

Race/ethnicity dialogue students appeared to have exhibited higher ($p < 0.001$) mean levels of *Openness* (1.66) across the three video sessions, compared to gender dialogue students (1.56), but the picture was much more complicated when **dialogue size** and variation between each **video session** was taken into account. There was evidence of a significant interaction between **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity), **dialogue size** (smaller or larger), and **video session** (one, two, or three) for *Openness*, F(4, 1078.5) = 3.981, $p = 0.003$ (Variance Estimate: 0.011, *SE*: 0.004, 95% CI: 0.005 – 0.022) [Figure 4:6].

In line with my predictions, between video sessions one and two, students in the smaller gender dialogues showed an increase in mean levels of *Openness* ($p = 0.024$). There was also a marginal increase in mean levels of student *Openness* observed between video sessions two and three in the larger gender dialogues ($p = 0.076$) [Figure 4:6].

Contrary to my predictions, students in the smaller gender dialogues showed a significant drop in *Openness* between sessions two and three ($p = 0.004$), bringing their session three mean levels of *Openness* close to their session one baseline, which was significantly lower than the means of the students in the other three categories of dialogues[5] during sessions one and three ($p < 0.05$) [Figure 4:6].

There was evidence of an interaction between **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity) and **activity type** (*Activity*, *Dialogue about the Activity*, and *Dialogue*

[5] i) larger gender dialogues, ii) smaller race/ethnicity dialogues, and iii) larger race/ethnicity dialogues

about the Dialogue) for *Openness*, F(2, 1216.4) = 5.155, $p = 0.006$ [Figure 4:7]. During the *Activity*, students in the race/ethnicity dialogues exhibited higher mean levels of *Openness* than students in the gender dialogues. Again with respect to predicting student *Openness,* both **dialogue topic** and **activity type** exhibited significant independent main effects ($p < 0.05$).

In conclusion, students in the race/ethnicity dialogues exhibited no change in mean levels of *Openness* across the three video sessions, while students in the gender dialogues showed a considerable amount of variability in mean levels of *Openness* between video sessions, depending on the size of dialogue they were in [Figure 4:6]. Within the gender dialogues, students in the smaller dialogues (seven to 13 students) exhibited trends of increasing and decreasing *Openness* across the three video sessions that were diametrically opposite of the trends exhibited by students in the larger dialogues (14 to 16 students) [Figure 4:6].

Overall, there was evidence of significant differences between gender and race/ethnicity dialogue students in mean levels of *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness,* but these differences were sometimes conditional on the effects of **dialogue size**, **video session**, and **activity type**. What is clear from these analyses is that mean levels of *Anxiety* and *Openness* are higher among students in the race/ethnicity dialogues, and to some extent, among students in the larger gender dialogues, relative to students in the smaller gender dialogues, with only two exceptions: students in all four categories of dialogues share the same levels of *Openness* during video session two, and during both the *Dialogue about the Activity* and the *Dialogue about the Dialogue.*

The smaller gender dialogues consisted of: one group of seven students, one group of 9 students, one group of 11 students, two groups of 12 students, and one group of 13 students. In comparison, each of the smaller race/ethnicity dialogue groups consisted of 12 to 13 students, while the larger gender and race/ethnicity dialogue groups each consisted of 14 to 16 students. These findings indicate a need to conduct tests to determine whether unique trends occurring in gender dialogues consisting of seven to

11 students explain most of the variation observed between students in the gender dialogues and the race/ethnicity dialogues in mean levels of *Anxiety* and *Openness*.

Target-Agent Status as a Predictive Factor

Target-agent status was added to the existing models (described earlier in this chapter) to explore potential interactions between **dialogue topic** (gender or race/ethnicity), **target-agent status** and:

i. **dialogue size**,
ii. **video session**, and
iii. **activity type**.

The hope was that **target-agent status** might help to explain why there appeared to be differences between the gender dialogue and race/ethnicity dialogue students in mean levels of *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness*.

Prior to conducting these analyses, I predicted that targets of inequality (women in the gender dialogues, students of color in the race/ethnicity dialogues) would exhibit lower mean levels of *Anxiety*, and higher mean levels of *Engagement* and *Openness* than agents of inequality (men in the gender dialogues, white students in the race/ethnicity dialogues), since one of the aims of intergroup dialogue was to examine inequality, and I predicted that this dynamic would tend to make agents uncomfortable.

I found no evidence of significant three-way interactions between **dialogue topic**, **target-agent status** and any third predictive factor (**dialogue size**, **video session**, or **activity type**) for student *Anxiety.* I also did not find evidence of a two-way interaction between **dialogue topic** and **target-agent status** for student *Anxiety*.

There was evidence of an interaction between **dialogue topic**, **target-agent status**, and **video session** for student *Engagement*, $F(4, 3120.8) = 3.306$, $p = 0.010$ (Variance Estimate: 0.029, *SE*: 0.004, 95% CI: 0.022 – 0.038) [Figure 4:8]. During video

session one, **agents** (men in the gender dialogues, white students in the race/ethnicity dialogues) appeared to have exhibited lower mean levels of *Engagement* than **targets** (women in the gender dialogues, students of color in the race/ethnicity dialogues). **Agents** appeared to have increased their mean levels of *Engagement* between video sessions one and two, and then decreased their mean levels of *Engagement* between video sessions two and three. By video session three, **agents** appeared less engaged than **targets** [Figure 4:8].

This trend was most pronounced within the race/ethnicity dialogues. **Race/ethnicity dialogue agents** (white students) had lower mean levels *Engagement* than **race/ethnicity dialogue targets** (students of color) during video sessions one (p = 0.047) and three (p = 0.013), even though they showed a marginal increase in *Engagement* between sessions one and two (p = 0.053). **Race/ethnicity dialogue agents** showed a drop in *Engagement* between sessions two and three (p = 0.001) [Figure 4:8].

In contrast with the trends observed among **agents**, **gender dialogue targets** (women) showed an increase in mean levels of *Engagement* between video sessions one and three (p = 0.002), while **race/ethnicity dialogue targets** (students of color) maintained relatively high and stable mean levels of *Engagement* across the three video sessions [Figure 4:8].

There was evidence of an interaction between **dialogue topic**, **target-agent status**, and **activity type** for student *Engagement*, F(4, 3066.9) = 4.306, p = 0.002 [Figure 4:9]. There was more variability in mean levels of *Engagement* among **targets** than among **agents**. **Targets** (women in the gender dialogues, students of color in the race/ethnicity dialogues) appear to have been marginally to significantly more engaged during some types of activities, in comparison to **agents** (men in the gender dialogues, and white students in the race/ethnicity dialogues), who remained relatively equally engaged across all three activity types.

In both gender and race/ethnicity dialogues, **targets** were more engaged than **agents** during the *Activity.* **Gender dialogue targets** (women) were marginally more

engaged than **gender dialogue agents** (men) during the *Activity* (p = 0.061) and significantly more engaged than **gender dialogue agents** (men) during the *Dialogue about the Dialogue* (p = 0.005) [Figure 4:9]. During the *Activity,* **race/ethnicity dialogue targets** (students of color) were both more engaged than **race/ethnicity dialogue agents** (white students) (p = 0.002), and more engaged than they (themselves) were during the other two types of activities (p = 0.001) [Figure 4:9].

Binary **dialogue size** (smaller or larger) had no significant interactions or main effects in the initial model including **target-agent status**, so it was removed from the final model predicting student *Engagement*. A continuous **dialogue size** variable (ranging from seven to 16) was retained as a predictive covariate in the model. The main effect of **dialogue topic** was marginal (p = 0.057) in this model. The main effect of **video session** was non-significant, and the interaction between **dialogue topic** and **target-agent status** was non-significant. All other factors in this model exhibited significant interactions with each other and significant main effects (p < or = 0.01), including **target-agent status**.

There was evidence of an interaction between **dialogue topic**, **target-agent status**, and **activity type** for student *Openness*, F(4, 1078.5) = 3.981, p = 0.003 [Figure 4:10]. This interaction appears to be driven by higher mean levels of *Openness* exhibited by **race/ethnicity dialogue targets** (students of color) relative to: i) **race/ethnicity dialogue agents** (white students); ii) **gender dialogue targets** (women); and iii) **gender dialogue agents** (men) (p < 0.05). There was also evidence of a marginal interaction between **dialogue topic** and **target-agent status** for student *Openness* (p = 0.079).

In conclusion, **target-agent status** appears to explain variation in student *Engagement* and student *Openness*, but not in student *Anxiety.* Results from the model predicting student *Engagement* indicate that (i) **target-agent status** significantly interacts with (ii) **dialogue topic** and: (iii) **video session;** and (iii) **activity type** (i.e., the third variable in a second three-way interaction). Results from the model predicting

student *Openness* indicate that (i) **target-agent status** significantly interacts with (ii) **dialogue topic** and (iii) **activity type**.

Looking at the first of these three-way interactions, **gender dialogue targets** (women) were the only target-agent group to show a significant increase in mean levels of *Engagement* between video sessions one and three ($p = 0.002$) [Figure 4:8]. My prediction that mean student *Engagement* levels would increase between video sessions was thus only supported among **gender dialogue targets** (women), when I included **target-agent status** in the model [Figure 4:8]. This group's counterpart, **gender dialogue agents** (men), exhibited the lowest mean levels of *Engagement* within every session.

The most variability in student *Engagement* across video sessions occurred among **race/ethnicity dialogue agents** (white students). Relative other target-agent groups, **race/ethnicity dialogue agents** (white students) started out showing moderate levels of *Engagement* in session one, exhibited the highest levels of *Engagement* in session two, and then showed the second to lowest levels of *Engagement* in session three [Figure 4:8]. Because of variable low *Engagement* among **race/ethnicity dialogue agents** (white students) across sessions, and consistent low *Engagement* among **gender dialogue agents** (men) across sessions, **agents** had lower mean levels of *Engagement* than **targets**.

Looking at the second of these three-way interactions, there was more variability in mean levels of *Engagement* among **targets** than among **agents** [Figure 4:9]. Neither **gender dialogue agents** (men), nor **race/ethnicity dialogue agents** (white students) showed significant differences in mean levels of *Engagement* between **activity types**. **Gender dialogue targets** (women), and **race/ethnicity dialogue targets** (students of color), on the other hand, each showed significant differences in mean levels of *Engagement* between **activity types**. Each **target** group also showed higher mean levels of *Engagement* in certain **activity types**, relative to their respective **agent** groups [Figure 4:11].

In Chapter V, there is a discussion of: a) interactions between the factors predicting each of the five *facilitation styles*; and b) interactions between these factors and each of the five *facilitation styles*, predicting student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness.* Chapter VI (Discussion) provides an overall summary and discussion of the potential implications of findings reported in Chapters IV and V for future research, facilitator training, community organizing, and social work. Chapter VI also provides qualitative examples illustrating quantitative video-data findings.

CHAPTER V

Results from Facilitation Process Analyses

Introduction

Intergroup dialogue courses are facilitated by two facilitators who work together as a team. Each facilitator receives intensive training focusing on facilitation skills such as creating ground rules, neutrally reflecting on student comments, and identifying underlying assumptions. Conflicts, differences, and disagreements between dialogue participants are seen as learning opportunities, as long as conflicts are not allowed to escalate to the point that students disrespect others, emotionally withdraw, or cease to fully participate. Facilitators are responsible for ensuring conflicts do not get out of hand, and for modeling a style of communication that facilitates dialogue rather than debate.

To what extent do facilitators actually use the facilitation skills they are trained to use? How does *facilitation style* vary between gender and race/ethnicity dialogues, and depending on other factors, such as: the size of dialogue groups; the type of activity; the particular session; and interactions between these predictive factors (e.g., smaller dialogues during video session one)? This is the first study to provide minute-by-minute coding data to address these kinds of questions. Another aim of this study is to assess the impact of (minute-by-minute) dialogue facilitation practices on (minute-by-minute) changes in student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness*. This is also the first study to explore this impact, and the relationship between predictive factors such as

dialogue topic[1] (gender or race/ethnicity) and *facilitation style*[2] on student processes observed (minute-by-minute) in intergroup dialogues.

As described in Chapter III (Method), we coded five different "*styles*" or methods of facilitation [see Appendix I for full-length *facilitation style* coding scale]:

i. *reflection and redirection*,
ii. *inquiry*,
iii. *listening and support*,
iv. *advocacy*, and
v. *triggered reaction*.

In the section that follows, I provide an overview of how frequently each *facilitation style* occurs across gender and race/ethnicity dialogues. Next, I describe significant differences in how frequently each *facilitation style* occurs within the following four predictive categories[3]:

i. **dialogue topic** (gender and race/ethnicity);
ii. **dialogue size** (smaller: seven to 13 students, or larger: 14 to 16 students);
iii. **video session** (one, two and three); and
iv. **activity type** (*Activity, Dialogue about the Activity,* and *Dialogue about the Dialogue)*.

After offering this overview, I briefly describe each of the five *facilitation styles* coded for in this study, one by one. In each of the five *facilitation style* sections, I describe how significant interactions between the four predictive categories described above help to explain variation (when applicable) within the *facilitation style* in focus. At the end of each *facilitation style* section, I discuss significant impacts (when applicable) of the *facilitation style* on student *Anxiety, Engagement* and *Openness*.

[1] Key predictive factors were written in bold for emphasis
[2] References to the *facilitation style* scale and subcomponents of this scale are in italics, for clarity
[3] Each of these predictive factors is described in detail in Chapter III (Method), and an overview of each factor is also provided toward the beginning of Chapter IV (Student Process Results).

I used linear mixed-effect model analyses to predict each of the five *facilitation style* variables with the following independent factors:

i. **dialogue topic** (gender and race/ethnicity);
ii. **dialogue size** (smaller: seven to 13 students, or larger: 14 to 16 students);
iii. **video session** (one, two and three); and
iv. **activity type** (*Activity, Dialogue about the Activity,* and *Dialogue about the Dialogue)*.

I tested for two-way interactions between every factor in this model except between **video session** and **activity type**, since these two variables are confounded.

In the paragraphs that follow, I offer an overview of the main effects of **dialogue topic**, **dialogue size**, **video session**, and **activity type**, as they explain variation in the five *facilitation styles*. I then devote the remainder of this results chapter to discussing: a) interactions between the factors predicting each of the five *facilitation styles*; and b) interactions between these factors and each of the five *facilitation styles*, predicting student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness.*

Main Effects Explaining Variation in Facilitation Style

Prior to conducting these analyses, I predicted that facilitation teams would spend around half the time showing minimal to no reaction, and the other half of the time engaging in *reflection and redirection*, and to a lesser extent, *inquiry*. I predicted that *advocacy* would occur occasionally, and that *triggered reaction*s would only rarely occur. While I was correct in my predictions about *triggered reaction*s, the results indicate that facilitation teams use *reflection and redirection* more than twice as often as they use *listening and support*, and they use both *inquiry* and *advocacy* more frequently than I had predicted.

Across the 20 dialogues in this sample, facilitation teams actually used *reflection and redirection* 51% of the time, *inquiry* 21%, *listening and support* 18%, *advocacy* 9%, and *triggered reaction* 1% of the time [Figure 5:1]. This indicates that facilitation teams were playing a more vocal and assertive role than I had predicted. Facilitation teams used a *facilitation style* involving speaking (*reflection and redirection*, *inquiry*, or *advocacy*) 81% of the time. This means both facilitators were silent around only 1/5th of the minutes that at least one of the facilitators happened to be in the picture. While these findings were somewhat different from what I had expected, they are not negative, since they indicate that facilitators, on the whole, are basically doing what they were trained to do more than 90% of the time (i.e., they spend less than 10% of the time *advocating*, and showing *triggered reactions*).

Three of the five *facilitation styles* coded occur as frequently in the gender dialogues as they do in the race/ethnicity dialogues: *listening and support*, *inquiry*, and *triggered reaction*. This indicates that facilitation teams, on the whole, are facilitating in a manner that is more similar than different. Race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators appear to advocate nearly twice as much (14.3%) as gender dialogue facilitators (8.8%)[4], $F(1, 254.4) = 16.786$, $p < 0.001$ (*Variance Estimate:* 0.009, *SE* < 0.001, *95% CI:* 0.007 – 0.011) [Figure 5:2].

Gender dialogue facilitators appear to reflect and redirect a larger percentage of the time (52.8%) than race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators (49.5%), $F(1, 298.3) = 4.198$, $p = 0.041$ (*Variance Estimate:* 0.008, *SE* < 0.001, *95% CI:* 0.006 – 0.011) [Figure 5:2]. While this difference of approximately 3% was large enough to meet the criteria for statistical significance, it does not appear to be large enough to be of any practical significance. Similarly, race/ethnicity dialogue facilitation teams were observed to show *triggered reactions* a larger percentage of the time (1.3%) than gender dialogue facilitation teams (0.8%), but this difference does not appear to be large enough to be of practical significance ($p < 0.05$) [Figure 5:2].

[4] This finding is somewhat misleading. Further analyses indicate that variation in facilitator *advocacy* may be better explained by **dialogue size**, as will be discussed later.

Thus, the primary difference in *facilitation style* between gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators appears to occur in the frequency of *advocacy*. Even with respect to *advocacy,* both gender dialogue and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators are *advocating* a relatively small percentage of the time, again indicating more practical similarities than differences in approaches to facilitation.

Next, we turn to main effects of **dialogue size** (smaller or larger number of students per dialogue than average). There was a main effect of **dialogue size** for every *facilitation style* except *triggered reaction* ($p < 0.05$) [Figure 5:3]. Facilitators of larger dialogues used *advocacy* ($F(1, 254.8) = 38.685$, $p < 0.001$) and *inquiry* ($F(1, 275.2) = 9.512$, $p = 0.002$) more often, while facilitators of smaller dialogues used *listening and support* ($F(1, 293.9) = 10.367$, $p = 0.001$), and *reflection and redirection* ($F(1, 298.4) = 7.098$, $p = 0.008$) more often [Figure 5:3]. **Dialogue size** appears to have had the most influence on facilitator *advocacy*, which occurred twice as frequently in larger dialogues (15.7%) than smaller dialogues (7.4%) [Figure 5:3].

Moving to main effects of **video session**, we find that every *facilitation style* except *triggered reaction* varies by **video session** ($p < 0.05$). There are main effects of **video session** for facilitator:

i. *reflection and redirection* ($F(2, 4105.5) = 5.681$, $p = 0.003$), which is highest in sessions one and two;
ii. *inquiry* ($F(2, 3887.5) = 10.898$, $p < 0.001$), highest in session one;
iii. *listening and support* ($F(2, 4472.6) = 43.722$, $p < 0.001$), highest in sessions two and three; and
iv. *advocacy* ($F(2, 3699.8) = 4.399$, $p = 0.012$), which is highest in sessions one and three [Figure 5:4].

Video session appears to have had the greatest influence on facilitator *support and listening*, which occurred nearly twice as frequently in **video sessions** two (21.6%) and three (21.0%), than in **video session** one (12.8%) [Figure 5:4].

Activity type appears to have had a highly significant ($p < 0.001$) main effect on every *facilitation style*:

i. *reflection and redirection* ($F(2, 4780.5) = 54.035$, $p < 0.001$), which is highest in *Dialogue about the Activity,* and *Dialogue about the Dialogue*;
ii. *inquiry* ($F(2, 4754.5) = 14.075$, $p < 0.001$), highest in *Activity*;
iii. *listening and support*($F(2, 4950.5) = 17.343$, $p < 0.001$), highest in *Activity* and the *Dialogue about the Dialogue*;
iv. *advocacy* ($F(2, 4066.4) = 44.309$, $p < 0.001$), highest in *Activity* and the *Dialogue about the Dialogue*; and
v. *triggered reaction* ($F(2, 4414.8) = 8.476$, $p < 0.001$), which is highest in *Dialogue about the Activity* [Figure 5:5].

During the Fishbowl *Activity* in video session two*,* facilitator *listening and support* (20.3%) and *inquiry* (28.0%) levels peak*,* while facilitator *reflection and redirection* (44.3%) is at its lowest. **Activity type** appears to have had the greatest influence on facilitator *reflection and redirection*, which is nearly 14.5 percentage points higher during the *Dialogue about the Activity* (58.8%) than during the Fishbowl *Activity* (44.3%) [Figure 5:5].

Facilitator Reflection and Redirection

To qualify for *reflection and redirection*, a facilitator had to meet at least one of the following three criteria by:

i. repeating or slightly rephrasing what a participant recently said, and/or asking for clarification;
ii. making a neutral comment about what a participant recently said; and/or
iii. redirecting the flow of conversation, for example, by changing or rephrasing topics, by transitioning into another activity, or by going over ground rules again.

Differences between gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators in how often they used *reflection and redirection* were influenced by the interaction between **dialogue topic** and **dialogue size**, **video session**, and **activity type**. Starting with **dialogue size**, there was no difference between smaller and larger race/ethnicity dialogues in the percentage of time *reflection and redirection* occurred [Figure 5:6]. Within the gender dialogues, though, *reflection and redirection* occurred slightly more frequently in the smaller dialogues (58.0%) than in the larger dialogues (47.7%) ($p < 0.001$) (**dialogue topic** by **dialogue size** Interaction: $F(1, 248.5) = 14.651$, $p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:6]. The 9.3% difference in the percentage that facilitator *reflection and redirection* occurs in smaller gender dialogues (58.0%), compared to in smaller race/ethnicity dialogues (48.7%) ($p < 0.001$), may help to explain the relatively small, but statistically significant overall difference observed between gender (52.8%) and race/ethnicity dialogues (49.5%) in facilitator *reflection and redirection* ($p = 0.041$) [Figure 5:6].

Gender dialogue facilitators use *reflection and redirection* a higher percentage of time in **video sessions** one (55.6%) and three (51.9%) than race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators in sessions one (48.4%, $p = 0.005$) and three (45%, $p = 0.006$) (**dialogue topic** by **video session** Interaction: $F(2, 4120.0) = 5.712$, $p = 0.003$) [Figure 5:7]. In **video session** two, this pattern is reversed when race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators use *reflection and redirection* a marginally higher percentage of the time (55.2%) than gender dialogue facilitators (51%, $p = 0.089$).

Gender dialogue facilitators use *reflection and redirection* a higher percentage of time in the *Dialogue about the Dialogue* (52.8%) activity than race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators (48.1%, $p = 0.044$) (**dialogue topic** by **activity type** interaction: $F(2, 4796.3) = 2.982$, $p = 0.051$) [Figure 5:8].

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to assess the relationship between facilitator *reflection and redirection* and student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness*. There was a negative correlation between facilitator

reflection and redirection and student *Anxiety*, based on 5,755 observations (r = -0.073, $p < 0.001$). Findings from a linear mixed-effect model analysis indicates that mean levels of student *Anxiety* are marginally lower when facilitators use *reflection and redirection* (2.61, Std. Error: 0.042, on a scale from 1 to 5), relative to when facilitators use *advocacy* (2.67, Std. Error: 0.052) (Main Effect of Facilitator *Advocacy* versus *Reflection and Redirection*[5]: F(1, 3207.9) = 2.923, $p = 0.087$). In other words, student mean levels of *Anxiety* appear to be higher when facilitators *advocate*, compared to when they *reflect and redirect.*

Facilitator Inquiry

To qualify for *inquiry*, a facilitator needed to attempt to find and create common ground by building a mutual understanding of how the facilitator and/or others developed their perspectives and identities. For example, the facilitator might inquire about how a participant's perspective changed in light of a personal experience, or the facilitator might ask questions to clarify and more fully understanding another participant's underlying assumptions.

Dialogue size, **video session**, and **activity type** appeared to influence variation in the use of *inquiry* by gender dialogue and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators. Within larger dialogues, gender dialogue facilitators used *inquiry* twice as often (33.5%) as race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators (16.9%) ($p < 0.001$) (**dialogue topic** by **dialogue size** interaction: F(1, 236.7) = 88.814, $p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:9]. Within smaller dialogues, the opposite trend was observed: race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators used *inquiry* more frequently (26.8%) than gender dialogue facilitators (13.5%) ($p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:9]. Another way to look at this is to say that within race/ethnicity dialogues, facilitators used *inquiry* more in the smaller dialogues, whereas, within the gender dialogues, facilitators used *inquiry* more in the larger dialogues [Figure 5:9].

[5] This analysis was conducted using a binary variable indicating on a minute-to-minute basis whether a facilitator used either *advocacy*, or *reflection and redirection.*

Turning to **video session**, during **video session** one, gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators used *inquiry* an equivalent percentage of time (25% and 28.7%, respectively), which is a higher percentage of time than they spent using *inquiry* during other **video sessions** (**dialogue topic** by **video session** interaction: $F(2, 3493.7) = 4.510$, $p = 0.011$) [Figure 5:10]. This trend was more pronounced among race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators, who used *inquiry* the largest proportion of time (28.7%) in **video session** one, compared to during **video sessions** two (16.7%, $p < 0.001$) and three (20.2%, $p < 0.001$). This trend was less pronounced among gender dialogue facilitators, in part, because they used *inquiry* a larger percentage of time than race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators did during **video sessions** two (21.7%, $p = 0.036$) and three (23.8%, $p = 0.128$), which brought levels of *inquiry* across the three **video sessions** to equivalent levels [Figure 5:10].

Looking at **activity type**, gender dialogue facilitators used *inquiry* a larger percentage of time (23.4%) than race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators (15.6%) during the *Dialogue about the Activity* (**dialogue topic** by **activity type** interaction: $F(2, 4773.4) = 9.856$, $p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:11]. Both gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators used *inquiry* a similar percentage of time during the *Activity* and the *Dialogue about the Dialogue* [Figure 5:11]. Within race/ethnicity dialogues, facilitators used *inquiry* more during the *Activity* (29.5%) than during both the *Dialogue about the Activity* (15.6%, $p < 0.001$) and the *Dialogue about the Dialogue* (20.5%, $p = 0.001$). Within race/ethnicity dialogues, facilitators also used *inquiry* more during the *Dialogue about the Dialogue* (20.5%) than during the *Dialogue about the Activity* (15.6%) ($p = 0.006$) [Figure 5:11]. Within gender dialogues, facilitators used *inquiry* more during the *Activity* (26.5%) than during the *Dialogue about the Dialogue* (20.8%) ($p = 0.041$) [Figure 5:11].

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to assess the relationship between facilitator *inquiry* and student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness*. There was a positive correlation between facilitator *inquiry* and student

Anxiety, based on 5,233 observations (r = 0.100, $p < 0.001$). Further analyses have not been conducted to explore this relationship further.

Facilitator Listening and Support

To qualify for *listening and support*, a facilitator could look interested, nod supportively, or maintain a neutral expression. In other words, to qualify for this scale, the facilitator could appear to be listening *and/or* providing positive support. Facilitator *listening and support* was the "default" choice on the *facilitation style* scale: as long as a facilitator did not engage in any of the behaviors or communication processes outlined in other *facilitation style* categories, such as *triggered reaction*, s/he was coded as using the "*listening and support" facilitation style*. Differences in how often gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators used *listening and support* appeared to vary depending on **dialogue size** and on **video session**, but not on **activity type**.

Within smaller dialogues, gender dialogue facilitators used *listening and support* a larger percentage of the time (25.8%) than race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators (15.5%) ($p < 0.001$) (**dialogue topic** by **dialogue size** interaction: $F(1, 256.6) = 60.704$, $p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:12]. Within larger dialogues, just the opposite trend was observed: race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators used *listening and support* a larger percentage of the time (21.5%) than gender dialogue facilitators (11.0%) ($p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:12]. Another way to explain this is to say that within gender dialogues, facilitators listened and/or showed support more often in the smaller dialogues, whereas, within the race/ethnicity dialogues, facilitators listened and/or showed support more often in the larger dialogues [Figure 5:12].

Turning to variation within **video sessions**, there are no statistically significant differences between gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators in the percentage they used *listening and support* within each video session. Between video sessions, though, both gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators engaged in *listening and support* notably less often during video session one (12.2% and 13.4%) compared to

during video sessions two (20.5% and 22.6%, $p < 0.001$) and three (22.7% and 19.2%, $p < 0.001$) (**dialogue topic** by **video session** interaction: F(2, 4486.7) = 4.605, $p = 0.010$) [Figure 5:13]. There was not a significant interaction between **dialogue topic** and **activity type** for *listening and support*.

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to assess the relationships between facilitator *listening and support* and student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness*. There was a negative correlation between *listening and support* and student *Anxiety*, based on 5,755 observations (r = -0.085, $p < 0.001$). There was a positive correlation between *listening and support* and student *Engagement*, based on 4,720 observations (r = 0.035, $p = 0.017$). There was also a positive correlation between *listening and support* and student *Openness*, based on 1,358 observations (r = 0.054, $p = 0.048$).

Results from linear mixed-effect model analyses indicate that mean levels of student *Anxiety* were lower when facilitators used *listening and support* (2.6, Std. Error: 0.048, on a scale from 1 to 5) relative to when facilitators used *advocacy* (2.7, Std. Error: 0.054) (main effect of facilitator *advocacy* versus *support and listening*[6]: F(1, 1464.6) = 5.217, $p = 0.023$). This effect appears to be explained by a difference in mean levels of student *Anxiety* between when small gender dialogue facilitators used *listening and support* (1.8, Std. Error: 0.078) relative to when they used *advocacy* (2.2, Std. Error: 0.154) ($p = 0.024$) [Figure 5:14]. While student mean *Anxiety* levels are lower in small gender dialogues when facilitators use *support and listening*, it should be noted that mean levels of student *Anxiety* were lower on the whole in smaller gender dialogues, relative to the three other categories of dialogues[7] [Figure 5:14].

Mean levels of student *Engagement* were higher when facilitators used *listening and support* (1.7, Std. Error: 0.038) relative to when facilitators used *advocacy* (1.5, Std.

[6] Note that this is a single, binary variable indicating when a facilitator *advocated*, versus when they provided *support and listened*.

[7] i) larger gender dialogues; ii) smaller race/ethnicity dialogues; and iii) larger race/ethnicity dialogues

Error: 0.051) (main effect of facilitator *advocacy* versus *support and listening*[8]: F(1, 962.6) = 16.978, $p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:15]. This effect was not isolated to gender or race/ethnicity dialogues.

Mean levels of student *Openness* were higher when facilitators used *listening and support* (1.75, Std. Error: 0.073) relative to when they used *advocacy* (1.41, Std. Error: 0.152, $p = 0.031$), but this trend was only observed in the smaller dialogues – not within the larger dialogues (interaction between facilitator *advocacy* versus *listening and support* and **dialogue size**: F(1, 315.6) = 3.454, $p < 0.064$) [Figure 5:16].

Facilitator Advocacy

To qualify for *advocacy*, a facilitator needed to meet at least one of the following four criteria:

i. argues in favor of, supports, and/or defends a particular position or viewpoint;
ii. polarizes an issue;
iii. interrupts and talks over others to support his/her argument; and/or
iv. disagrees with other participants, asks them pointed questions, and/or presents arguments to counter theirs (i.e., without presenting both sides of an argument).

Differences in how often gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators *advocated* for a position on a topic appears to vary depending on the size of dialogues, **video session**, and the type activity.

Within smaller dialogues, race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators advocated nearly five times as often (12.5%) than gender dialogue facilitators (2.2%) ($p < 0.001$) (**dialogue topic** by **dialogue size** interaction: F(1, 226.7) = 13.451, $p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:17]. Within gender dialogues, facilitators advocated more than five times as often in the larger dialogues (15.4%) relative to the smaller dialogues (2.2%) ($p < 0.001$). Facilitators of the

[8] Note that this is a single, binary variable indicating when a facilitator *advocated*, versus when they provided *support and listened*.

larger gender and race/ethnicity dialogues advocated equivalent percentages (15.4% and 16.0%, respectively) [Figure 5:17].

Turning to variation within **video sessions**, race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators advocated nearly twice as much during **video sessions** one (16.3%) and three (17.0%) as gender dialogue facilitators in sessions one (6.8%, $p < 0.001$) and three (6.8%, $p < 0.001$) (**dialogue topic** by **video session** interaction: $F(2, 3703.9) = 13.444$, $p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:18]. There is no significant difference in the percentage gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators advocate during **video session** two [Figure 5:18].

Within **activity type**, race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators *advocated* a significantly higher percentage of the time than gender dialogue facilitators during both the *Activity* (15.2% versus 10.1%, $p = 0.020$), and the *Dialogue about the Activity* (12.1% versus 3.6%, $p < 0.001$) (**dialogue topic** by **activity type** interaction: $F(2, 4075.2) = 8.256$, $p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:19]. Within both the gender dialogues and the race/ethnicity dialogues, percentages of facilitator *advocacy* were highest during both the *Activity* and the *Dialogue about the Dialogue* relative to during the *Dialogue about the Activity* ($p < 0.05$) [Figure 5:19]. These differences in percentages of *advocacy* between types of activities were more pronounced in the gender dialogues ($p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:19].

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to assess the relationships between facilitator *advocacy* and student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness*. There was a positive correlation between facilitator *advocacy* and student *Anxiety*, based on 4,518 observations ($r = 0.166$, $p < 0.001$). There was a negative correlation between facilitator *advocacy* and student *Engagement*, based on 3,668 observations ($r = 0.063$, $p < 0.001$). There was not a significant correlation between facilitator *advocacy* and student *Openness.*

As already described earlier in this chapter, results from linear mixed-effect model analyses indicate that students had higher mean levels of *Anxiety* when facilitators *advocated*, relative to when facilitators used *listening and support* ($p = 0.035$), and relative to when they used *reflection and redirection* ($p = 0.087$). The effect

of *advocacy* versus *listening and support* on student *Anxiety* appears to have been confined to smaller gender dialogues [Figure 5:14].

Also, as described earlier in this chapter, mean levels of student *Engagement* [Figure 5:15] and *Openness* [Figure 5:16] were lower when facilitators *advocated*, versus when facilitators used *support and listened* ($p < 0.05$). The negative (dampening) effect of facilitator *advocacy* on student *Engagement* does not appear to have been isolated to gender or race/ethnicity dialogues, or to smaller or larger dialogues [Figure 5:15]. The dampening effect of facilitator *advocacy* on student *Openness*, though, appears to have been isolated to smaller dialogues [Figure 5:16].

Facilitator Triggered Reaction

To qualify for *triggered reaction*, a facilitator needed to meet at least one of the following three criteria:

i. seems flustered by, offended by, or concerned about a participant's behavior or comments;
ii. exhibits high levels of anxiety, even if only briefly (i.e., acts apprehensive, nervous, or agitated); and/or
iii. the other facilitator seems to pick up on his/her co-facilitator's *triggered reaction* and "covers" for him/her.

Differences in how often gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators exhibited a *triggered reaction* appears to have varied depending on **dialogue size, video session**, and **activity type** ($p < 0.001$). *Triggered reactions* occurred so infrequently among all of the facilitators, though, that these differences may not have much practical significance.

Within larger dialogues, race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators exhibited *triggered reaction*s a larger percentage of time than gender dialogue facilitators ($p < 0.001$) (**dialogue topic** by **dialogue size** Interaction: $F(1, 3505.4) = 14.894$, $p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:20]. There was no significant difference within smaller dialogues between how often race/ethnicity dialogue and gender dialogue facilitators exhibited *triggered reactions*.

Turning to variation within **video sessions**, the largest difference between gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators in percentage of *triggered reactions* appears to have occurred during **video session** one, when race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators exhibited their highest percentage of *triggered reaction*s (2.3%), and gender dialogue facilitators exhibited their lowest percentage of *triggered reaction*s (0.3%, $p < 0.001$) (**dialogue topic** by **video session** interaction: $F(2, 4069.6) = 17.395$, $p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:21]. The opposite trend is observed in **video session** three, when gender dialogue facilitators exhibited their highest percentage of *triggered reaction*s (1.7%), and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators exhibited their lowest percentage of *triggered reaction*s (0.4%, $p = 0.007$) [Figure 5:21]. Gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators exhibited *triggered reaction* an equivalent percentage of time during **video session** three [Figure 5:21].

Within **activity type**, the largest difference between gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators in percentage of *triggered reactions* appears to have occurred during *Dialogue about the Activity*, when race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators exhibited their highest percentage of *triggered reaction*s (3.0%), and gender dialogue facilitators exhibited their lowest percentage of *triggered reaction*s (0.2%, $p < 0.001$) (**dialogue topic** by **activity type** Interaction: $F(2, 4068.1) = 17.874$, $p < 0.001$) [Figure 5:22]. The opposite trend is observed during the *Activity*, when gender dialogue facilitators exhibited their highest percentage of *triggered reaction*s (1.6%), and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators exhibited their lowest percentage of *triggered reaction*s (0.2%, $p = 0.046$) [Figure 5:22]. Gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators exhibited *triggered reaction* an equivalent percentage of time during the *Dialogue about the Dialogue* [Figure 5:22].

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed to assess the relationship between facilitator *triggered reaction*s and student *Anxiety*. There was a positive correlation between facilitator *triggered reaction*s and student *Anxiety*, based on 4,100 observations ($r = 0.038$, $p = 0.014$).

Chapter VI (Discussion) provides an overall summary and discussion of the potential implications of findings reported in Chapters IV and V for future research, facilitator training, community organizing, and social work. Chapter VI also provides qualitative examples illustrating quantitative video-data findings.

CHAPTER VI

Discussion

Introduction

This thesis focuses on findings from quantitative analyses of video-research on a subset of participants of *The Multi-University Research Evaluation of the Educational Benefits of Intergroup Dialogues*. There are many aspects of the video-research component of this project that were qualitative in nature, though. In this chapter, I highlight some of these qualitative aspects, while providing a discussion of the implications of the quantitative findings. I also discuss implications of these results for future intergroup dialogue research, dialogue facilitator training, community organizing, and social work practice.

Two other qualitative measures were used to explore affective and communication processes in the *Multi-University Research Evaluation* research evaluation:

i. the final retrospective essay participants wrote at the end of their dialogue course; and
ii. transcriptions from face-to-face interviews conducted with dialogue participants after their last dialogue class-session.

Across all three of the qualitative measures used in *Multi-University Research Evaluation*, two interesting trends were observed. First, few notable differences emerged between gender and race/ethnicity dialogues in findings from quantitative analyses of the survey data, while all three qualitative measures found differences between gender and race/ethnicity dialogues. Second, nearly every time significant

differences were found between gender and race/ethnicity dialogues in the qualitative measures, race/ethnicity dialogue students exhibited higher scores on whatever was measured. This trend may indicate that dynamics experienced in the gender dialogues were generally more amplified in the race/ethnicity dialogues.

Summary of Student Processes Findings

Findings from the video-research measures indicate however that one should not draw conclusions about differences between the race/ethnicity and gender dialogues without considering specific conditions that characterize the dialogues. Analyses of the student process data from this study show that the overall appearance of higher mean levels of student *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness* in the race/ethnicity dialogues, relative to in the gender dialogues, often depended on the size of the dialogue, and on the specific session and type of activity that they were observed.

Three student process variables appeared to vary by **dialogue topic:** *Anxiety, Engagement,* and *Openness.* Further analyses indicated that **video session** interacted with **dialogue topic** in every case (as part of a two or three-way interaction) to help explain variation in these three student process variables. **Activity type** also consistently exerted an influence, either as part of an interaction with **dialogue topic** (for *Engagement* and *Openness)*, or as a main effect (for *Anxiety*).

The relative influence of other predictive factors was more variable. **Dialogue size** interacted with **dialogue topic** (as part of a two or three-way interaction) to explain variation in *Anxiety* and *Engagement*, but not *Openness*. And **target-agent status** interacted with **dialogue size** (as part of a two or three-way interaction) to explain variation in *Engagement* and *Openness*, but not *Anxiety*.

Further analyses indicated that variation in student *Anxiety* was best explained by interactions between **dialogue topic** and **dialogue size**, on the one hand [Figure 4:1],

and **dialogue topic** and **video session** on the other [Figure 4:2]. The main effect of **activity type** also helped to explain some variation in student *Anxiety* [Figure 4:3].

Turning to student *Engagement*, interactions between **dialogue topic, target-agent status,** and **activity type** explained the most variation [Figure 4:5], followed by interactions between **dialogue topic, target-agent status,** and **video session** [Figure 4:8].

Looking at student *Openness,* interactions between **dialogue topic, dialogue size,** and **video session** explained the most variation [Figure 4:6], followed by interactions between **dialogue topic** and **activity type** [Figure 4:7].

Variation in both student *Anxiety* and *Openness* appeared to be profoundly influenced by the interaction between **dialogue topic** and **dialogue size.** Students in the smaller gender dialogues exhibited two notable contrasts with students in the other three categories of dialogues[1]:

i. they had lower mean levels of *Anxiety* across the three sessions ($p < 0.05$) [Figure 4:1],
ii. and they had lower mean levels of *Openness* during sessions one and three ($p < 0.05$) [Figure 4:6].

It is possible that significant differences observed between gender dialogues and race/ethnicity dialogues in *Anxiety* and *Openness* would disappear if the three gender dialogues consisting of fewer than 12 students were excluded from analysis.

Potential Implications and Applications of Student Processes Findings

One conclusion is clear from the student process findings: dialogue size has a significant influence on variation in both student *Openness* and student *Anxiety*. Students in the smaller gender dialogues exhibited lower levels of *Anxiety* during every video session

[1] i) larger gender dialogues, ii) smaller race/ethnicity dialogues, and iii) larger race/ethnicity dialogues

and lower levels of *Openness* during video sessions one and three, as well as during the *Activity* and the *Dialogue about the Activity*. In general, it appears that gender dialogue and race/ethnicity dialogues do not considerably differ from each other if they are large (14 to 16 students). Mean levels of student *Anxiety*, for example, remained relatively flat across video sessions in the larger dialogues, while in the smaller race/ethnicity dialogues, *Anxiety* started out higher than in any other group in video session one, and then decreased each session. In addition, mean levels of student *Openness* increased on the whole, across the three sessions, in the larger dialogues, and in the smaller race/ethnicity dialogues, while it remained flat, save a temporary increase in session two, in the smaller gender dialogues.

If dialogues had been the ideal size of 14 to 16 students, something all institutions strived to achieve in this project, these analyses indicate that mean levels of student *Anxiety* and *Openness* might be comparable between the gender and race/ethnicity dialogues. This is an important conclusion to be drawn from the analyses of the video data. It has the added benefit of identifying a (potential) problem with a relatively simple solution: whenever possible, make intergroup dialogue classes larger. When this is not possible, and an intergroup dialogue course must remain small (e.g., due to low enrollment), facilitators could try to compensate for the effect of having fewer participants by taking additional steps to encourage participants to share their personal feelings, perspectives, and stories with the dialogue.

On the whole, there was more variation in the student processes within the smaller dialogues. There were some exceptions, though. For example, **activity type** exerted a main effect on student *Anxiety*, and was not significant in interactions with other factors predicting student *Anxiety*, such as dialogue size. Mean levels of student *Anxiety* were higher during the *Dialogue about the Dialogue*, relative to during other types of activities. This may have occurred because the *Dialogue about the Dialogue* always occurred toward the end of a two-hour class, and by then, the dialogue was more likely to be about weightier and more controversial topics. The two examples

presented thus far represent an interesting contrast between a discussion that occurred early in the class (during a Fishbowl *Activity*), versus one broached toward the end of a class (during a *Dialogue about the Dialogue*).

Some amount of *Anxiety* is unavoidable, and most likely even necessary, to achieve the aims of intergroup dialogue. Facilitators play an important role in monitoring apparent levels of *Anxiety* within their dialogues and taking measures to let students "cool off" (e.g., by taking a break, or by taking a few minutes to write down some thoughts before coming back to delve back into a heated discussion). These findings indicate that facilitators need to be extra cognizant that higher levels of *Anxiety* are not leading to unproductive levels of conflict, or leading certain participants to withdraw, during the *Dialogue about the Dialogue*.

In general, it was difficult to tease apart the influence of **video session** and **activity type** in the student process findings, since the two are interwoven together. Both **activity type** and **video session** significantly interacted with other factors, or had a main effect, in every student process model tested in this study. The most interesting trends that emerged were those between video sessions one and three, especially when there was a steady increase in a variable (such as *Openness*) between each video session. I had predicted that *Anxiety* would decrease, on the whole, and that *Engagement* and *Openness* would increase, on the whole, across the three video sessions. My predictions were supported in some groups (e.g., gender dialogue **targets** exhibited increasing levels of *Engagement* over the three sessions, there was an upward trend in levels of *Openness* in the larger dialogues, and the smaller race/ethnicity dialogues), but not in the smaller gender dialogues. Further analyses of change over **video sessions** in the student process variables may help me to identify some of the factors that contributed to the positive changes I predicted would occur, in the groups they were observed in. These findings could help inform recommendations for intergroup dialogue curriculum development and facilitation.

Summary of Facilitator Processes Findings

Overall, facilitators shared more in common in their approach to facilitation than they differed. There are differences in *facilitation style* between gender and race/ethnicity dialogues that appeared to depend on other factors. At first glance, for example, race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators appeared to advocate more frequently than gender dialogue facilitators did, but when **dialogue size** was taken into account, it became clear that facilitators of larger gender dialogues *advocated* just as often as race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators (in particular, during **video sessions** two and three, and during both the *Activity* and the *Dialogue about the Dialogue* **activity**). The difference in rates of *advocacy* between **dialogue topics** appeared because facilitators of smaller gender dialogues rarely *advocated* (and did not advocate at all during **video sessions** three and during the *Activity)*, thus, mean levels of *advocacy* for gender dialogue facilitators as a whole were significantly decreased.

This trend was one of several that emerged in the smaller gender dialogues. *Facilitation style* findings indicate that facilitators of smaller gender dialogues used *reflection and redirection* 58% of the time, versus the 49% average for facilitators of the other three types of dialogues in this category (i.e., larger gender dialogues, smaller race dialogues, larger race dialogues). Facilitators of smaller gender dialogues and facilitators of larger race/ethnicity dialogues appeared to share two trends in common: on average, both groups of facilitators used *listening and support* nearly twice as often (24% versus 13%), and *inquiry* half as often (15% versus 30%), as the facilitators of larger gender dialogues, and the facilitators of smaller race/ethnicity dialogues.

Smaller gender dialogue facilitators and larger race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators showed other trends in common when we looked at increases and decreases in proportions of different *facilitation styles* over the course of the three **video sessions**: they exhibited a significant drop in their use of *advocacy* between each **video session** (with percentages of *advocacy* dropping to 0% in the smaller gender dialogues by

session three). Smaller gender dialogue facilitators and larger race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators also both decreased their use of *inquiry* each **video session**.

The opposite group of facilitators (larger gender dialogue facilitators, and smaller race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators) showed a significant increase in *advocacy* between **video sessions** one and three, and exhibited their highest percentages of *advocacy* during **video session** three. This same group of facilitators (larger gender dialogue facilitators, and smaller race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators) showed a significant increase in *inquiry* between **video sessions** two and three. Facilitators of the larger gender dialogues used *inquiry* the highest proportion of time on average, and significantly increased their use of *inquiry* each **video session**, peaking at 41% in **video session** three.

Within **video session one**: mean percentages of facilitator *inquiry* peaked; mean percentages of *reflection and redirection* peaked among gender dialogue facilitators; and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators exhibited peak proportions of *triggered reaction*s and *advocated* more than twice as often as gender dialogue facilitators. Within **video session two**: facilitators used *listening and support* and *reflection and redirection* more often; facilitators of larger dialogues *advocated* nearly five times as often (17% of the time) as facilitators of smaller dialogues (3% of the time). Within **video session three:** facilitators used *listening and support* more often; gender dialogue facilitators exhibited their peak proportions of *triggered reaction*s; percentages of *advocacy* peaked among facilitators of smaller race/ethnicity dialogues; and percentages of both *advocacy* (19%) and *inquiry* (41%) peaked among facilitators of larger gender dialogues.

Within the *Activity*, facilitators exhibited their highest levels of *inquiry* and *support and listening*, on average. Within the *Activity,* larger gender dialogue facilitators and smaller race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators in particular showed their peak percentages of *inquiry* (41% and 45%, respectively). Smaller gender dialogue facilitators notably did not advocate at all within the *Activity*. Within the *Dialogue about the Activity*: facilitators used *reflection and redirection* a larger proportion of the time; the

lowest percentages of *advocacy* were observed; race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators exhibited peak proportion of *triggered reaction*s and *advocated* more than twice as often as gender dialogue facilitators. Within the *Dialogue about the Dialogue*, peak percentages of facilitator *advocacy* occurred, and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators exhibited their highest proportion of *support and listening*.

Student mean levels of *Anxiety* were higher when facilitators used *advocacy* rather than: i) *reflection and redirection*, or ii) *listening and support*. The contrasting predictive influence of *advocacy* versus *listening and support* on student *Anxiety* is isolated to smaller gender dialogues. This is interesting, since smaller gender dialogue facilitators used *advocacy* relatively infrequently. Student mean levels of *Engagement* were higher when facilitators used *support and listening*, versus *advocacy*. Mean levels of student *Openness* were also higher when facilitators used *listening and support* rather than *advocacy*.

Potential Implications of Facilitator Processes Findings

Prior to conducting analyses of *facilitation style*, I predicted that facilitation teams would spend around half the time listening and nodding supportively, and the other half of the time engaging in *reflection and redirection*, and to a lesser extent, *inquiry*. I predicted that *advocacy* would occur occasionally, and that *triggered reaction*s would only rarely occur. While I was correct in my predictions about *triggered reaction*s, the results indicate that facilitation teams use *reflection and redirection* more than twice as often as they use *support and listening*, and they use both *inquiry* and *advocacy* more frequently than I had predicted.

Across the 20 dialogues in this sample, facilitation teams actually used *reflection and redirection* 51% of the time, *inquiry* 21%, *support and listening* 18%, *advocacy* 9%, and *triggered reaction* 1% of the time [Figure 5:1]. This indicates that facilitation teams were playing a more vocal and assertive role than I had predicted. Facilitation teams

used a *facilitation style* involving speaking (*reflection and redirection*, *inquiry*, or *advocacy*) 81% of the time. This means both facilitators were silent around only 1/5th of the minutes that at least one of the facilitators happened to be in the picture. While these findings were somewhat different from what I expected, they are not negative, since they indicate that facilitators, on the whole, are basically doing what they were trained to do more than 90% of the time (i.e., they spend less than 10% of the time *advocating*, and showing *triggered reactions*).

The primary difference in *facilitation style* between gender and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators appears to occur in the frequency of *advocacy*. Even with respect to *advocacy,* both gender dialogue and race/ethnicity dialogue facilitators are *advocating* a relatively small percentage of the time, again indicating more practical similarities than differences in approaches to facilitation.

Even though facilitator *advocacy* occurs relatively infrequently, it appears to have a dampening effect on both student *Engagement* and student *Openness,* and contribute to higher levels of student *Anxiety.* On the positive side, student mean levels of *Engagement* were higher when facilitators used *support and listening*, versus *advocacy*. Mean levels of student *Openness* were also higher when facilitators used *support and listening* rather than *advocacy*. Student mean levels of *Anxiety* were lower when facilitators used either: i) *reflection and redirection*, or ii) *support and listening*[2]*,* relative to when they used *advocacy*.

The negative (dampening) effect of facilitator *advocacy* on student *Engagement* does not appear to have been isolated to gender or race/ethnicity dialogues, or to smaller or larger dialogues [Figure 5:15]. The negative effect of facilitator *advocacy* on student *Openness*, though, appears to have been isolated to smaller dialogues [Figure 5:16]. This indicates once again, that if all of the dialogues had been larger (14 to 16 students), the effect of facilitator *advocacy* on student *Openness* may have disappeared.

[2] The contrasting predictive influence of *advocacy* versus *support and listening* (but not *reflection and redirection)* on student *Anxiety* was isolated to smaller gender dialogues. This was an interesting finding, since smaller gender dialogue facilitators used *advocacy* relatively infrequently.

Qualitative Examples Illustrating Quantitative Video-Data Findings

Following is a qualitative example of an incident when higher levels of student *Anxiety* co-occurred with facilitator *advocacy*. This example spans a three minute period during a race/ethnicity dialogue *Fishbowl Activity* (during **video session two**). During this part of the activity, all of the white students sat within an inner circle and talked, while all the minority students sat listening in an outer circle. Note, from the descriptions of participant body language (*described in italics*), all the participants that appeared in the inner circle of white students during this incident were engaged and attentive, and exhibited moderate to high levels of *Anxiety* both before and after the facilitator engaged in *advocacy*.

Minute 5 of Fishbowl Activity

[1] Student-Agent (white female): (*She seems unsure of herself, and uses hand gestures to illustrate the points she is making. She looks often at the facilitator as she speaks, but also makes some eye contact with other students*). But I think that, like, everybody should feel some kind of responsibility, like, I mean, this sounds really, really cheesy but if something is *wrong*, everyone should feel some kind of responsibility to make it better. I think that we as the majority and the dominant race, like, we probably have more, like, opportunity to do that. I think in that way, we should feel responsible, but, I don't think we should feel directly responsible for some racism that, you know, some white person did in the past, so . . .

[2] Student-Agent (white male): (*At points, he rolls his eyes while [1] speaks. He interrupts her to speak, and his tone is mildly hostile.*) I don't agree with that. Why, just because I'm born a certain way does that mean I'm responsible for certain issues?

[1] Student-Agent (white female): No, I'm not saying just because you are born a certain way. I'm saying this for every single person – you're white, you're black,

you're Asian, it doesn't matter, you know. If you see something bad it's like, as a human being, you should feel responsible for doing something better.

[3] Student-Agent (white male): (*He uses hand gestures to illustrate his points, while leaning forward to speak, directing his attention toward [1]*) I agree with what you are saying. If there is an injustice, you should try to right it.

[1] Student-Agent (white female): Right.

Minute 6 of Fishbowl Activity

[3] Student-Agent (white male): (*His gestures become more dramatic, and his demeanor more passionate and tense as he continues speaking, while continuing to lean forward*) But I think what [2] is saying, and what *I'm* saying at least is, is that you shouldn't feel responsible to right a *particular* injustice over a different injustice, like, that's . . . there are, there are so many things wrong with the world, and there are millions of things I would like to do to right that, and fix that, and I would love to do that, and I *will* do that, but it's not my responsibility to fix this *particular* injustice, because I was born white. (*He says this, while narrowing his eyes, looking at [1], while another white woman sitting beside him nods at him, seemingly in agreement*). You know, that to me, seems just as, just as wrong as racism in general. Actually, to me, that is a perfect manifestation of prejudice and racism. (*He emphasizes his words by hammering lightly on the desk with the side of his hand, like he was doing karate chops*). You are *white*, you *should* do *this*. You are *X*, you should do *Y*! (*He then raises his hands up, as if posing a question to others*). You know?

[F] Facilitator-Agent (white male): (*He leans his head slightly in one hand, and appears to be repressing a slight smile. At times, he looks incredulous as he speaks, and raises his eyebrows at [3].)* Do you feel like you have more agency, as a white person, to be able to do things like that?

[3] Student-Agent (white male): (*He is out of the* picture) What do you mean?

[F] Facilitator-Agent (white male): Like, you just have more opportunities. You have more . . . (*He trails off, and half shakes his head, seemingly flustered*).

Minute 7 of Fishbowl Activity

[F] Facilitator-Agent (white male): (*He moves the hand he was leaning on into the air, grasping to illustrate his point*) agency, like more of an ability . . .

[3] Student-Agent (white male): (*He seems tense and defensive. He makes quotation marks in the air, and uses other dramatic hand gestures to illustrate his* points.) Like just because I'm "*up top*" I should have to fix these things *below* me?

[F] Facilitator-Agent (white male): Well, not so much are you able to, but do you feel you have the ability to, more so than somebody else, being a white male?

[3] Student-Agent (white male): No, I mean . . . no. (*He laughs a little, nervously, then continues to use hand gestures to illustrate his points*). I don't think I can do more for this than, again, I'm going to use an often used example. I can't further this cause more than Martin Luther King furthered the cause. You know? Like, just because he was *black* doesn't mean he . . . just because I'm *white* doesn't mean if I were to do what he did I'd be better at it. I couldn't, I couldn't do the job as well as him *because* I'm white. (*He once again emphasizes his words by hammering lightly on the desk with the side of his hand*). You know I . . I . . . I . . . people can't identify with me. If I was a . . . a gay person, and someone who *wasn't* gay was like, "Alright, we're going to *do* this!" (*He holds up his arm in the air, in a fighting pose)* and then someone who *was* gay said, "We're going to do this!" I'd obviously side with the gay person because that's where they're coming from, you know?

In this example, anxiety levels begin to rise when one student-**agent** [2] disagrees with another student-**agent** [1], then yet another student-**agent** [3] provides counter-arguments to the first speaker's [1] points. The facilitator-**agent** [F] seems flustered, and incredulous, as he asks questions and makes points that sound very similar to the arguments made by the first speaker [1], thereby putting the student who was vigorously providing counter-arguments to that perspective [3] on the defensive. This appears to make the latter student-**agent** [3] even more anxious as he continues to defend his perspective with additional arguments.

This qualitative example illustrates how levels of student *Anxiety* may already be on the rise due to clashes of different perspectives in a dialogue, before a facilitator chooses to respond by *advocating* for one of those perspectives. In this three minute example, one student's *Anxiety* levels [3] reached peak levels after the facilitator *advocated* for a position counter to the one he was just making arguments to support. Thus, while higher levels of student *Anxiety* were occurring before the facilitator chose to respond by *advocating* a particular perspective in an already polarized debate, his *advocacy* appeared to provoke even more student *Anxiety*.

The next qualitative example comes from **video session three** of a gender dialogue, during minute five of the *Dialogue about the Dialogue*. This example illustrates an incident when the facilitation team was using the facilitation style of *listening and support*, and students showed moderate to high levels of *Engagement* and *Openness.* Previous to this minute, one female student had stated that some kinds of pornography may contribute to negative views of women, but she did not believe all pornography should be made illegal for that reason. Another female student (student 2 from below) made a comment about the fact that pornography can be addicting for some individuals, and interfere with their relationships, but if it's a problem, she said, they could just stop looking at pornography. She builds on, and qualifies that point, in the following minute.

Minute five of *Dialogue about the Dialogue*

[1] Student-Target (woman of color): (*She appears to be comfortably leaning back into her chair, with one leg extended out and tilted out. She intermittently uses some casual hand gestures with her right hand as she speaks, and at other times, rests her right hand on her leg.)* Anybody who is addicted to anything, they didn't expect when they first got into it that they would become addicted to it when they were coming into it. It just happens like that. Over time it just starts, and your addiction builds up and up, and over time, it gets so strong, it's hard to get back from it, but I think, addiction is probably . . . it's like, nobody wants to be addicted to something like pornography. It's like, something like that just happens. That's all I have to say.

[*The camera swivels to the next speaker, who is sitting near the two facilitators. Both facilitators maintain eye contact with her, and listen attentively as she speaks.]*

[2] Student-Target (white woman): (*She sits with her legs crossed, and her canvas briefcase on her lap. She uses both of her hands to gesture and illustrate her points.)* My point was, making it . . . like for people who get addicted to it, they should not just make it illegal just for those people. Just because there are people getting addicted to it doesn't mean we should make the whole deal illegal now. That's all I was saying. I'm not saying it doesn't happen.

[3] Student-Agent (white male, out of picture): It's just like alcohol or tobacco – it depends on how it's used . . . (*his voice trails off*).

[*At this point, it appears that both of the facilitators notice the next speaker trying to speak – perhaps she is raising her hand, but it is hard to tell, since she is out of the picture. The male facilitator points a finger toward her, while the female facilitator simultaneously points her pen at her. Both facilitators casually*

gesture in this way, indicating that they are encouraging her to speak next, and perhaps also indicating that others should "clear the floor" for her to speak.]

[4] Student-Agent (woman of color, different than the woman of color who first spoke during this minute): (*Her face is animated as she speaks, and at various times, she shrugs her shoulders, smiles, and slightly gestures with her right hand to animate her points).* Alright, I think it would be really hard to regulate, because if you want it, you can get it. They try to regulate illegal downloading of music. We still do it. The point is, and porn is not like . . . I think a lot of people think of the industry of porn, but people can upload whatever movies they want – it can be pornography they made in their basement, so . . .

In the above example, four different students speak during a one minute period. Some of those students display moderate to high levels of *Engagement* and *Openness* (e.g., student 1). By listening, and being supportive of students self-initiating engagement in the dialogue, the facilitators may be helping to maintain, and perhaps even encourage, these moderate to high levels of *Engagement* and *Openness.*

The next qualitative example from a gender dialogue, session one *Dialogue about the Dialogue* illustrates how a facilitator effectively used inquiry to move a productive dialogue forward. Note, from the descriptions of participant body language, that all the participants that appeared during this minute were engaged, and relatively relaxed (e.g., showing low to normal levels of fidgeting). These moderate to high levels of student *Engagement*, and low to moderate levels of student *Anxiety*, continued to be observed in the minutes that followed this facilitator's use of inquiry.

Minute 3 of Dialogue about the Dialogue

[1] Student-Agent (man of color): *[Speaker is relaxed in his chair. He uses his hands to gesture while speaking. His cadence changes at times, but he appears comfortable, not agitated. Sometimes he puts his hand to his head, his fingers blocking his mouth.]* I think what she just said goes with the "Who Am I?"

reading, where you don't really identify or think about what you dominate. For a rich person to think about themselves as rich, that doesn't happen but for someone who doesn't have that [wealth] you're always striving to get more, be better. That's one thing I liked about "Who Am I?"—it's just that we don't think – I mean as a man I don't think about being a woman. I don't have to deal with stereotypes or any predisposed notions about "women can't do this, women can't do that." But I think about what I'm limited to as someone in a middle class situation.

[2] Student-Target (woman of color): *[She sits relaxed in her chair, swinging her legs which are crossed at the ankle. She moves her hair back and puts her hands in her lap. She turns to the speaker, to listen to him. She nods in agreement with the speaker multiple times. She laughs at the speaker's joke that he is not a woman].*

[3] Student-Agent (man of color): *[He sits relaxed, shoulders slouched a bit. He fidgets somewhat, moving his feet, stroking his hair, putting his hand to his head. He turns his gaze to the speaker, and when he is not looking at the speaker directly he looks at him almost sideways while listening to him.]*

[4] Student-Target (woman of color): *[She sits relaxed, her legs crossed. She smiles at the speaker's joke that he is not a woman. She watches the speaker, listening. She adjusts her posture after the joke, resting her cheek against her hand, which is propped by her elbow on the desktop.]*

[F] Facilitator-Agent (man of color): *[Relaxed, sitting forward. He gestures with his hands underneath the desk. His speaking cadence is neutral, very calm.]* So, who decides which identities are more salient for us at different times? Who makes those decisions about our identities? What messages did you receive and who did you receive them from?

In this example, the speaker **(student-agent) [1]** addressed comments one of his classmate had made earlier about herself, about how she thought of herself as relatively ignorant because she had lived a "sheltered" and (probably upper/upper-middle class) lifestyle. The speaker connects this woman's revelation, and her self-perceived "ignorance" of certain things in her environment due to her socioeconomic status, to their class reading. He states that those who "dominate" (i.e., men, and individuals of higher socioeconomic status) do not have to confront their social identities as often, and therefore, these identities are less salient to them relative to "**target**" groups (i.e., women, and the poor). He openly admits that because he is a man, he does not have to think about all the disadvantages women have relative to him, and though he does not say it in the following terms, he seems to imply that he does not always realize his male privilege. Instead, because he is middle class, he thinks about all the advantages he could have if only he had more wealth, because his middle-class identity is more salient to him than his gender identity.

This speaker's **(student-agent) [1]** comments reveal a high degree of self-reflection and *Openness*. He used inquiry to explore both commonalities and differences between himself (as an **agent**), other dialogue participants, and **targets**, more generally. He did this by connecting with another student's personal story about class ignorance, and explaining his own ignorance as a man (**agent**) (Spalding, 2009). He also allowed for critical analysis of ignorance (or assumptions made by "dominant" groups) by articulating that dominant members are not as aware of their identities as members of **target** groups are. It is significant too, that the facilitator is able to ask a very thoughtful question about the origin of these assumptions for both dominant and minority/target members. The student speaker's Inquiry is used by the facilitator as a springboard into further analysis of salience of identities for both dominant and target/minority members (Spalding, 2009). Anecdotally, the other video coders and I observed higher levels of student *Openness* and *Inquiry*, as in this example, in dialogues in which the facilitators seemed particularly skilled at modeling *inquiry.*

Implications for Future Intergroup Dialogue Research and Facilitator Training

Questions of how facilitator styles were related to student behaviors is of great significance in intergroup dialogue. We learned that *facilitator advocacy*, which is higher in race/ethnicity than gender dialogues, was associated with higher levels of student *Anxiety*. During facilitator training, facilitators are discouraged from ever engaging in the kind of behavior and communication processes defined in this study as *facilitator advocacy* (e.g., polarizing an issue, interrupting participants – see full scale in Appendix I). Findings from this study could be presented during future facilitation training to help drive home the message to facilitators that *advocacy* is likely to have a negative effect on participant engagement*,* and make participants feel uncomfortable. Facilitator *advocacy* and debate also model the kinds of behaviors and communication processes the founders of intergroup dialogue were hoping to teach participants alternatives to.

We also learned that both *facilitator advocacy* and *facilitator triggered reactions* were associated with higher levels of *Anxiety* observed among students, and when facilitators displayed *advocacy*, student *Engagement* was lower as well. In contrast, when facilitators used *reflection and redirection* and *listening and support,* lower levels of *Anxiety* were observed among the students. *Facilitator listening and support* was also associated with higher levels of student *Engagement* and *Openness*.

Facilitator *triggered reactions* were also associated with higher mean levels of student *Anxiety*. *Triggered reactions* may be harder to avoid engaging in than *advocacy*, since *triggered reactions* usually represent "instinctive" non-verbal reactions to participant comments. A high bar is set for facilitators, since they are expected to remain neutral at all times. This does not mean they are not expected to intervene, when a debate gets out of hand, or to address a comment that they, and likely others as well, found to be obnoxious or offensive. They are expected to address offensive behaviors and comments with an even hand, though, and without taking sides on an issue. While this study cannot determine the direction of causation, a likely implication

of findings on facilitator *triggered reactions* is that even brief, visible reactions on the part of facilitators can have equally visible effects on signals of rising student agitation and *Anxiety.*

Fortunately, the findings from this study indicate that *triggered reactions* only rarely occurred, and *advocacy* was used less than 10% of the time. This means that facilitators in both the gender and race/ethnicity dialogues spent more than 90% of the time: listening to participants, nodding supportively, neutrally reflecting on participant comments, redirected the flow of conversation or transitioning to a new activity, and modeling the dialogical method by using inquiry.

The one puzzling connection was between *facilitator inquiry* and higher levels of student *Anxiety*. It is certainly possible that the kind of inquiry that facilitators displayed might have been experienced by students as the kind of questioning that produces higher levels of *Anxiety*. However, apart from this one finding, these associations are very clear. The more facilitators use *reflection and redirection*, and *listening and support*, the more positive student involvement is in the dialogues. Together these two sets of facilitator behaviors comprise 69% of all minutes that were coded. Thus, the lion's share of facilitation is associated with positive learning processes. These two sets of facilitator behaviors were displayed fairly comparably in race and gender dialogues (the significant difference in rates between these two sets of facilitators in their use reflection & redirection represented only a 3% difference). That is good news for the effectiveness of training of facilitators for both types of dialogues.

In future studies, I hope to explore relationships between student processes and facilitation processes further, and develop a formal set of recommendations for facilitator trainers based on findings from these explorations.

Implications for Community Organizing and Social Work Practice

Intergroup dialogue is increasingly being used on an international scale to address intergroup conflict, promote long-term social change, and help communities respond to social and political changes. This trend is evidenced by the development of the United Nations Development Programme's (UNDP, 2008) Democratic Dialogue Project, as well as by the growing use of intergroup dialogue in community, academic, and public education settings (Dessel, Rogge, & Garlington, 2006).

Findings from this study may be applied in a few ways to community organizing work involving intergroup dialogues. First, we found that intergroup dialogue dynamics are likely to be more intense, and anxiety provoking for participants, when race/ethnicity issues are the primary focus. Rates of both *facilitator advocacy* and *triggered reactions* also tend to be higher in race/ethnicity dialogues, which may in turn, contribute to participants feeling more anxious, and less open and engaged. Community organizers may apply these findings by having higher standards in mind when selecting and training intergroup dialogue facilitators who will be facilitating dialogue on race/ethnicity issues. For example, they could only select facilitators for these positions that demonstrate a high level of proficiency – under testing conditions – in addressing racially-charged statements without displaying a *triggered reaction* and/or *advocating* a particular position. Alternatively, or in addition, community organizers could provide additional training to facilitators of race/ethnicity dialogues focusing specifically on how to use *listening and support*, and *reflection and redirection*, even when they disagree with, or feel personally triggered by participant comments.

An intergroup dialogue facilitator's role is to draw out and reflect different perspectives, rather than to advocate for their own. This requires a certain level of positive engagement and participation from a number of diverse dialogue participants. Findings from this study indicate that a minimum number of diverse participants (approximately 12 to 16) may need to be recruited to ensure that a diverse range of views are voiced within a dialogue, and thus, that maximum levels of participation and

engagement may be reached. While this requires more effort on the part of community organizers, these findings may help to reassure them that their added recruitment efforts are worthwhile, and may even be an essential step toward achieving the impact they desire a dialogue to have in a community.

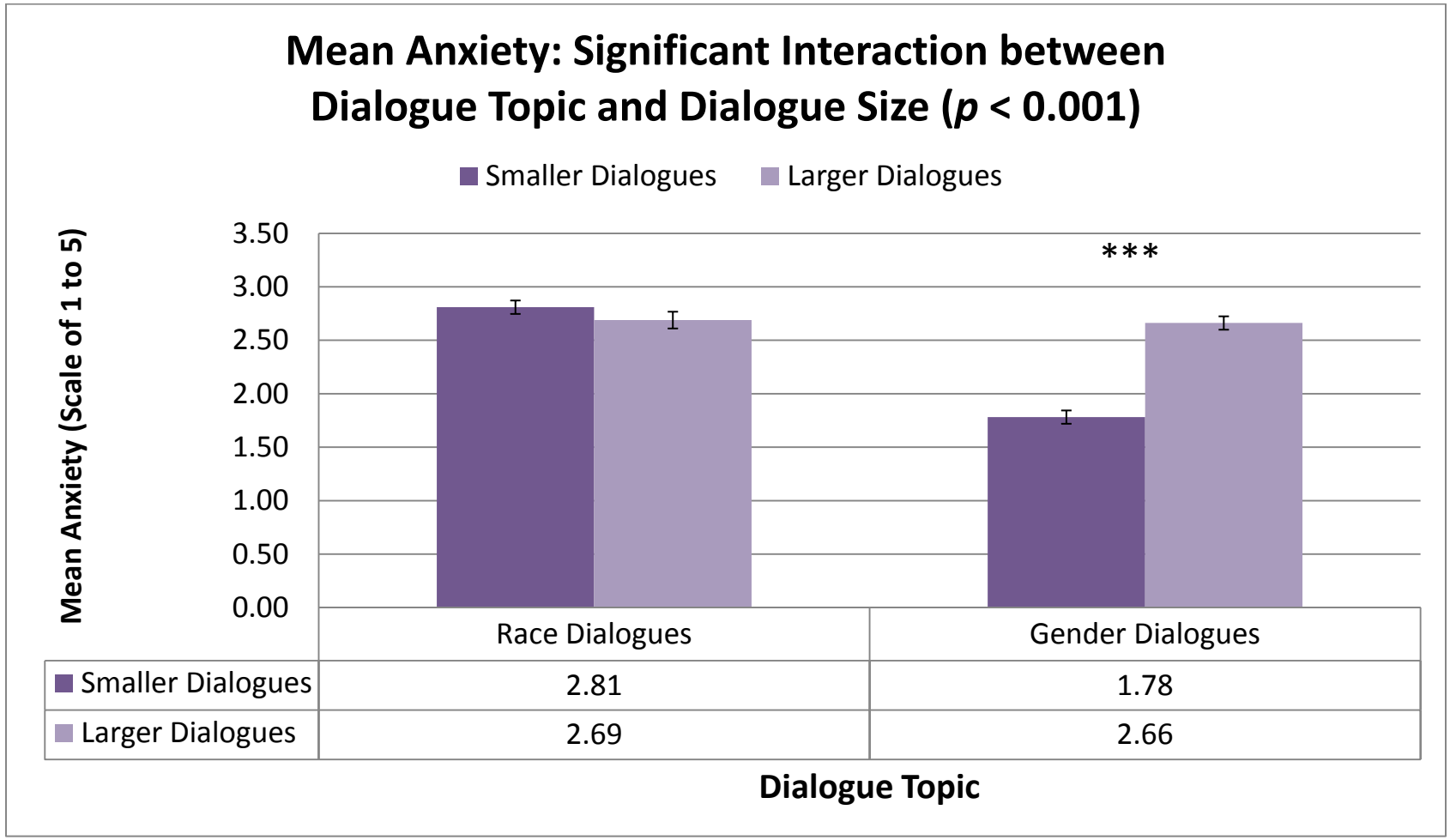
Social workers have developed a number of innovative approaches to using group work in both community and therapeutic settings (Gitterman & Salmon, 2008). Intergroup dialogue has been used as a non-therapeutic model for non-therapeutic social work with groups (Dessel, Rogge, & Garlington, 2006; Rodenborg & Huynh, 2006). For example, social workers have successfully used intergroup dialogue to increase the critical awareness of adolescents, and help them develop skills for "conflict reduction and promoting intergroup relations" (p. 82, Spencer et al., 2008). Intergroup dialogue may also be used in the classroom, to help prepare culturally competent social workers for practice and research with diverse groups (Lewis, 1995).

In all the different settings social workers use intergroup dialogue, general findings from this study regarding optimum dialogue group size (12 to 16), and approaches to facilitation that support positive engagement on the part of dialogue participants (*listening and support*, and *reflection and redirection*), may be applied. Social workers should keep in mind, though, that this study used a carefully designed curriculum; the dialogue groups were balanced by both race/ethnicity and gender; all of the facilitators were carefully selected and received extensive training; and the dialogues occurred two hours each week over an entire semester. In addition, all of the dialogue participants were undergraduate students enrolled in public colleges and universities in the United States. In classroom and community environments where facilitator training, group size, time, and/or diversity is limited (e.g., only one man available to participate in a dialogue about gender in a social work classroom), or where the participants differ in significant ways from college students, social workers may not see the same results.

Conclusion

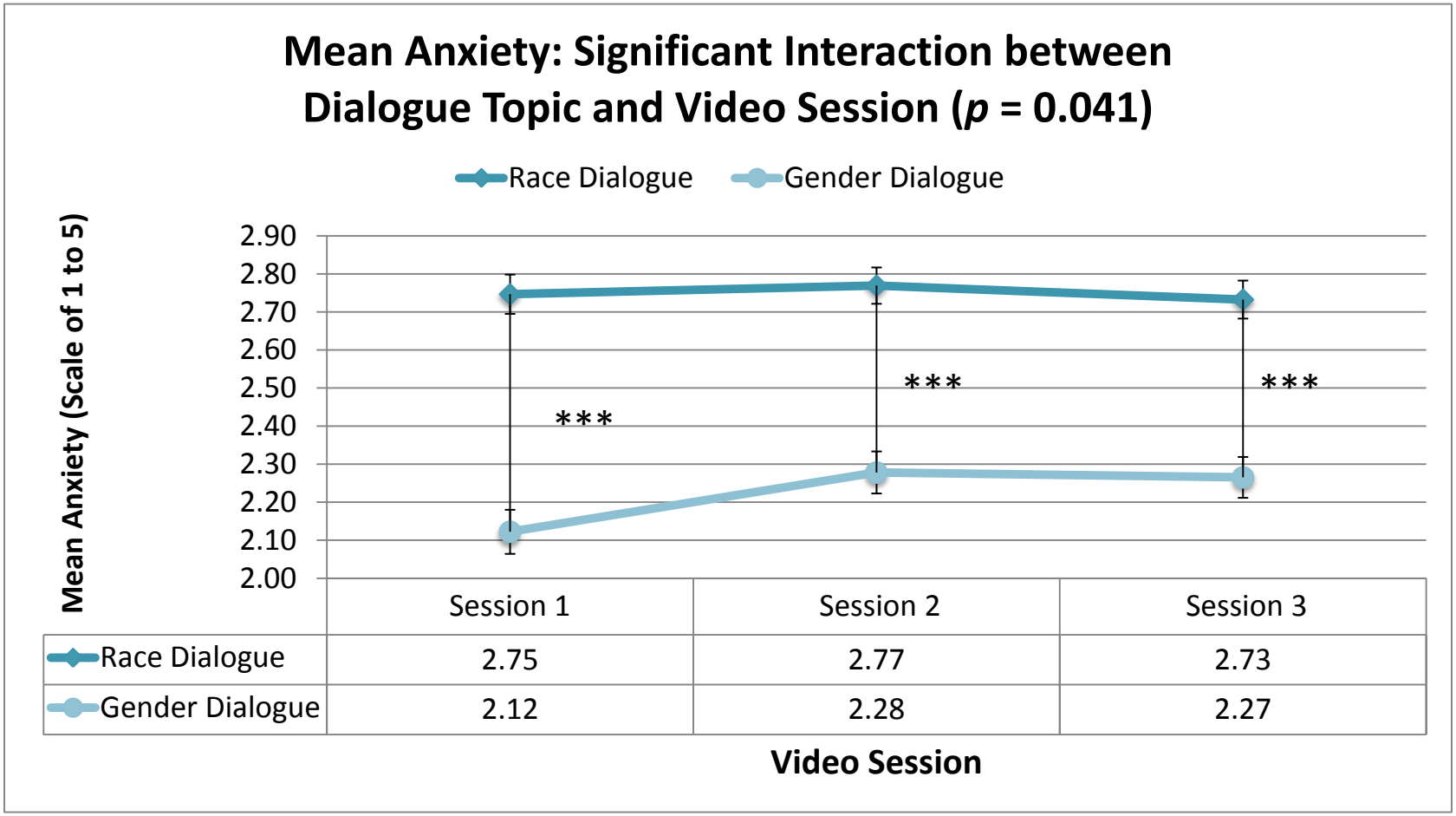
As discussed in Chapter II (Literature Review), a wide array of intergroup dialogues varying by time-frame, setting, topic, and group-composition, have resulted in positive outcomes for their participants (for a comprehensive review, see Dessel & Rogge, 2008). This study contributes to this growing literature on intergroup dialogue "best practices". Social workers and community organizers alike may draw on this growing body of literature to design intergroup dialogues that are best suited to their goals, practice setting, and participants. Future research may help to determine whether findings from this study regarding effective intergroup dialogue facilitation styles hold up when applied beyond the scope of semester-long, race/ethnicity and gender intergroup dialogue courses.

Figure 4:1 Interaction between Dialogue Topic and Dialogue Size for student Anxiety



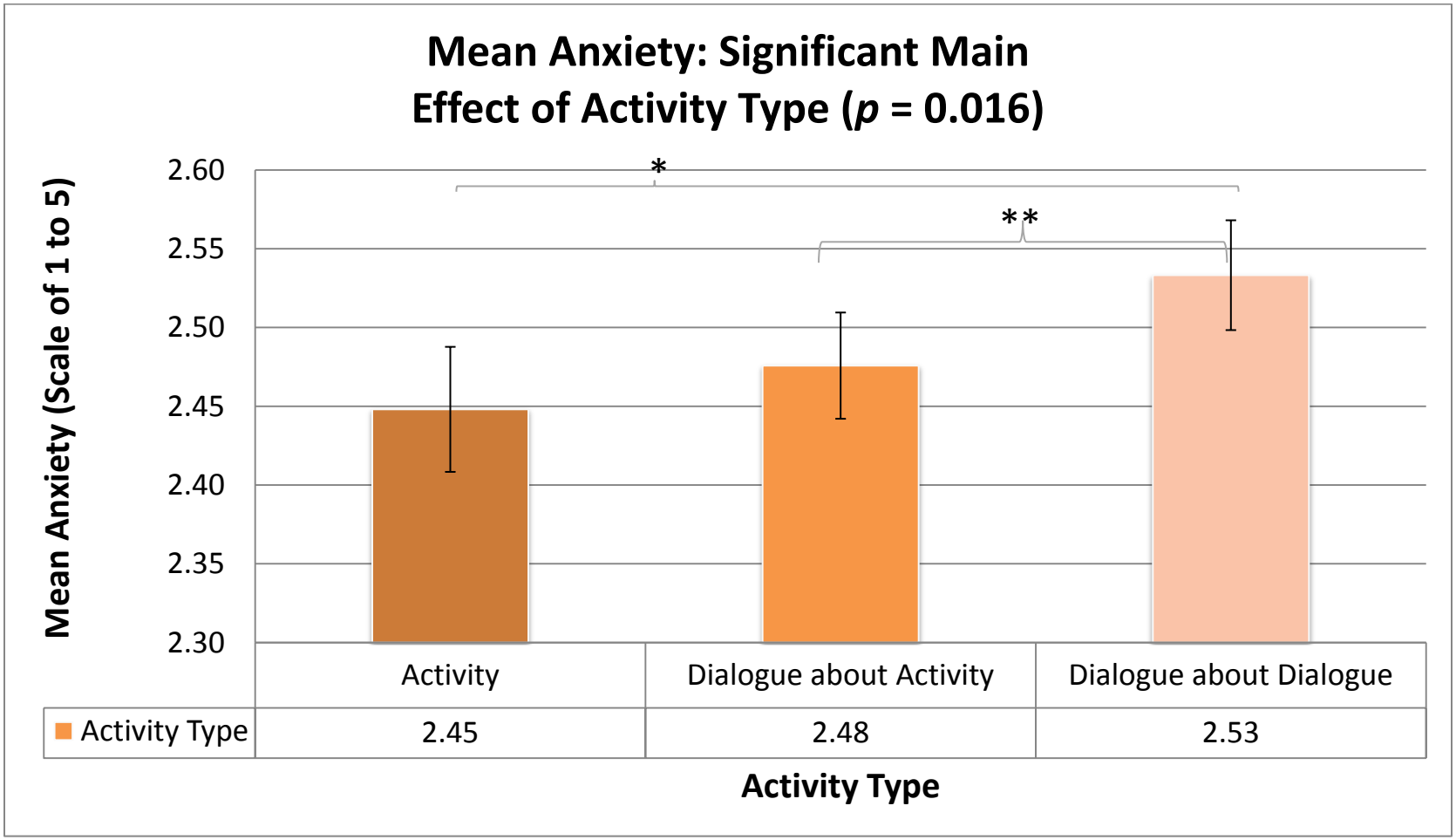
*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 4:2 Interaction between Dialogue Topic and Video Session for Anxiety



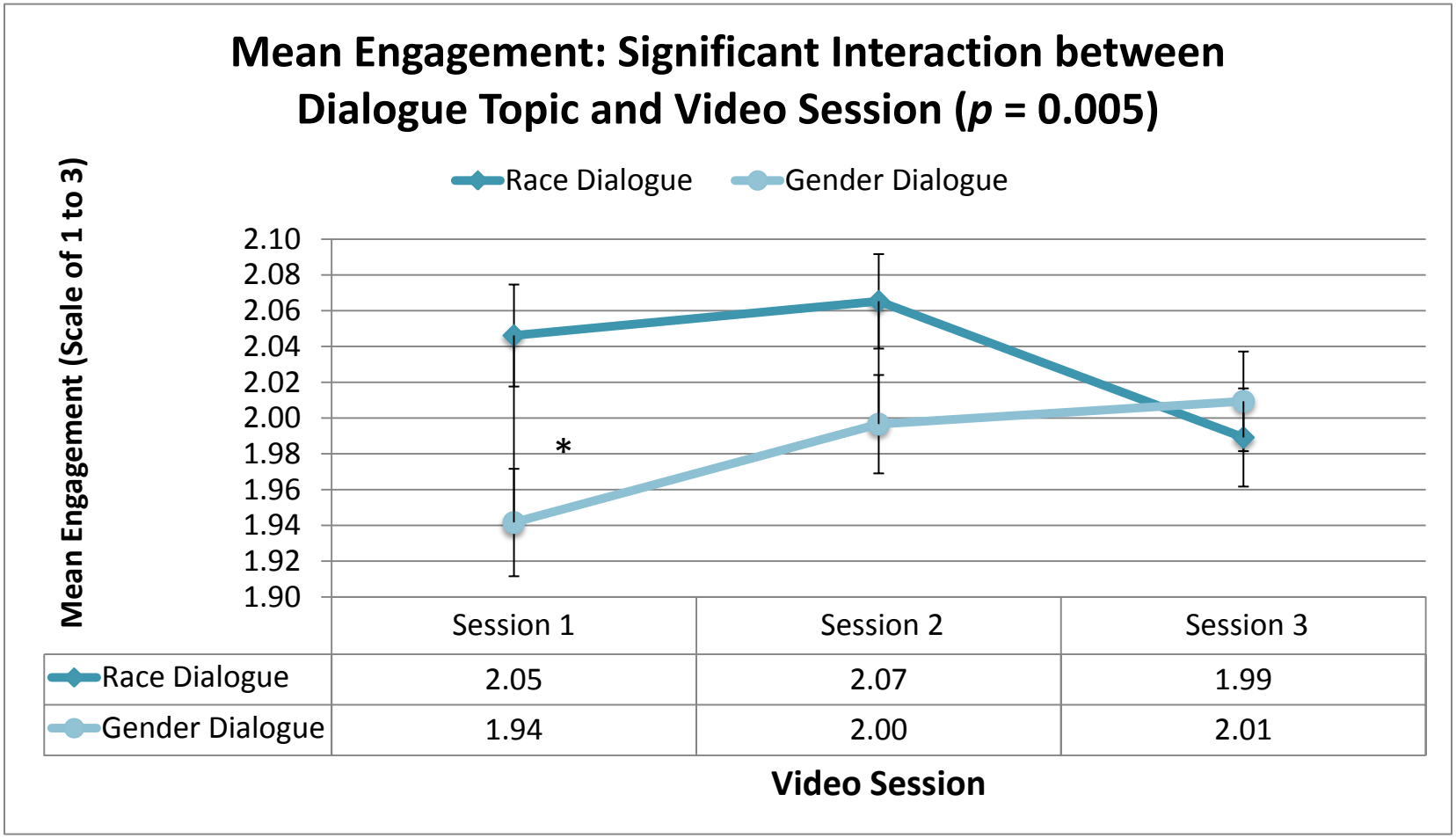
*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 4:3 Significant Main Effect of Activity Type for Anxiety



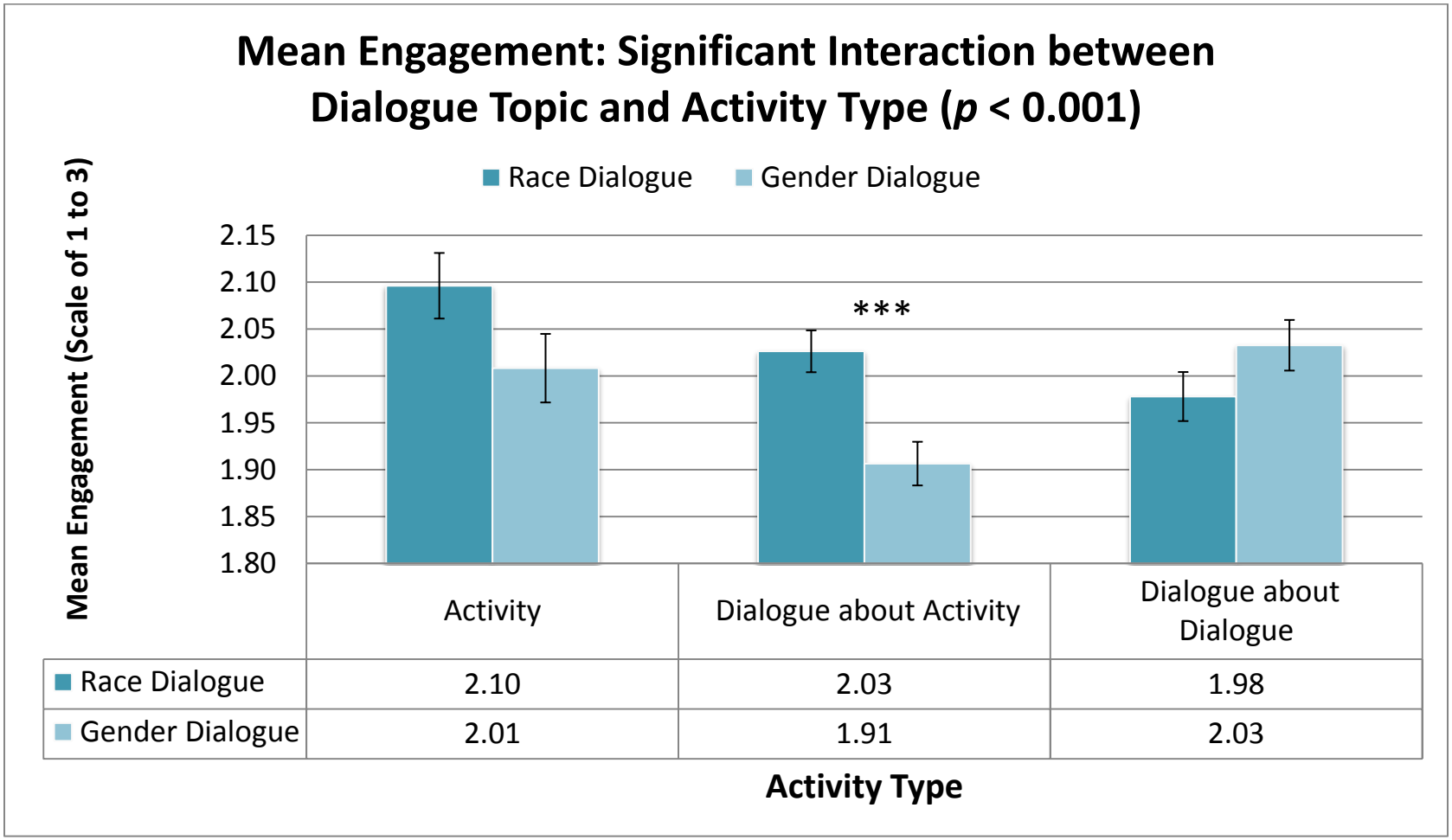
*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 4:4 Interaction between Dialogue Topic and Video Session for Engagement



*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 4:5 Interaction between Dialogue Topic and Activity Type for Engagement



*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 4:6 Interaction between Dialogue Topic, Dialogue Size, and Video Session for Openness

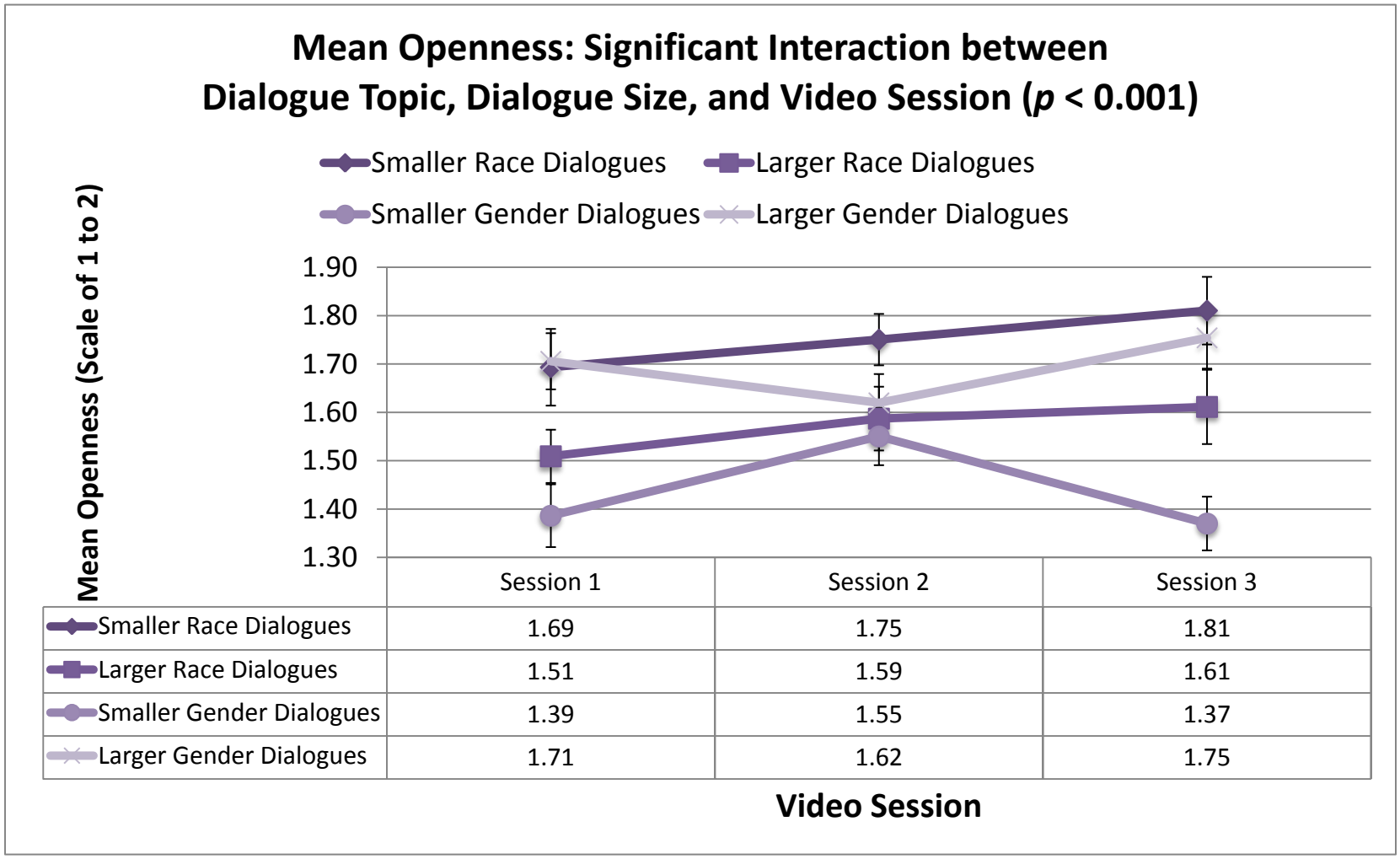
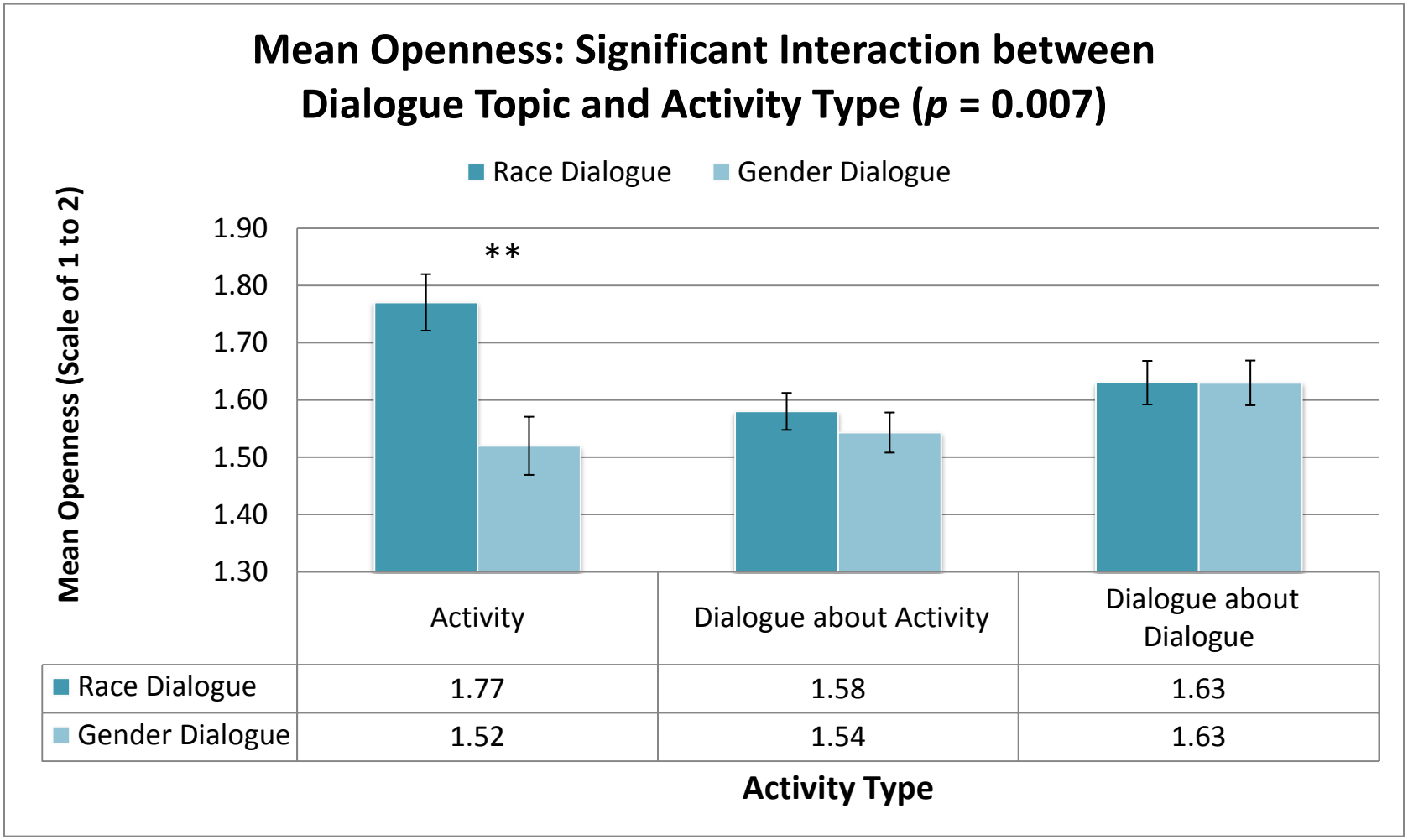
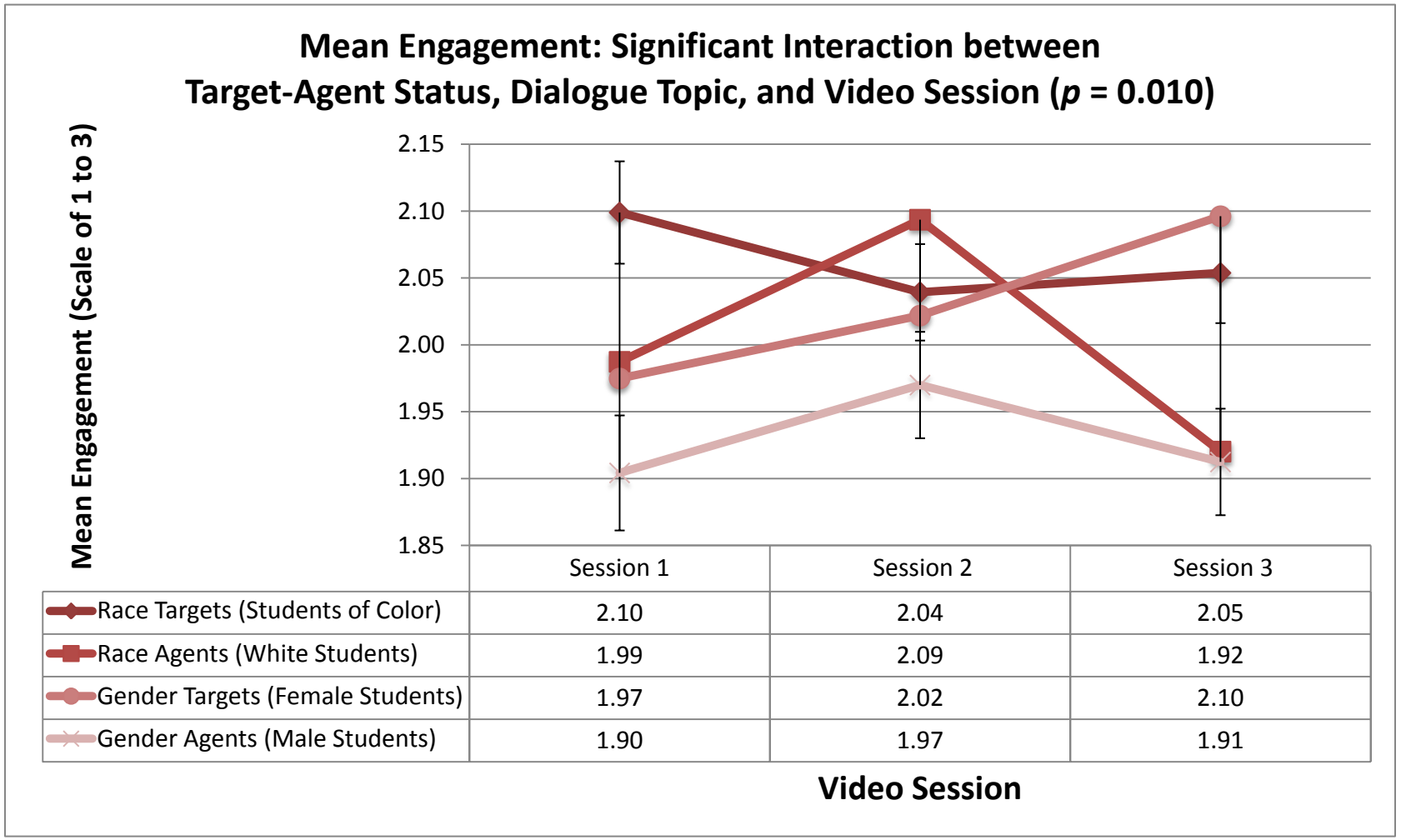


Figure 4:7 Interaction between Dialogue Topic and Activity Type for Openness



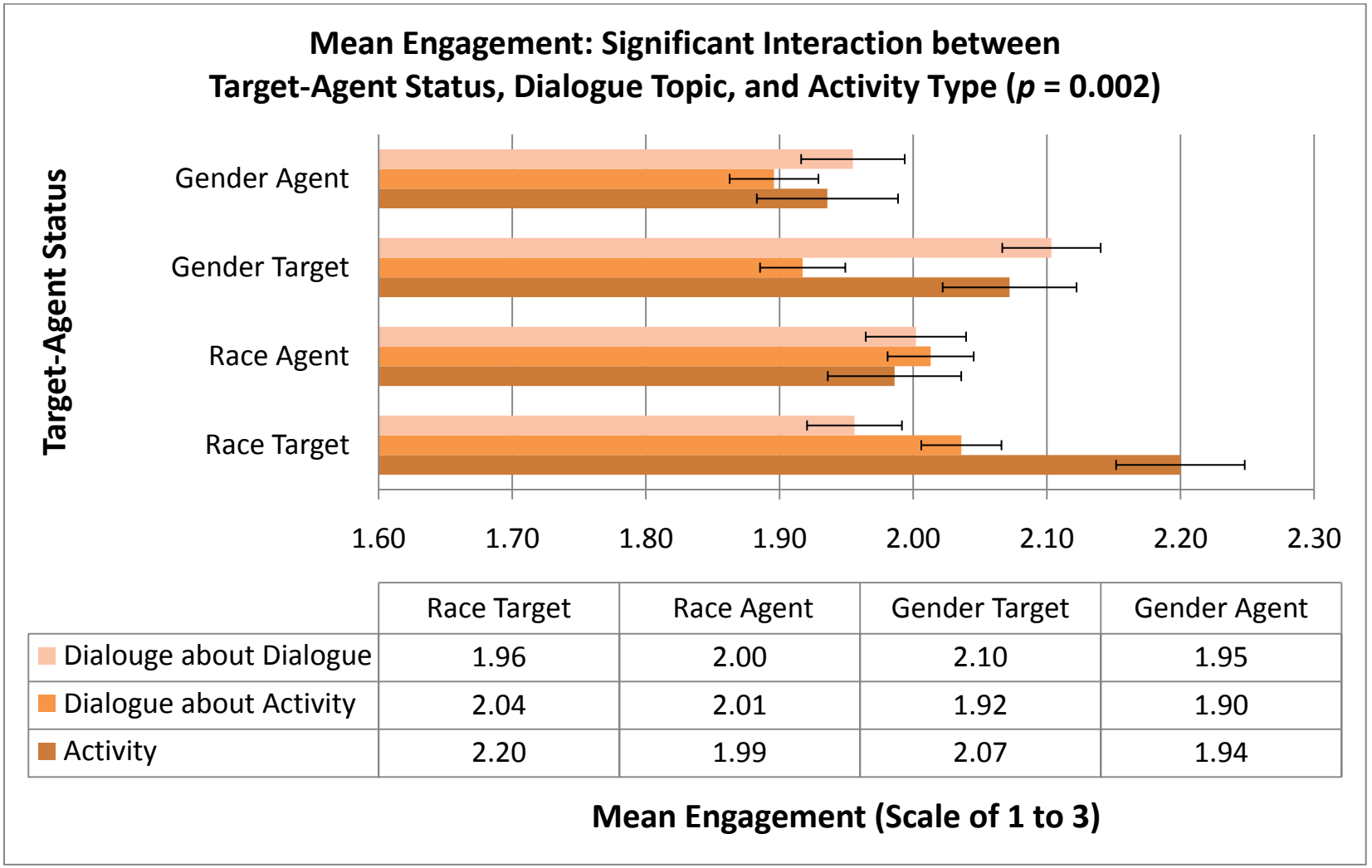
*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 4:8 Interaction between Target-Agent Status, Dialogue Topic, and Video Session for Engagement



	Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
Race Targets (Students of Color)	2.10	2.04	2.05
Race Agents (White Students)	1.99	2.09	1.92
Gender Targets (Female Students)	1.97	2.02	2.10
Gender Agents (Male Students)	1.90	1.97	1.91

Figure 4:9 Interaction between Target-Agent Status, Dialogue Topic, and Activity Type for Engagement



	Race Target	Race Agent	Gender Target	Gender Agent
Dialouge about Dialogue	1.96	2.00	2.10	1.95
Dialogue about Activity	2.04	2.01	1.92	1.90
Activity	2.20	1.99	2.07	1.94

Figure 4:10 Interaction between Target-Agent Status, Dialogue Topic, and Activity Type for Openness

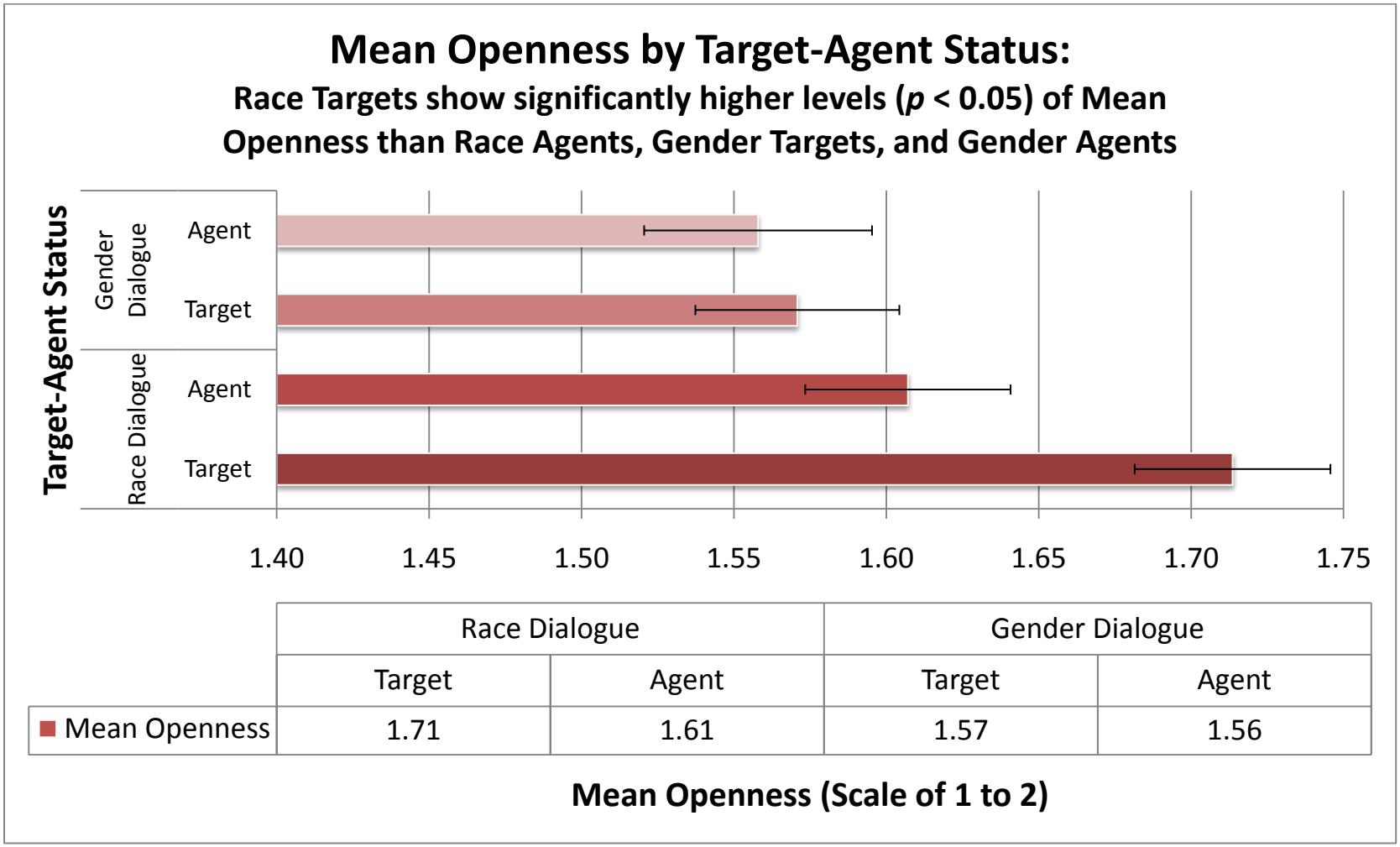


Figure 5:1 % Facilitation Style across all Dialogues

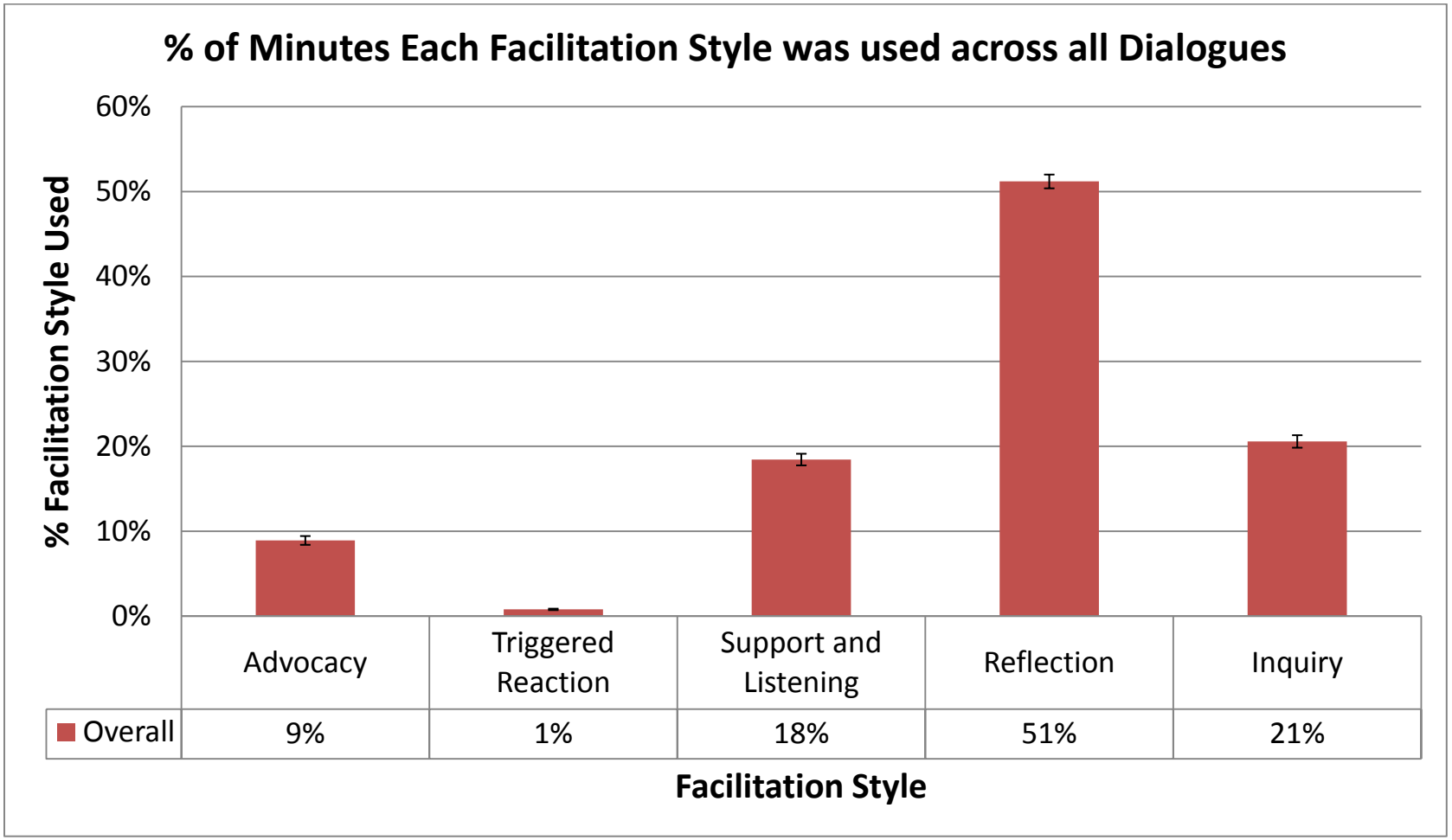
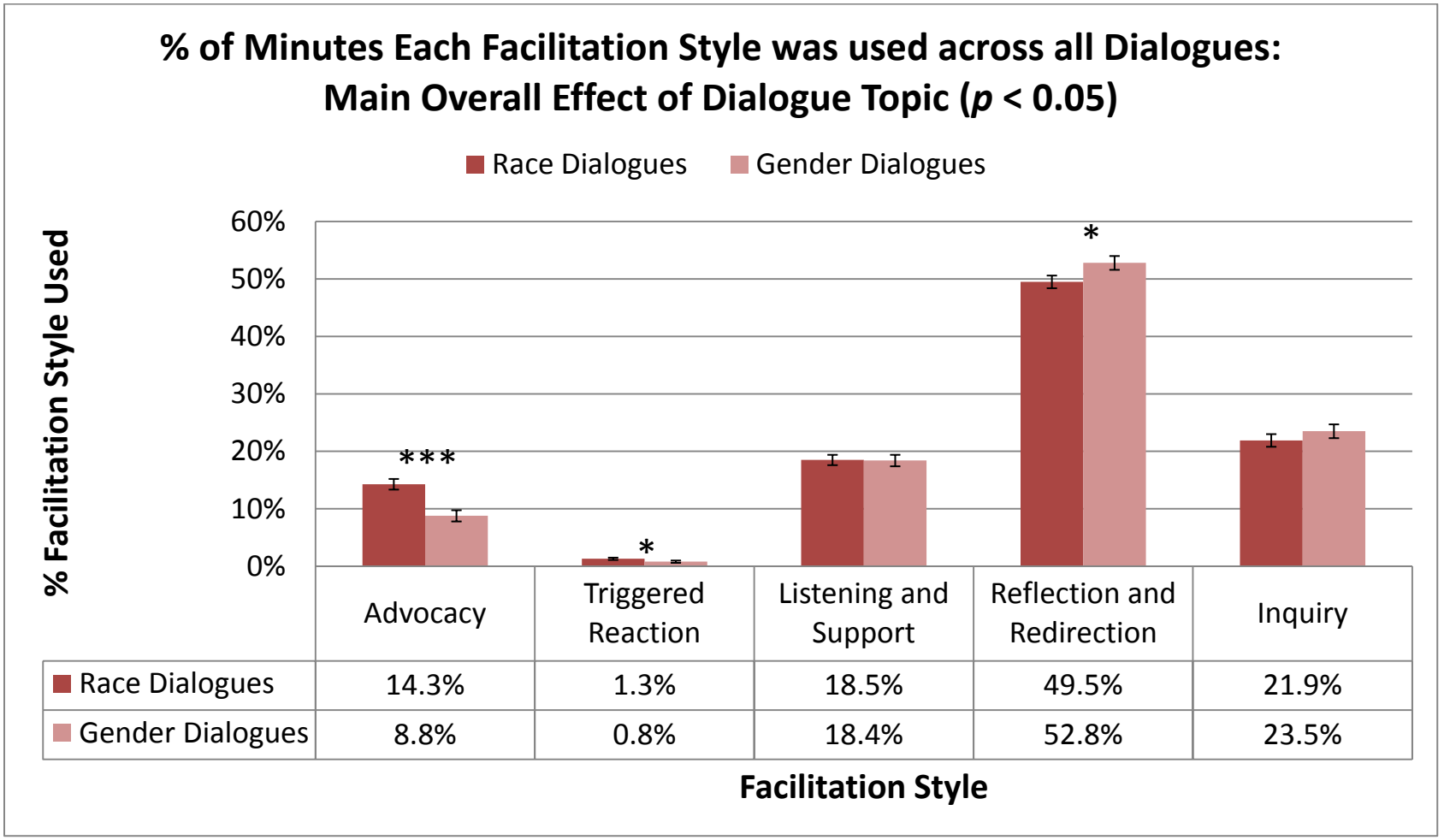
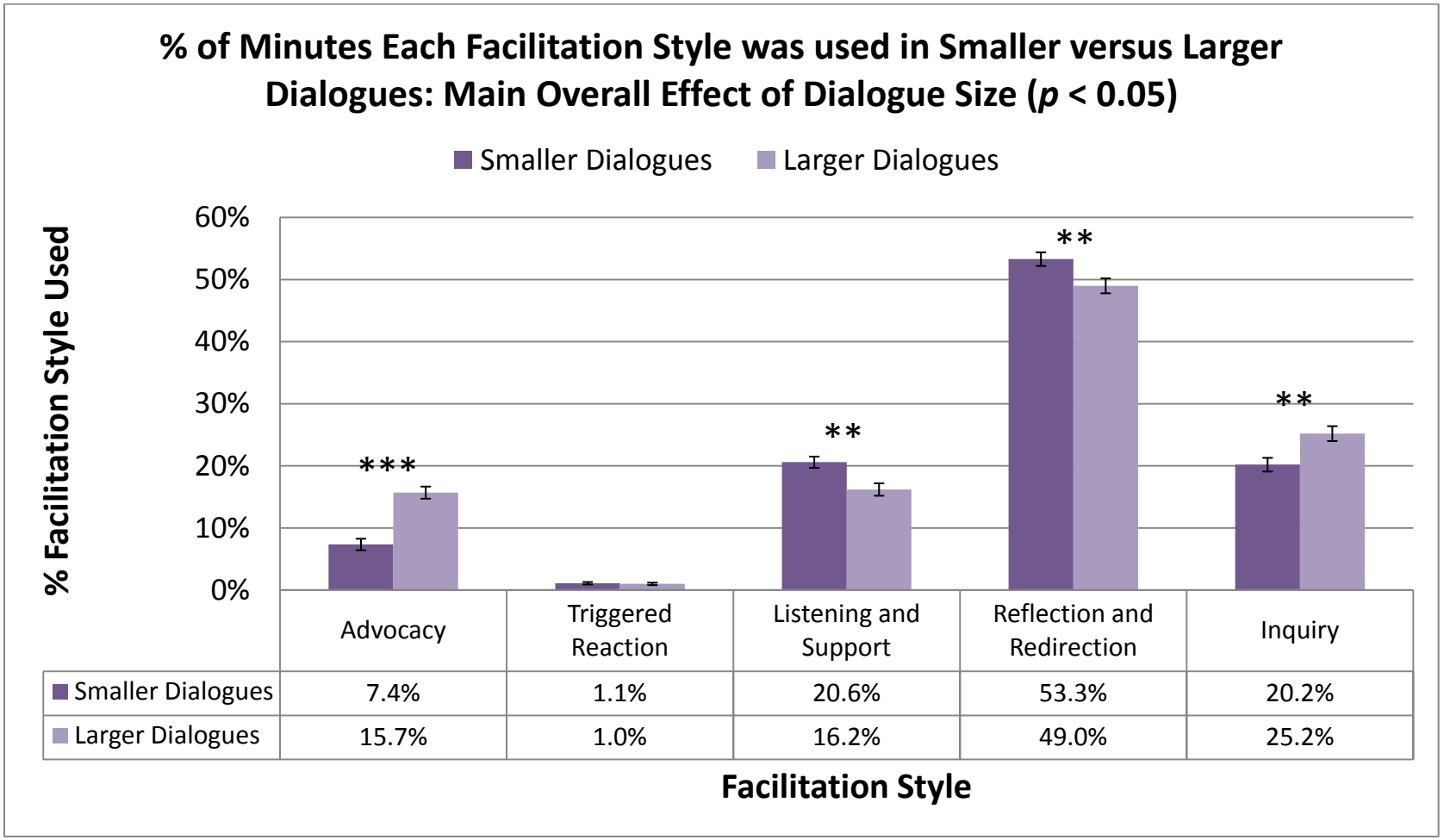


Figure 5:2 % Facilitation Style in Race and Gender Dialogues



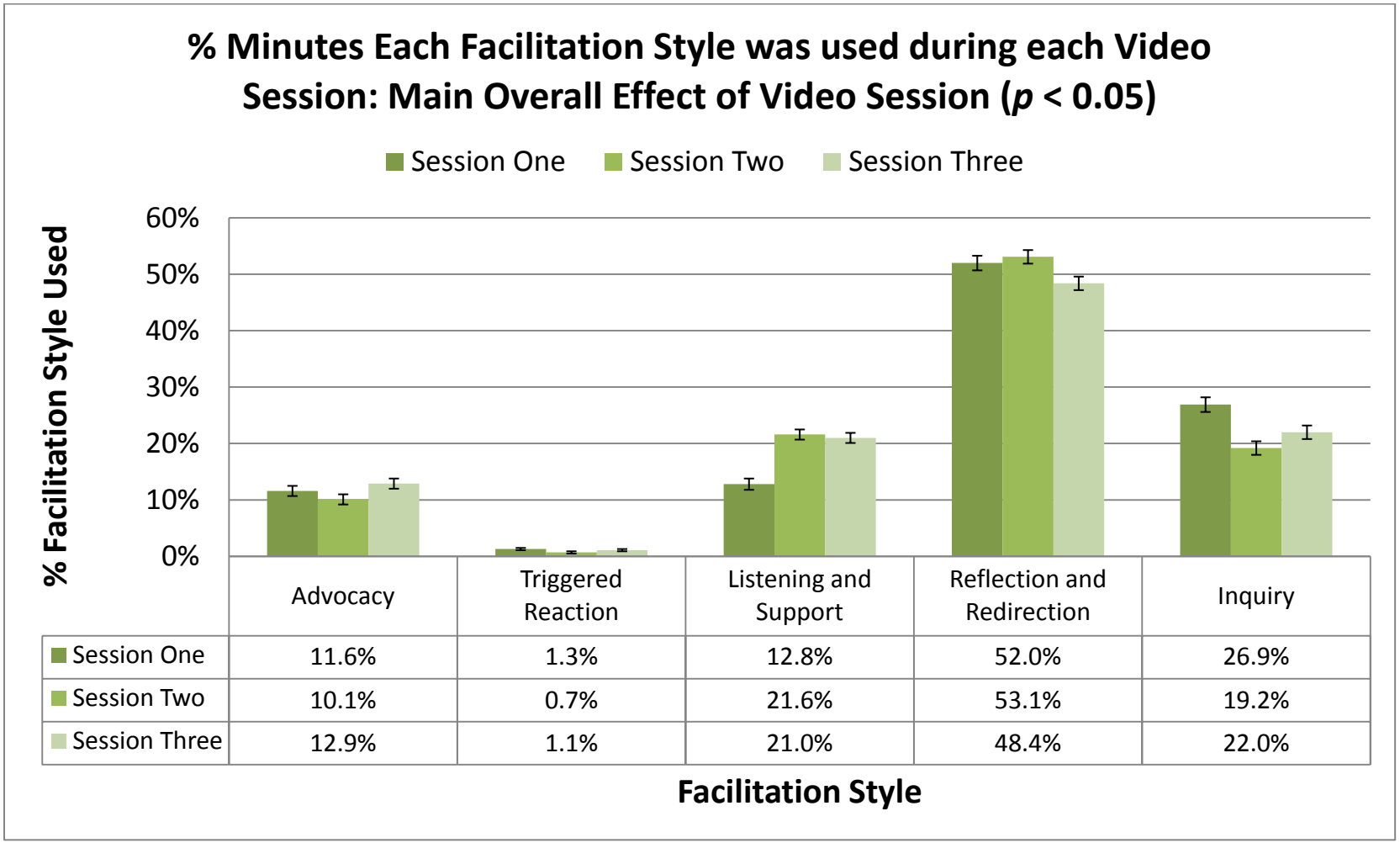
*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 5:3 % Facilitation Style in Smaller and Larger Dialogues



*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 5:4 % Facilitation Style in Video Sessions



	Advocacy	Triggered Reaction	Listening and Support	Reflection and Redirection	Inquiry
Session One	11.6%	1.3%	12.8%	52.0%	26.9%
Session Two	10.1%	0.7%	21.6%	53.1%	19.2%
Session Three	12.9%	1.1%	21.0%	48.4%	22.0%

Figure 5:5 % Facilitation Style in Activity Type

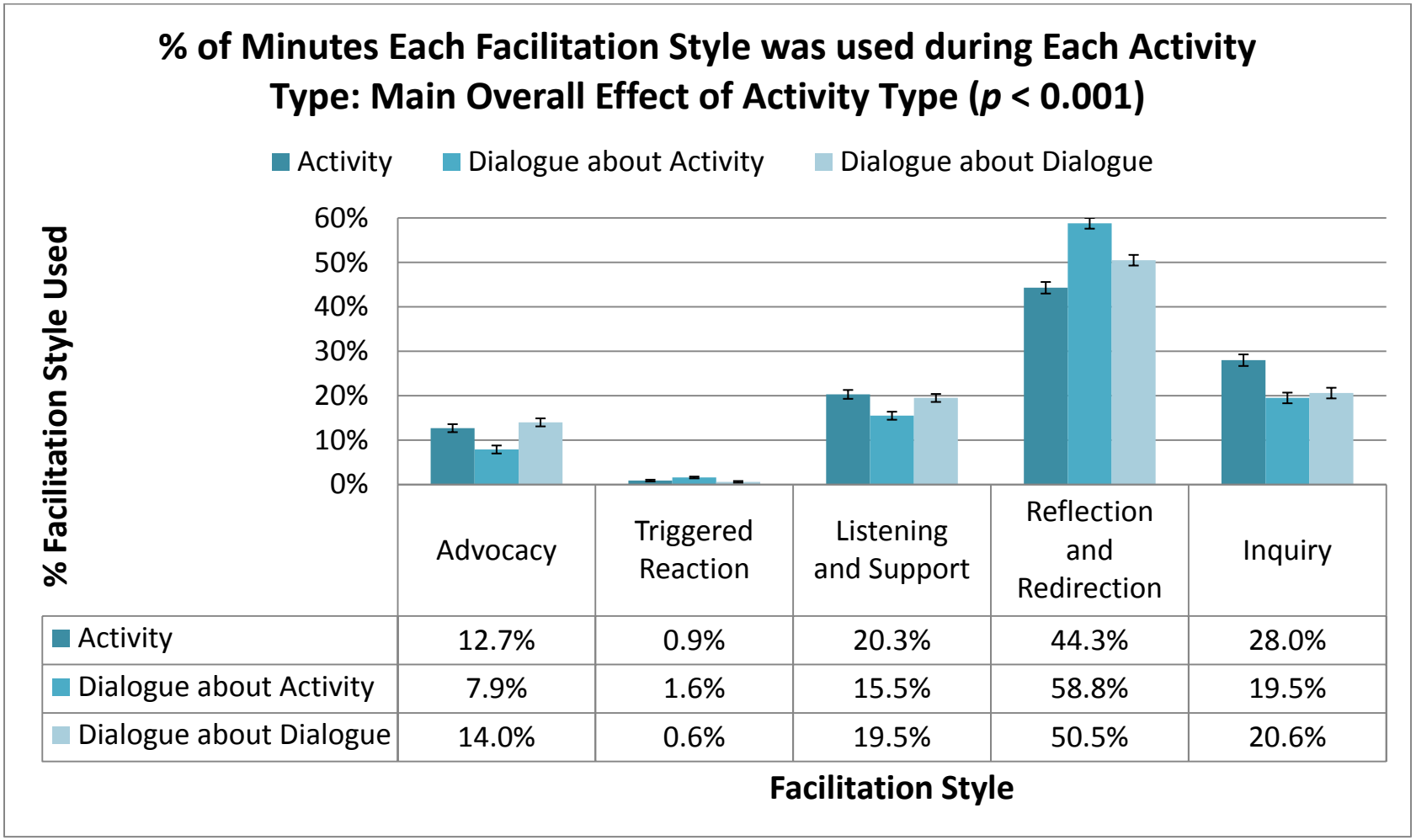
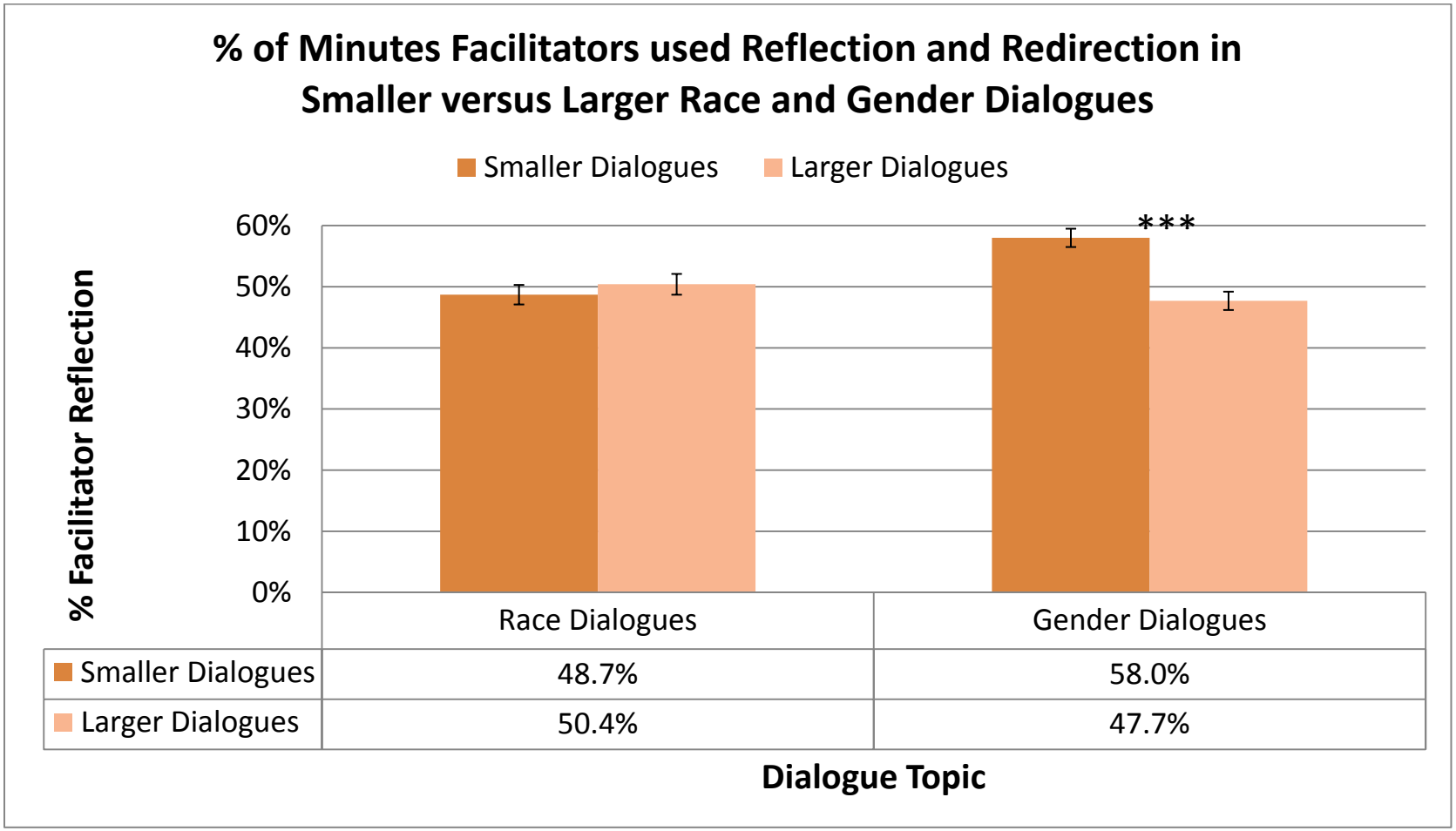
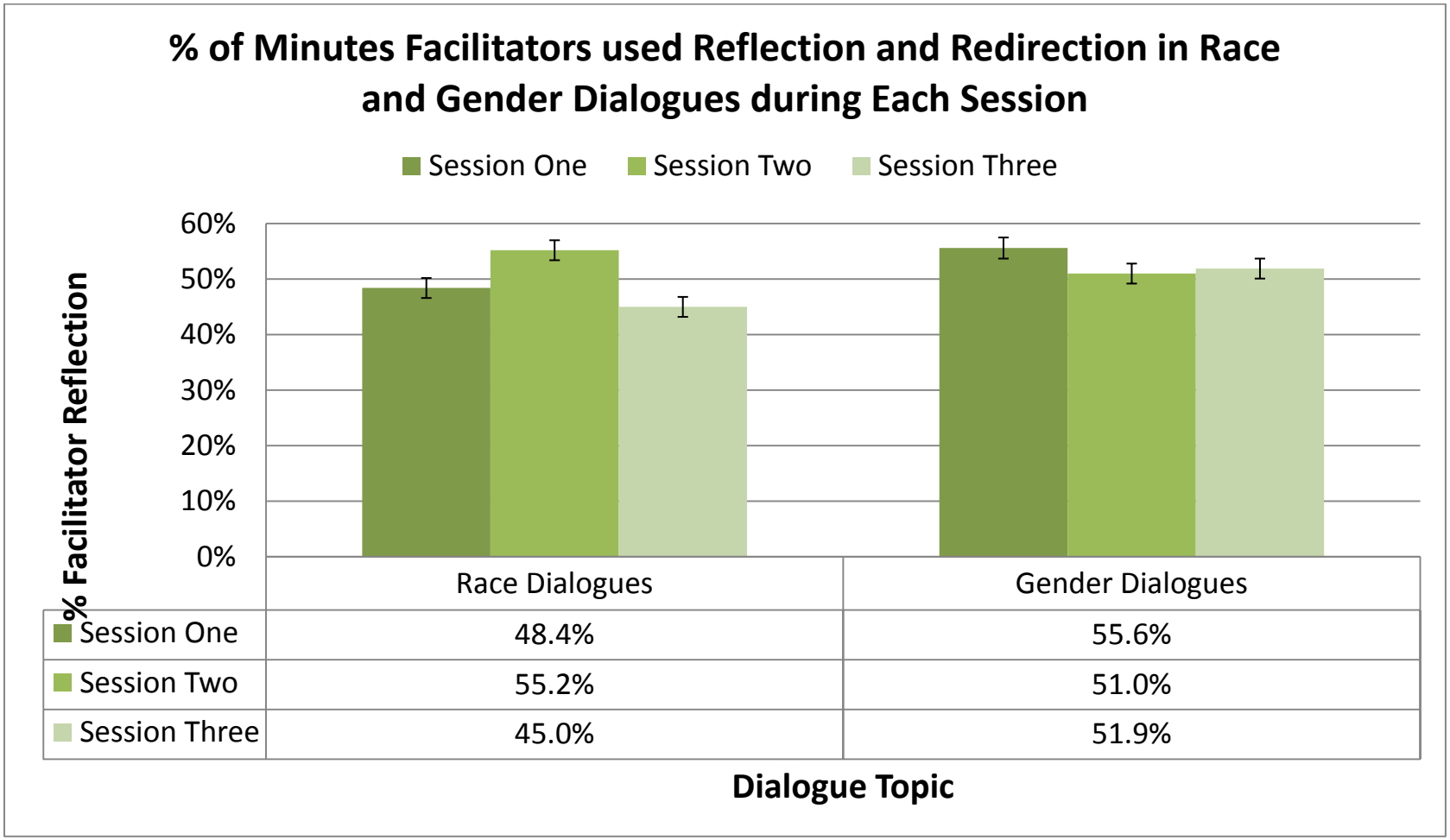


Figure 5:6 % Facilitator Reflection and Redirection: Dialogue Topic by Dialogue Size



*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 5:7 % Facilitator Reflection and Redirection: Dialogue Topic by Video Session



	Race Dialogues	Gender Dialogues
Session One	48.4%	55.6%
Session Two	55.2%	51.0%
Session Three	45.0%	51.9%

Figure 5:8 % Facilitator Reflection and Redirection: Dialogue Topic by Activity Type

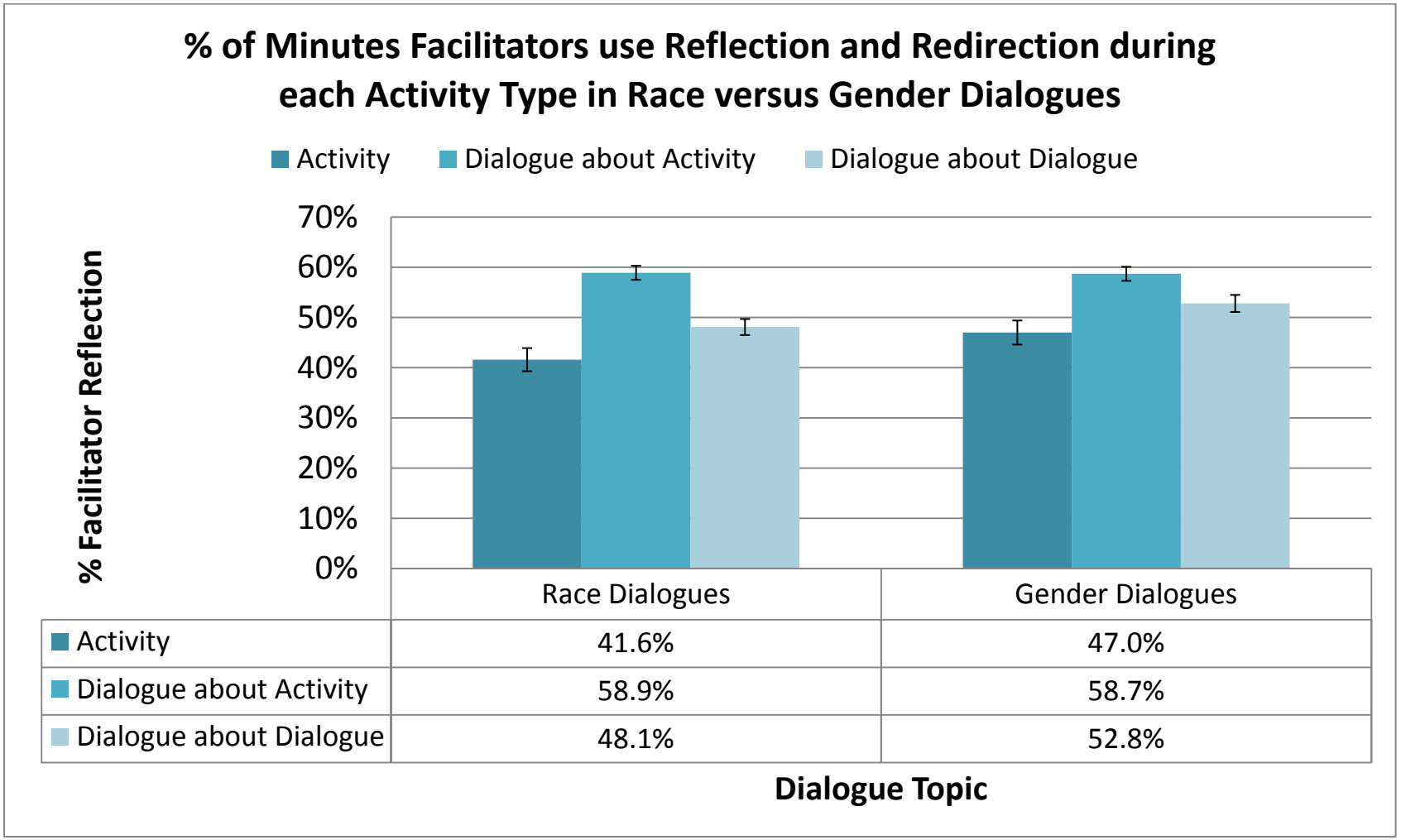
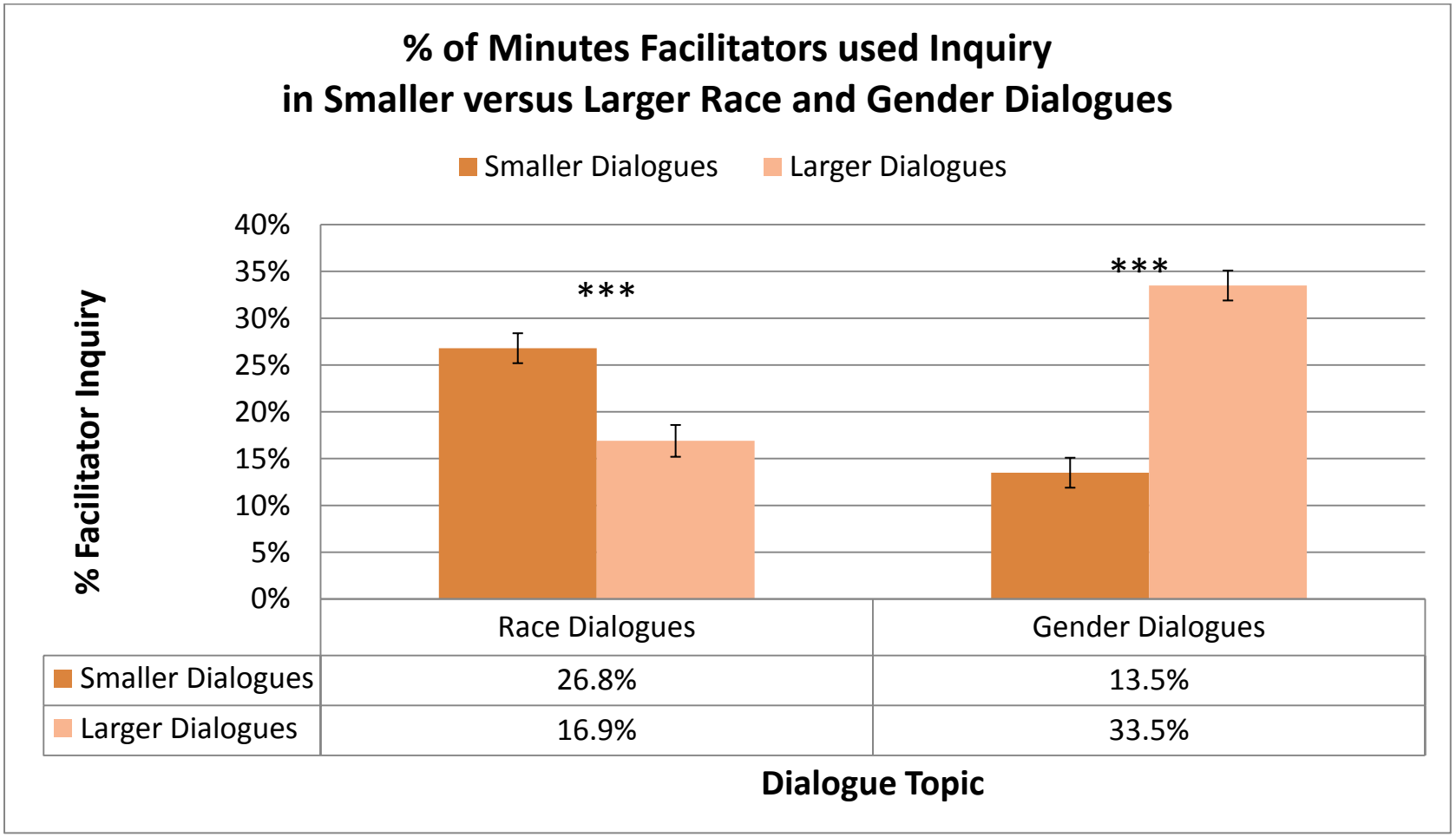
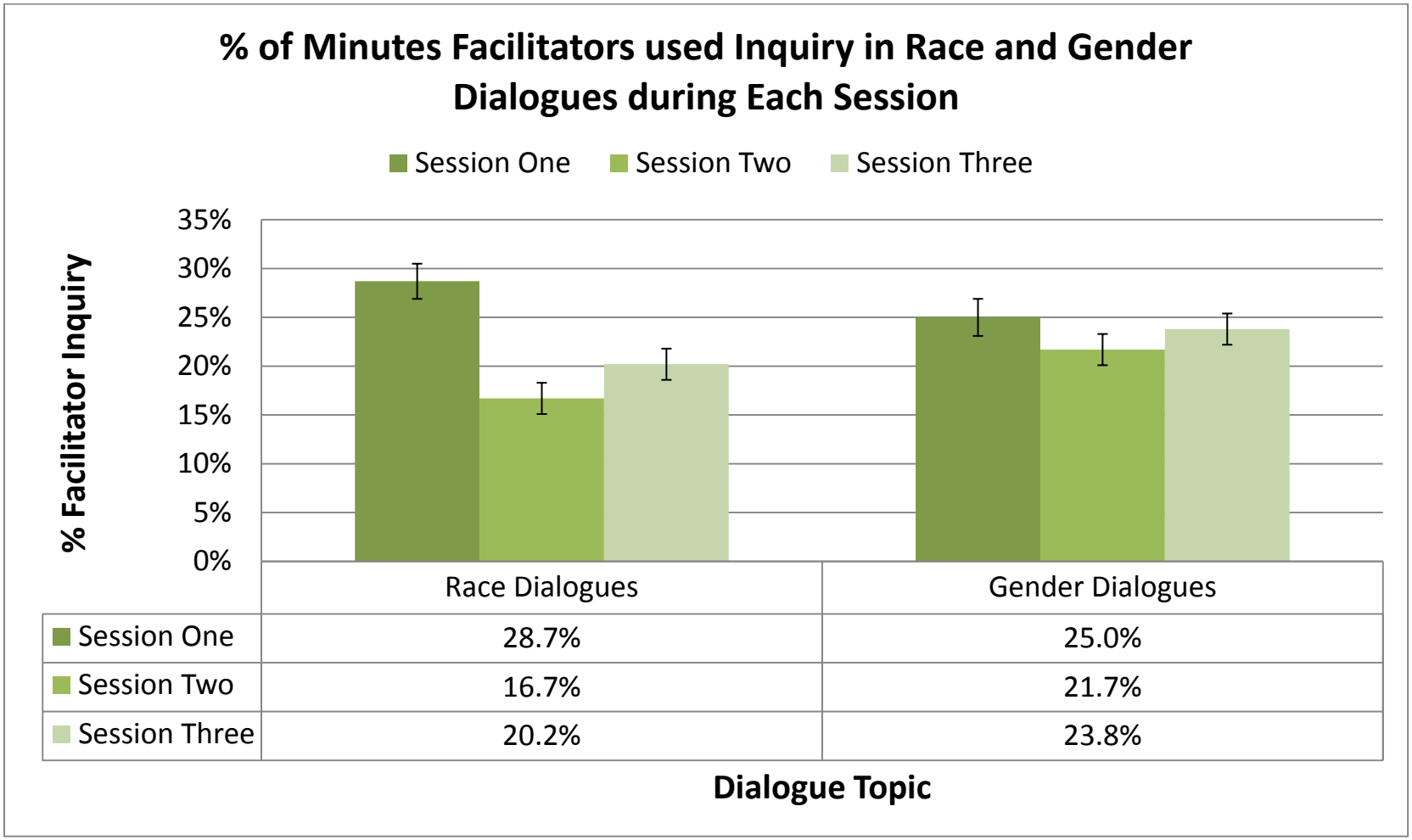


Figure 5:9 % Facilitator Inquiry: Dialogue Topic by Dialogue Size



*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 5:10 % Facilitator Inquiry: Dialogue Topic by Video Session



	Race Dialogues	Gender Dialogues
Session One	28.7%	25.0%
Session Two	16.7%	21.7%
Session Three	20.2%	23.8%

Figure 5:11 % Facilitator Inquiry: Dialogue Topic by Activity Type

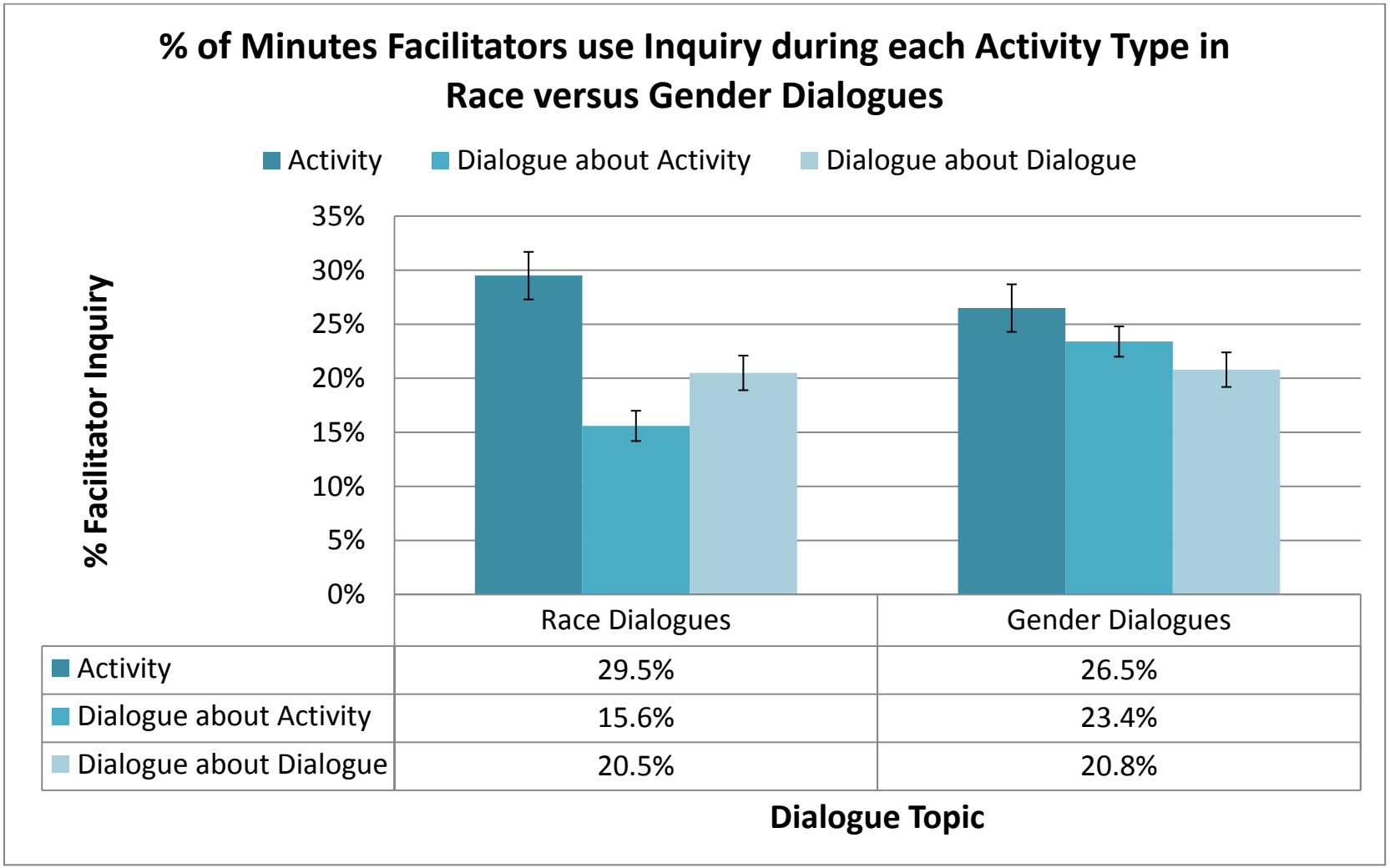
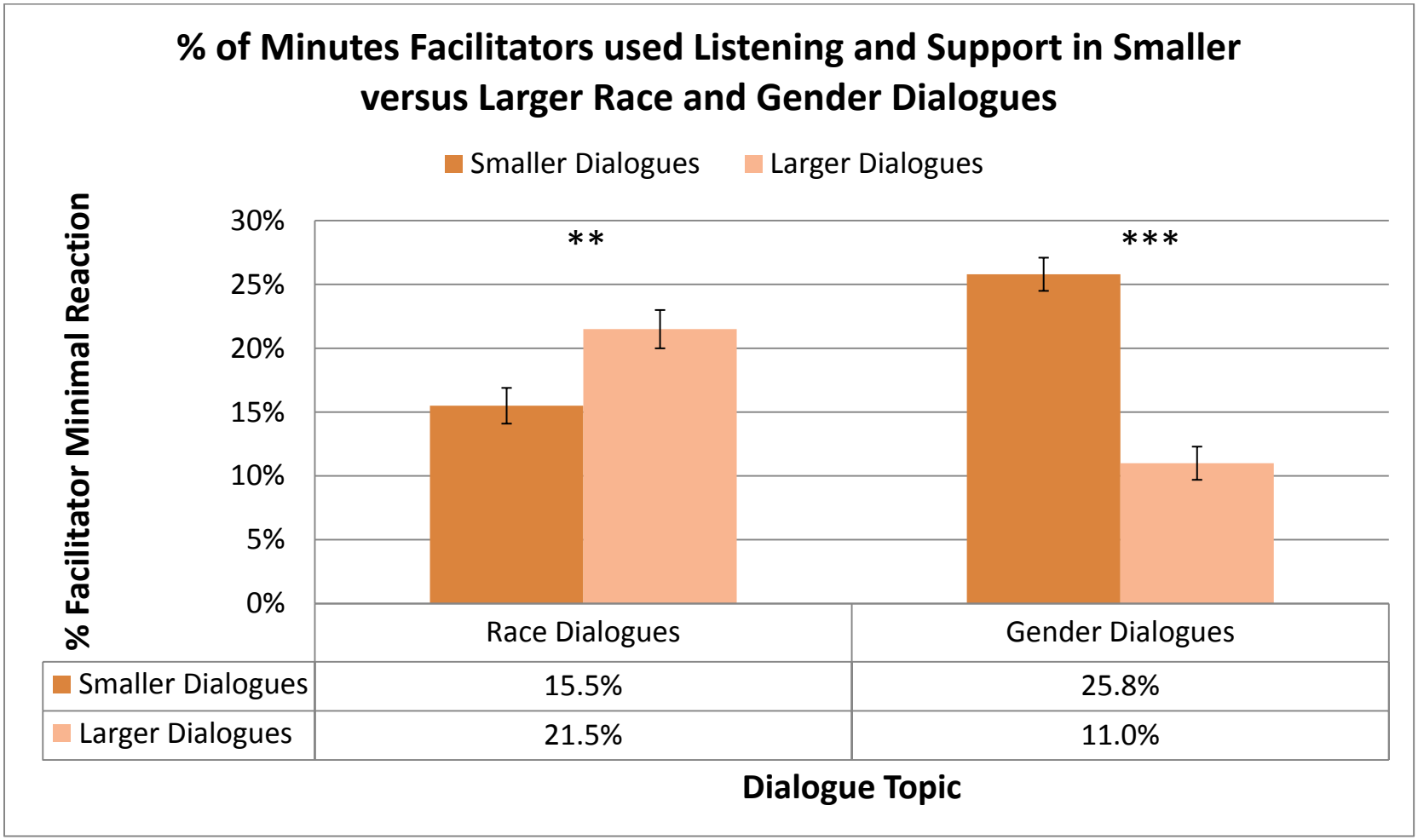
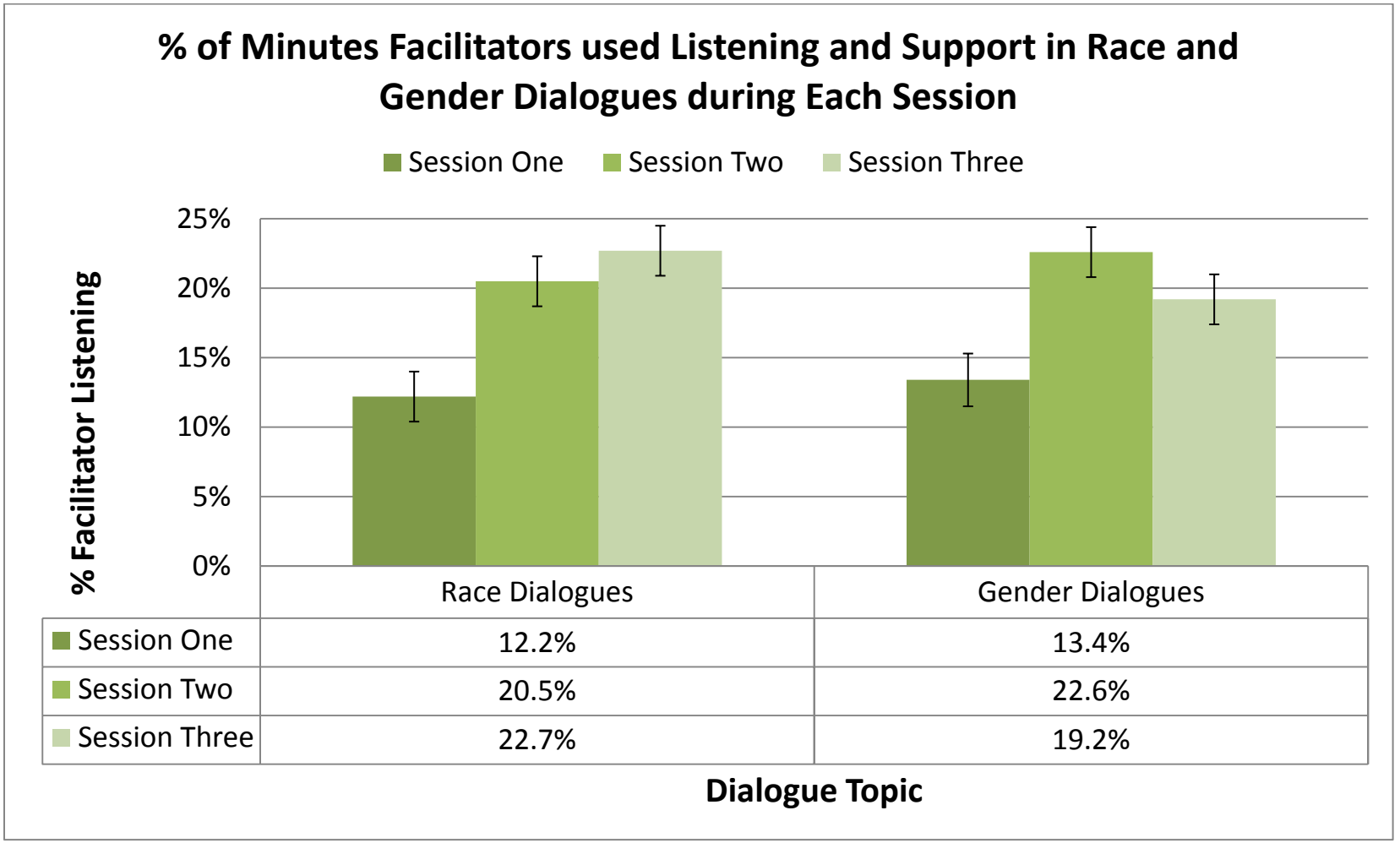


Figure 5:12 % Facilitator Listening and Support: Dialogue Topic by Dialogue Size



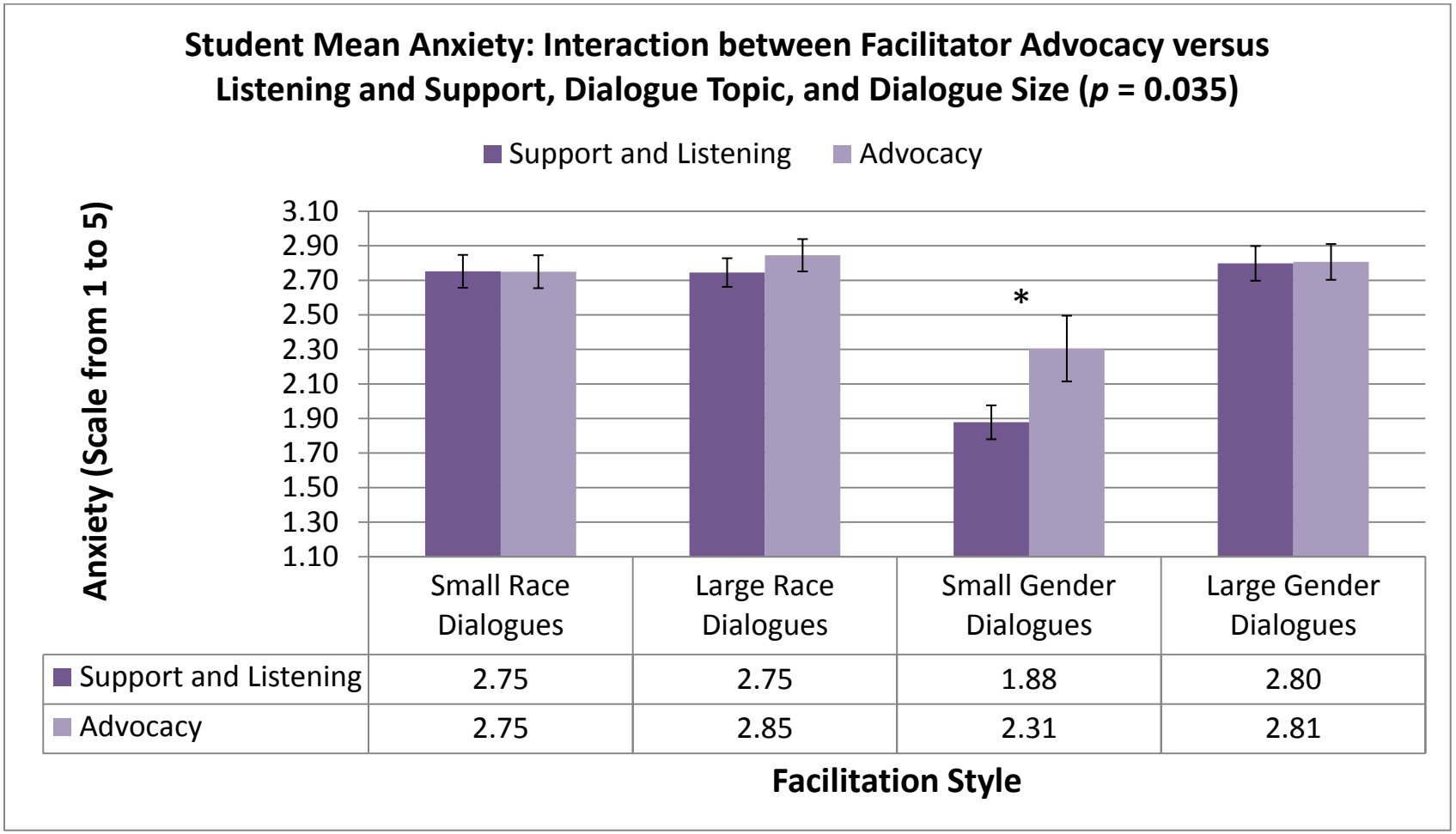
*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 5:13 % Facilitator Listening and Support: Dialogue Topic by Video Session



	Race Dialogues	Gender Dialogues
Session One	12.2%	13.4%
Session Two	20.5%	22.6%
Session Three	22.7%	19.2%

Figure 5:14 % Facilitator Advocacy versus Support and Listening for Student Mean Anxiety



*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 5:15 % Facilitator Advocacy versus Support and Listening for Student Mean Engagement

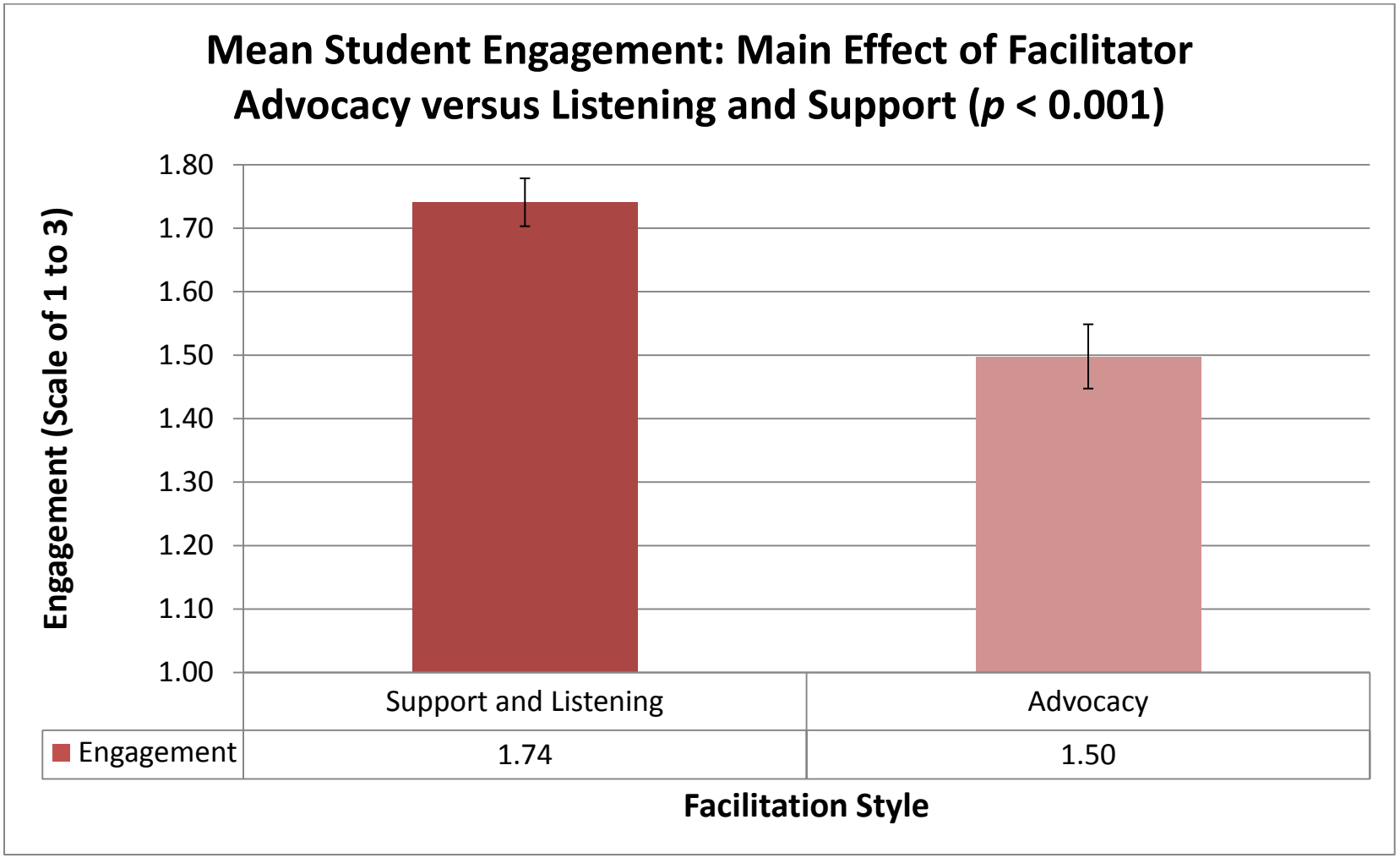
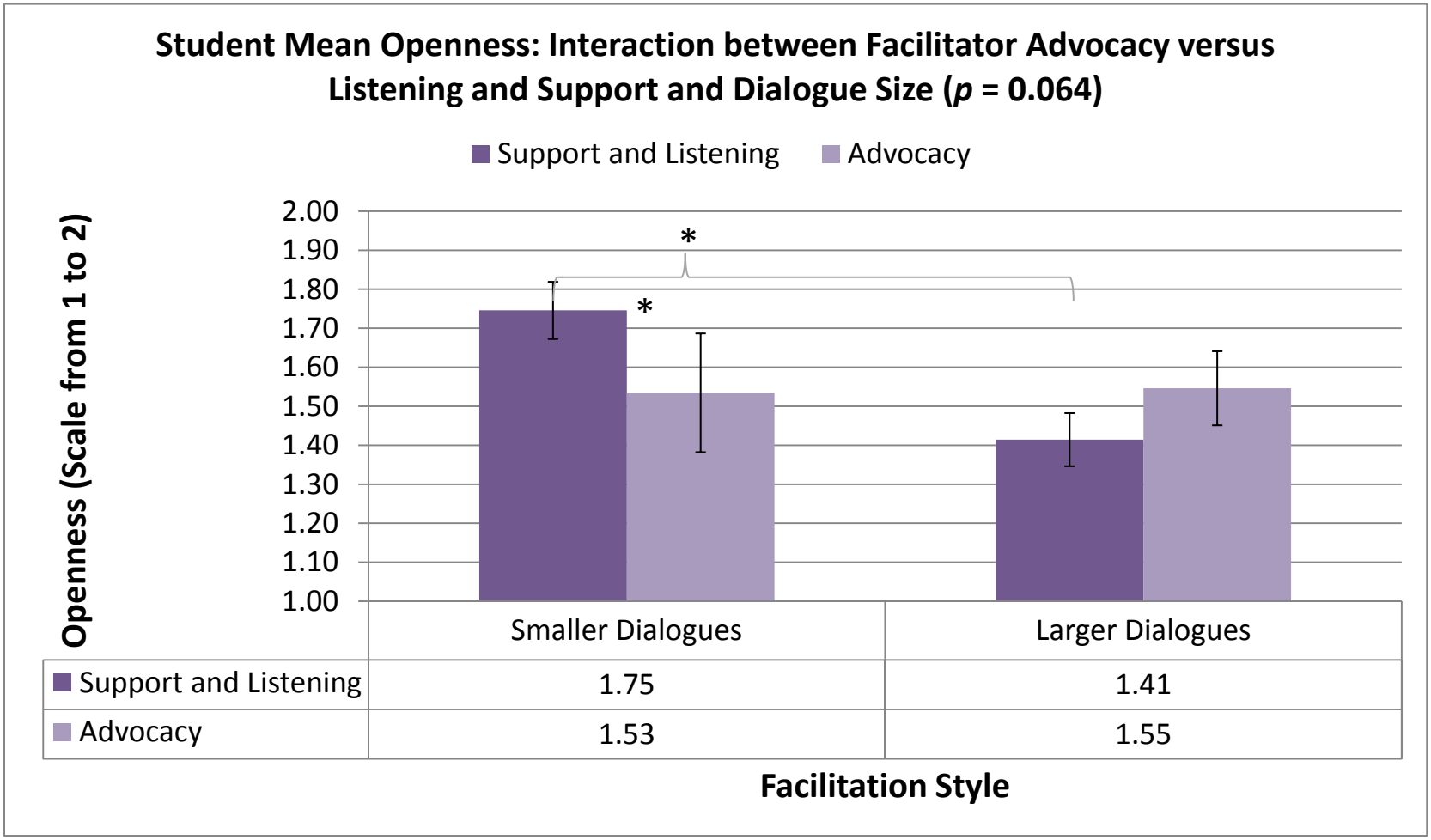
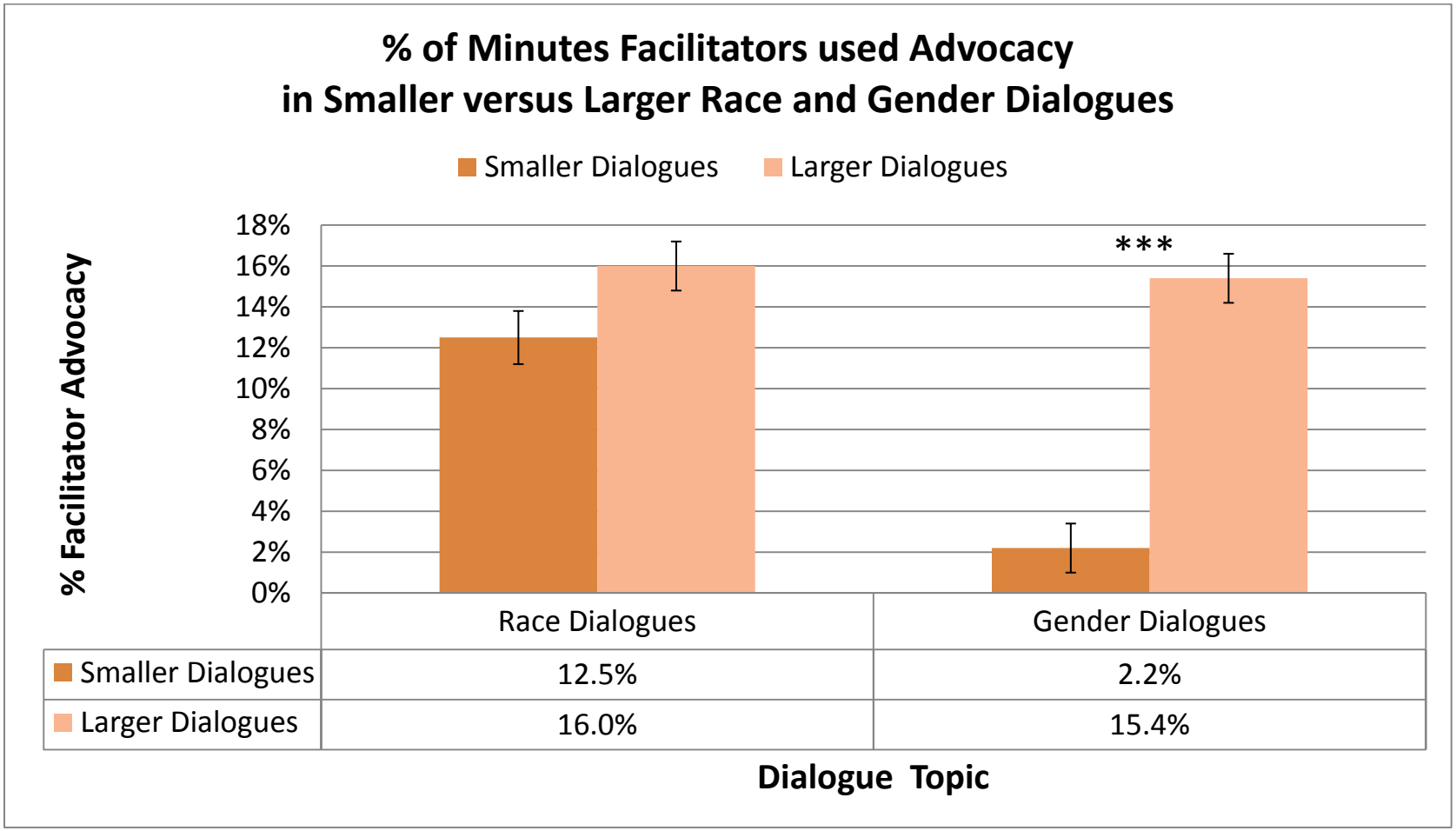


Figure 5:16 % Facilitator Advocacy versus Listening and Support by Dialogue Size for Student Mean Openness



*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 5:17 % Facilitator Advocacy: Interaction between Dialogue Topic and Dialogue Size



*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 5:18 % Facilitator Advocacy: Interaction between Dialogue Topic and Video Session

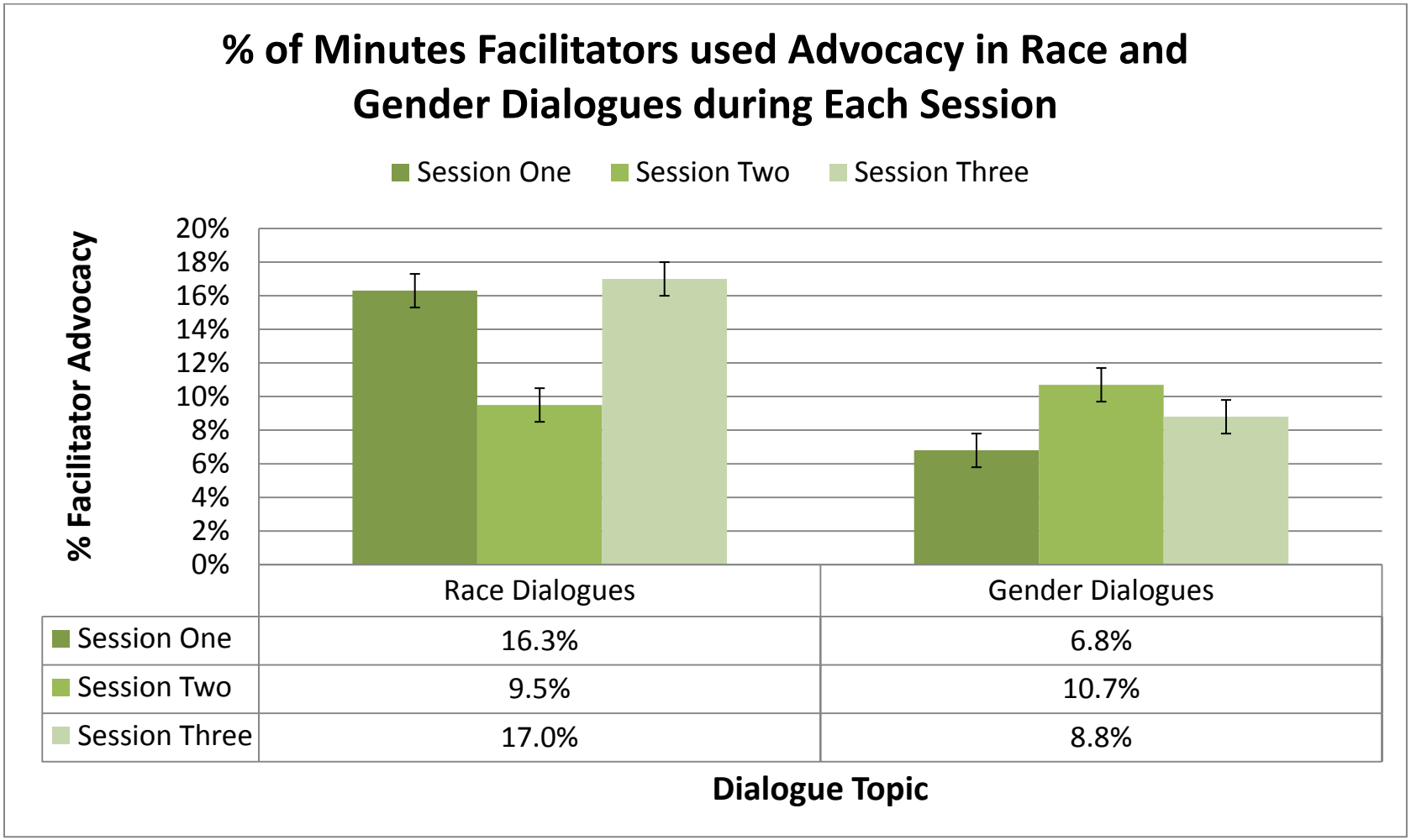


Figure 5:19 % Facilitator Advocacy: Interaction between Dialogue Topic and Activity Type

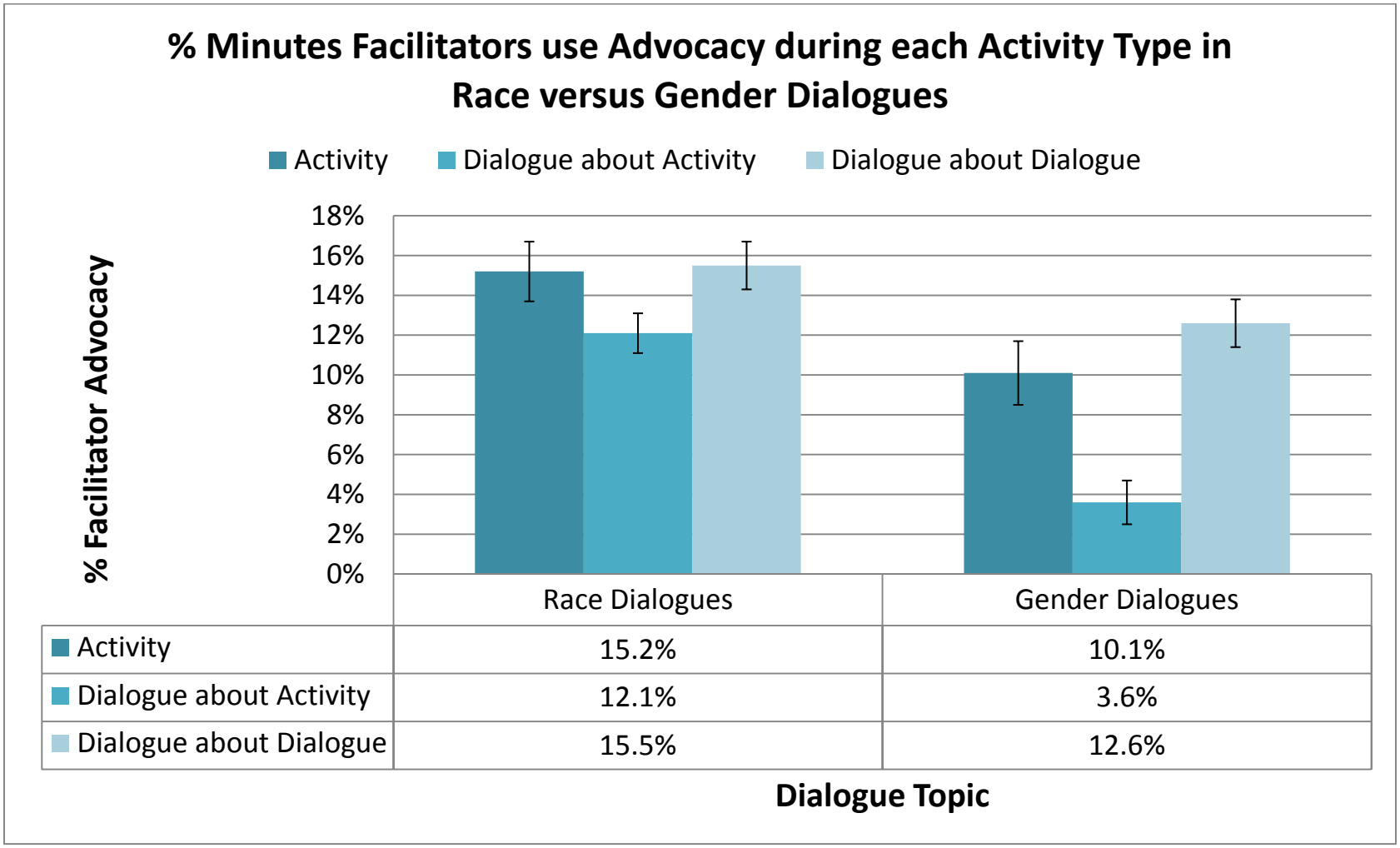
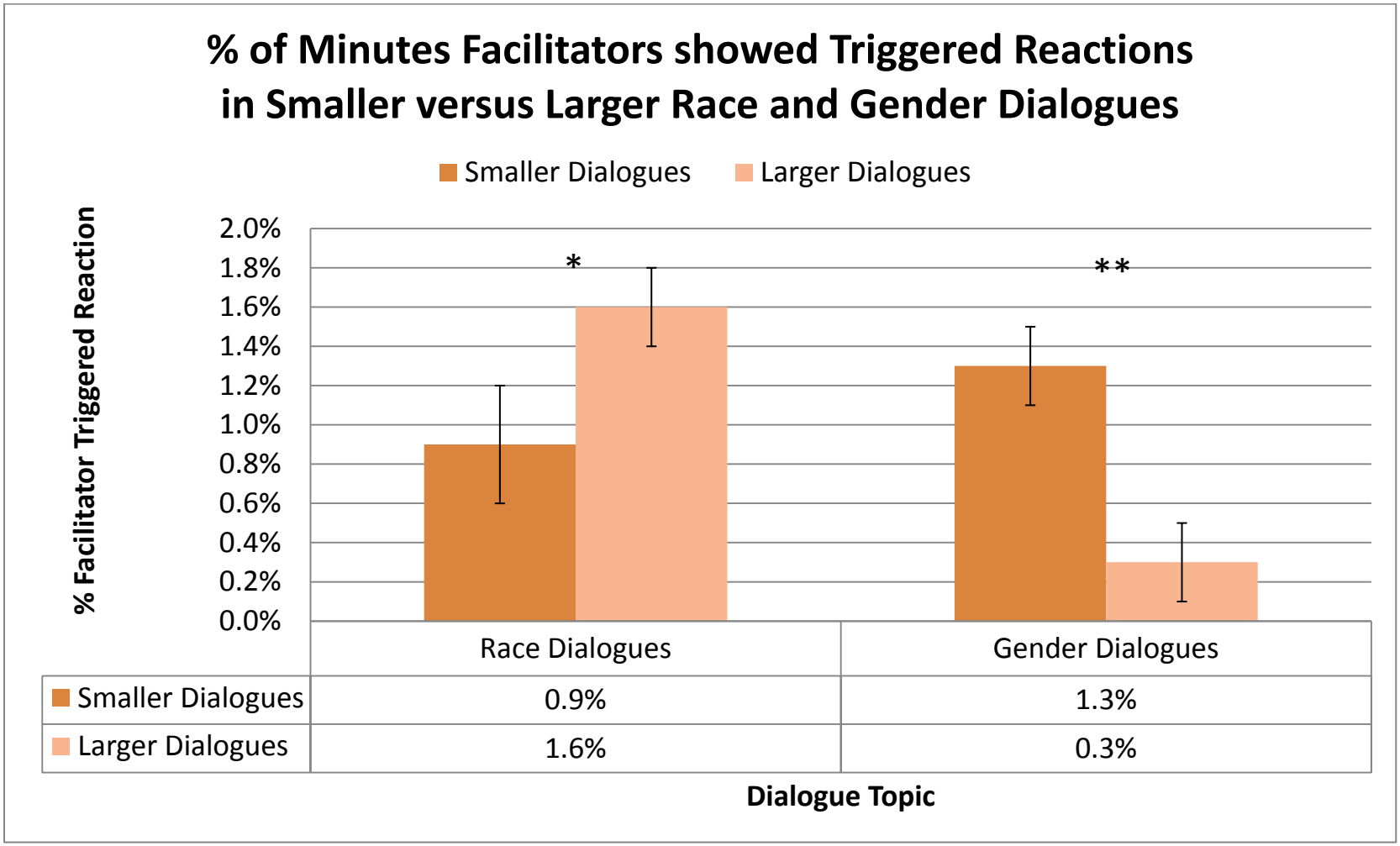
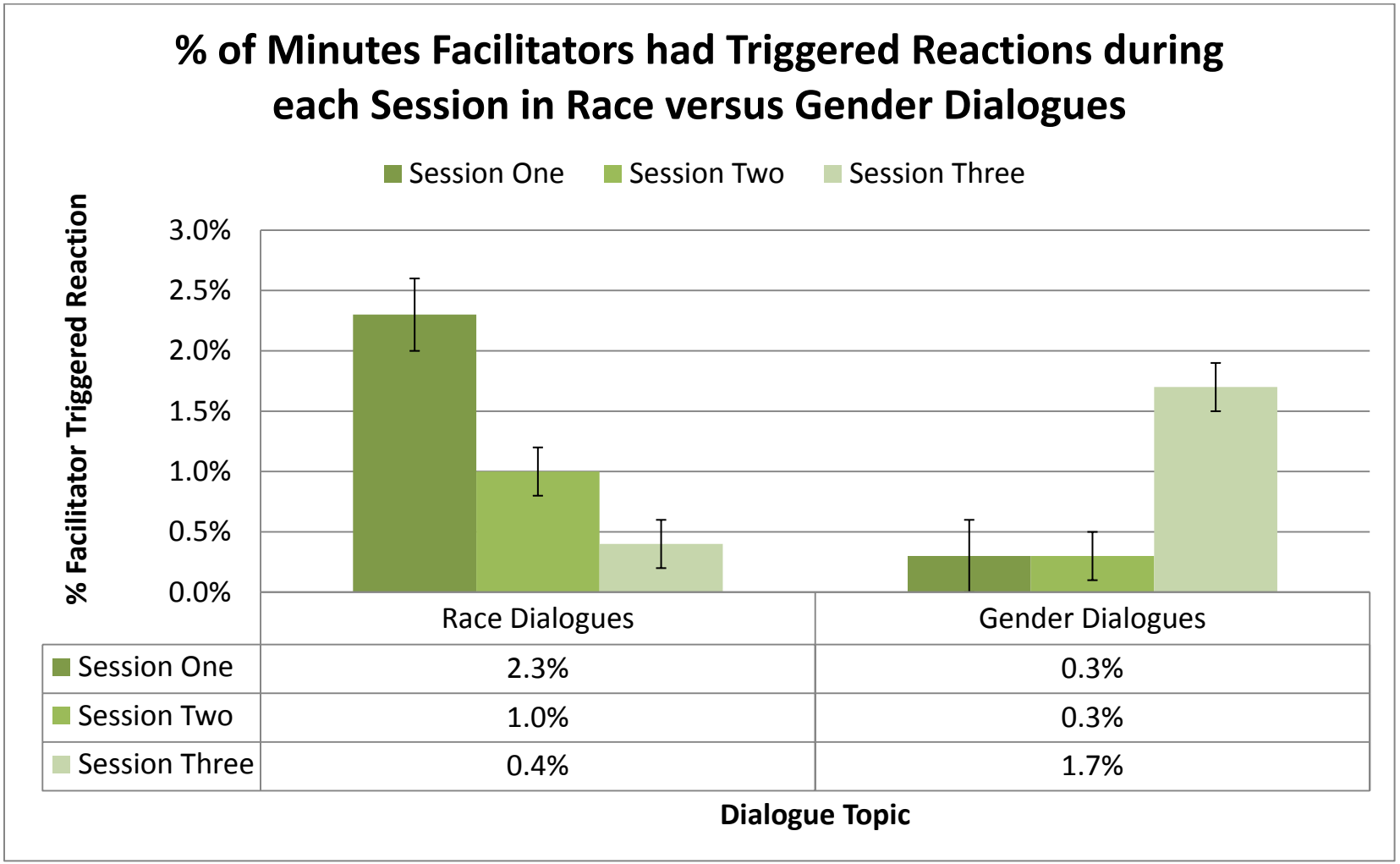


Figure 5:20 % Facilitator Triggered Reaction: Interaction between Dialogue Topic and Dialogue Size



*$p \leq 0.05$; ** $p \leq 0.01$; *** $p \leq 0.001$

Figure 5:21 % Facilitator Triggered Reaction: Interaction between Dialogue Topic and Video Session



	Race Dialogues	Gender Dialogues
Session One	2.3%	0.3%
Session Two	1.0%	0.3%
Session Three	0.4%	1.7%

Figure 5:22 % Facilitator Triggered Reaction: Interaction between Dialogue Topic and Activity Type

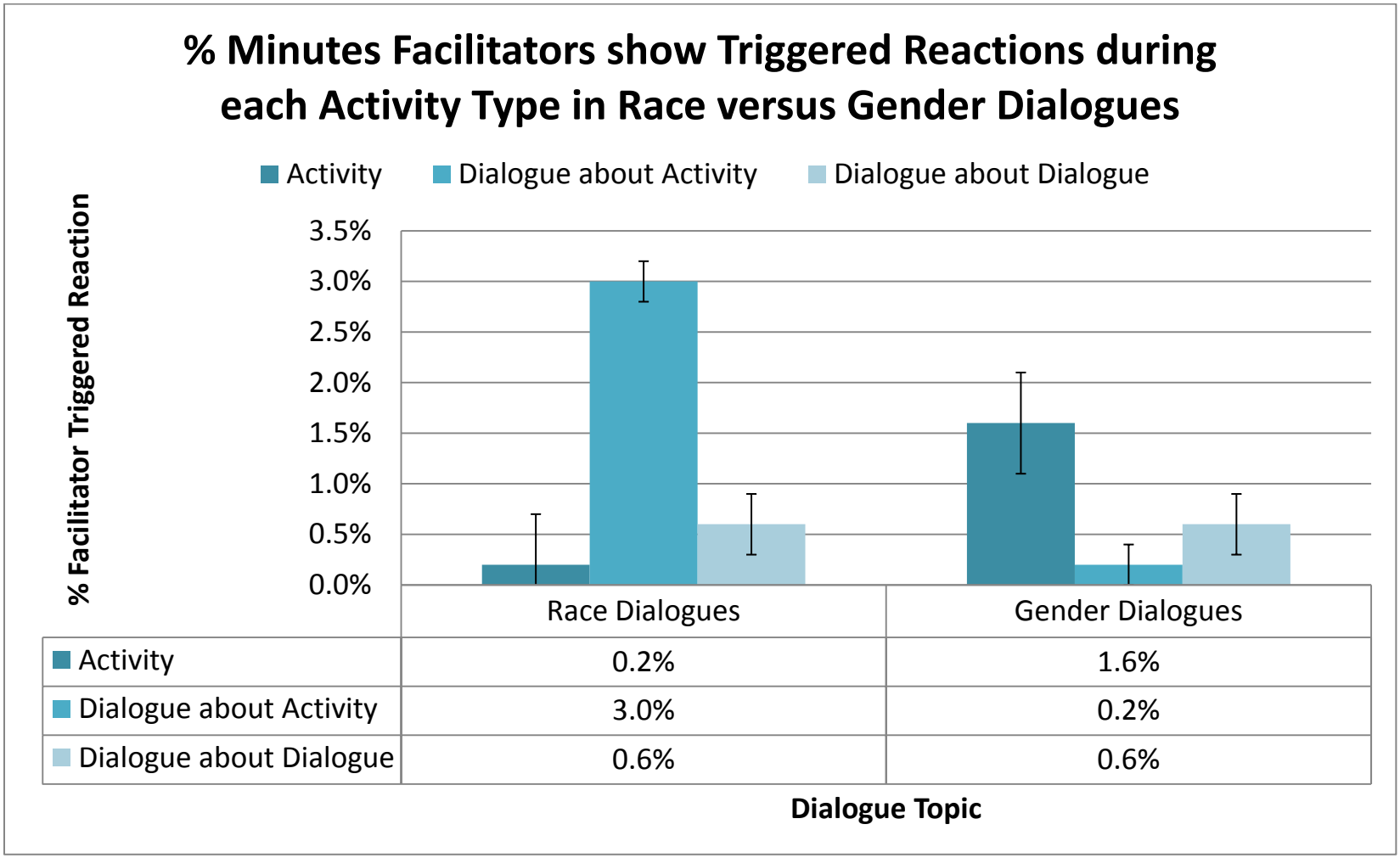


Table 1 Codable and Training Minutes per Activity Type

	Coding Minutes Across Video Sessions			Total Minutes	Training Minutes Across Video Sessions			Total Minutes
Video Sessions	**1**	**2**	**3**		**1**	**2**	**3**	
Check-In Activity	7	7	7	**21**	0	0	0	**0**
Main Activity* ****Only coded in Session 2***	0	18	0	**18**	0	14	0	**14**
Dialogue about Activity	8	13	14	**35**	3	9	9	**21**
Dialogue about the Dialogue* ****Only coded in Sessions 1 and 3***	18	0	14	**32**	5	0	9	**14**
Total Minutes	**33**	**38**	**35**	**106**	**8**	**23**	**18**	**49**
Total Minutes Retained for Analysis	**26**	**31**	**28**	**85**				

APPENDICES

Appendix I
Video Coding Scales

Student and Facilitator "Codability": Which moments a student or facilitator met, or failed to meet the most basic coding-criteria for the scales below, such as whether s/he spoke (i.e., certain units would not be applicable unless s/he had).

Student Engagement: The degree to which a student listens and reacts to what is being said; speaks in an animated, enthusiastic manner; speaks out of his/her own initiative; and speaks to other students.

Student Anxiety: The extent to which a student seems uneasy, agitated or especially observant of how others may be reacting to his/her behavior or comments.

Student Openness: The extent to which a student shows vulnerability, self-reflection, and appreciation for differences.

Facilitator's Facilitation Style: The manner with which facilitators react and respond to student comments and behavior.

Note: "co" is a gender-neutral term for an individual

Codable Scale

(0) Codable

- Co is *not* in the picture – or co's face is not clearly visible – for *approximately* ten or more non-consecutive seconds.

AND / OR

- Co does not speak a word (at least in any way that is recognizable as a comment from co).

(1) In Picture Only (i.e., does *not* speak):

- Co *is* in the picture – and co's face is clearly visible – for *approximately* ten or more non-consecutive seconds.

AND

- Co does not speak a word (at least in any way that is recognizable as a comment from co).

(2) Speaks Only (i.e., is *not* in the picture)

- Co is *not* in the picture – or co's face is not clearly visible – for ten or more non-consecutive seconds.

AND

- Co speaks one or more words, and you recognize co's voice (and thus recognize co as the speaker).

(3) Speaks and *is* In Picture

- Co *is* in the picture – *and* co's face is clearly visible – for *approximately* ten or more non-consecutive seconds.

AND

- Co speaks one or more words, and you recognize co's voice (and thus recognize co as the speaker).

Note: "co" is a gender-neutral term for an individual

Student Engagement

(0) Disengagement:

- Co non-verbally behaves in a way that is distracting, disruptive, or disengaging to others;
- Co does not seem to be listening to or reacting to what is being said.

AND / OR

- Co interrupts other speakers (once or more), talks over other speakers (even once), or engages in SIDE-TALK (even once). SIDE-TALK is any kind of verbal or *overt* non-verbal communication/signaling shared between a subgroup of participants that occurs simultaneously to, and thus in competition with group-level dialogue.
-

(1) Low Engagement [now Low to Moderate Engagement]:

- There are only one or two indications that co is listening to or reacting to what is being said, and any reactions are *minimal*;

AND / OR

- Co speaks in a flat, unanimated, unenthusiastic manner.
-

(2) Moderate Engagement [now High Engagement]:

- There are two or more indicators that co is listening to and reacting to what is being said, and at least one reaction is *moderate* (e.g., a smile, not laughing);

- Co takes the initiative to speak without being called upon or asked a question;

AND / OR

- Co speaks in a *moderately* animated and enthusiastic manner.
-

(3) High Engagement [now Animated Initiative]:

- There are two or more indicators that co is listening to and reacting to what is being said, and at least one reaction is *high intensity* (e.g., nodding).

AND / OR

- Co takes the initiative to speak and does so in a *highly* animated and enthusiastic manner.

Student Anxiety

(1) Low *or No Apparent* Anxiety:

- Co shows *minimal* if *any* evidence of being distressed by the situation, the activity, or by his/her interactions with others;
- Co's movements and speech seem uninhibited, "natural", and comfortable;

AND / OR

- Co sits in a relatively relaxed manner in his/her chair.

(2) Moderate Anxiety:

- Co may fidget, massage him/herself, giggle, cover his/her mouth, or otherwise appear somewhat nervous on a *few* occasions, but is not so self-conscious or uneasy that most people would notice at first glance;

AND / OR

- Co's rate of speech may be *moderately* rapid, meaning it does not seem notably slow and relaxed, but is at a "normal" or slightly faster than normal rate.

(3) High Anxiety:

- Co acts apprehensive, nervous, or agitated;
- Co seem constricted and uncomfortably "frozen," and if/when co moves, his/her movements seem rigid, mechanical, or fumbling;
- Co fidgets throughout the session, or (more occasionally but) in a way that is likely to be disruptive or distracting to others;
- Co speaks impulsively (e.g., interrupting or talking over others) or at a rapid rate;

AND / OR

- Co says "you know" and "um" a lot, pauses while looking around anxiously, mumbles, speaks inaudibly softly, or his/her speech trails off into silence.

Note: "co" is a gender-neutral term for an individual

Student Openness

(1) Low Openness:

- Co shares a personal preference which could be superficial in nature or co's perspective on an issue, and does not engage in self-reflective commentary on his/her preference or perspective;

AND / OR

- Co describes a real-life, hypothetical, or fictional scenario about the experience or perspective of someone *other* than co (such as of an author);

AND THE FOLLOWING MUST APPLY

- Co does not reveal or mention being emotionally affected by the perspective or scenario co describes.

(2) Moderate to High Openness:

- Co shares a personal perspective, someone else's perspective, or a real-life story about someone else or *his/her self*;

AND AT LEAST ONE OF THE FOLLOWING MUST APPLY

- Co's stories and perspectives reveal appreciation for differences, and/or critical self-reflection (e.g., co may be critically questioning or re-examining his/her own biases and stereotypes);

AND / OR

- Co reveals or mentions being *moderately to highly* emotionally affected by the perspective or scenario co describes.

Note: "co" is a gender-neutral term for an individual

Facilitator Style

(0) Listening and Support

- Co looks interested, nods supportively, or maintains a neutral expression.

(1) Triggered Reaction

- Co seems flustered by, offended by, or concerned about a participant's behavior or comments.
- Co exhibits high levels of anxiety, even if only briefly (i.e., acts apprehensive, nervous, or agitated).

AND / OR

- The other facilitator seems to pick up on his/her co-facilitator's triggered reaction and "covers" for him/her. This is another indicator that a triggered reaction occurred.

(2) Neutrality, Reflection or Redirection

- Co repeats or slightly rephrases what a participant recently said, and/or asks for clarification.
- Co makes a neutral comment about what a participant recently said.

AND / OR

- Co interrupts or redirects the flow of conversation, for example, by changing or rephrasing topics, by transitioning into another activity, or by going over ground rules again.

(3) Advocacy

- Co polarizes an issue or supports just one side of an argument;
- Co interrupts and talks over others to support his/her argument;
- Co argues in favor of, supports, and/or defends a particular position or viewpoint. This may be done in *either a detached manner* (i.e., minimal emotional attachment to the position is revealed), *or* in a manner revealing moderate to high levels of emotional or personal attachment to the position (e.g., revealed by dramatic physical gestures, a raised voice, and other displays of strong emotion);

Continued on next page

AND / OR

- Co disagrees with other participants, asks them pointed questions, and/or presents arguments to counter theirs (i.e., without presenting both sides of an argument) in *either a detached manner*, *or in* an *adamant, energetic* manner.

AND THE FOLLOWING MAY CO-OCCUR WITH THE ABOVE CRITERIA

- Co shares one of his/her own personal experiences;
- Co tells a story about a real-life (e.g., historical), hypothetical, or fictional experience of someone (or a group) *other* than co.

(4) Inquiry:

- Co attempts to find and create common ground by building a mutual understanding of where different people are coming from, and how co and/or others developed their perspectives and identities;

AND THE FOLLOWING MAY CO-OCCUR WITH THE ABOVE CRITERIA

- Co builds on a personal story or perspective *another participant* shared;
- In a respectful manner, co focuses on clarifying and more fully understanding another participant's *underlying assumptions* (i.e., not *just* repeating back or slightly rephrasing what a participant recently said).
- Co shares one of his/her own personal experiences;
- Co tells a story about a real-life (e.g., historical), hypothetical, or fictional experience of someone (or a group) *other* than co.

Note: "co" is a gender-neutral term for an individual

Appendix II
Filming Related Documents

Filming Contact Person Guidelines

To-do list for tasks to be completed Outside of Filming Sessions

☐ Use the script in the "How to Find and Manage a Film Crew" document to interview potential film crews to hire.

☐ Early in the semester, email, mail, or fax the filming company you have tentatively booked with: 1) the Videographer Filming Guidelines; and 2) one document that clearly summarizes all of the filming dates, times, and locations (and ask them to look over these materials).

☐ Call the film company after they've had the chance to look everything over, and confirm that they can follow the video research filming protocol you sent them, and that they can make it to each of the filming dates (and have subs to fill in if someone calls in sick!).

☐ Before classes start, inform potential research participants that their dialogue group may be video-recorded (see script and flyer sample in this document).

☐ Send an email to facilitators about their dialogue group being filmed, or meet with them in person and let them know the same basic information (see email script in this document).

☐ Once a class session is filmed, mail the labeled Mini DV tapes along with the Facilitator Summary Sheet that you filled out with research ID information via insured mail (preferably UPS or FedEx) to:

The Program on Intergroup Relations
Care of: Kelly Maxwell
3000 Michigan Union
530 S. State Street
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1308
734-936-1875 (Phone)

☐ At the end of each semester, give $30 to each facilitator who participated in the filming sessions

To-do list for tasks to be completed before, during, and after *Each* Filming Session

Before Class

☐ Confirm via phone or email with videographer(s) to ensure that s/he will arrive when s/he said s/he would (and make sure s/he knows how to find the classroom/building).

☐ Arrive twenty minutes before each filming session with: (1) the Filming Contact Person Guidelines; (2) two copies of the Videographer Filming Guidelines; and – most importantly – (3) with two copies of the Filming Session Summary Sheet for the facilitators to fill out.

☐ Review the Videographer Filming Guidelines with the Videographer before class, and before helping him/her set up.

☐ To maximize the number of participants the videographer will be able to view through his/her lens, set up the chairs in a circle that opens to the videographer (see page 7 for a diagram of what an ideal seating arrangement would look like).

☐ Once everyone is seated, ask everyone (including the facilitators) to move toward the point in the circle that is directly across from the videographer (i.e., filling in any empty seats). This will help minimize the number of people sitting on either side of the videographer.

☐ Review what the facilitators will need to do and give them each a Filming Session Summary Sheet (FSSS). Remind them that they will need to: 1) announce transitions; 2) fill out student's names and clothing description on the seating chart; and 3) note which students arrives late or leave early, as described on the FSSS.

During Class

☐ To start filming, first, ask the videographer to zoom in on the top half of a Filming Session Summary Sheet once the top half is filled out. This will ensure that every video can be identified by watching it.

☐ If a student arrives late during the first video recording session, take them aside and let them know what the videos will be used for, and request that they not speak to or for the camera, before they join the rest of the group.

After Class

☐ Ask for the Mini DV tapes from the Videographer and label them using the labeling protocol described and illustrated on the last page of this document

☐ Review and compare the two Filming Session Summary Sheets with the facilitators

☐ **Fill out a new Filming Session Summary Sheet with student's 10 digit Research IDs, their gender ((m) or (f)), and combined descriptions of each participant's clothing using the facilitators' Filming Session Summary Sheets.** This may be done electronically, or with pen and paper.

☐ Make an extra copy of this final Filming Session Summary Sheet to keep on your campus.

☐ Mail the new copy of the final Filming Session Summary Sheet with the mini-dv tapes to the University of Michigan.

More Detailed Guidelines for the Filming Contact Person Follow

At the Beginning of the Semester (Before Classes Start)

Send an email to the facilitators of the dialogue groups that are scheduled to be filmed conveying this basic information (in your own words):

[Names of the facilitators],

[In your own words, introduce your self, explain your role in relation to the project, what the focus of the project is, etc.].

This semester, we are video taping intergroup dialogue sessions at _____ **[your institution]** and several other universities. These videos will help us evaluate and improve intergroup dialogue curriculum and facilitation. We selected your **[race/ethnicity or gender]** dialogue class to video-record three times during the semester **[include dates for three sessions]**.

We'll be recording in the least intrusive manner possible, and we'll ask everyone to do what ever you normally do during a dialogue session. These video-recordings are being filmed solely for evaluation and research, and will only be viewed by researchers. Only anonymous research IDs will be used during analysis. The videos will never be used for publicity purposes.

Participating in a research dialogue is voluntary. If the student participants of your dialogue consent to remain in a research dialogue, then normal attendance policies will apply on filming dates. If they choose not to participate in being video-recorded in your dialogue, they will be asked to contact me, and I will help to arrange for them to be moved to a non-research dialogue this semester, or in subsequent semester.

I will personally attend each video-recording session **[or, if others will attend in your place, or in addition to you, name them here, and explain who they are]**, but we will still need your help keeping track of a few things. To compensate facilitators for the extra effort these three video-recording sessions will require, we will give each of you a $30 at the end of the semester. We estimate that you may need to devote an extra fifteen minutes (in total) per video-recording session to record-keeping tasks to be completed before, during, and after the class.

I will make sure the students in your dialogue are fully informed about, and give their written consent to participate in these video-recording sessions prior to the first recording session. Feel free to contact me if you have any questions or concerns about the three video-recording sessions.

[your name and contact information]

First Class Session or at an Orientation Session

Prior to the First Filming Session

During the orientation session for Intergroup Dialogues, let students know about the filming part of the project, and emphasize that – by agreeing to participate in a research dialogue – they are also agreeing to potentially participate in three video-recorded dialogue sessions.

[Script to address student participants] **[In your own words, introduce yourself, explain your role in relation to the project, what the focus of the project is, etc.].** This semester, we are video taping intergroup dialogue sessions at _____ **[your institution]** and several other universities. These videos will help us evaluate and improve intergroup dialogue curriculum and facilitation. We selected your **[race/ethnicity or gender]** dialogue class to video-record three times during the semester **[include dates for three sessions]**.

We'll be recording in the least intrusive manner possible, and we'll ask everyone to do what ever you normally do during a dialogue session. These video-recordings are being filmed solely for evaluation and research, and will only be viewed by researchers. Only anonymous research IDs will be used during analysis. The videos will never be used for publicity purposes.

Participating in a research dialogue is voluntary. If you consent to remain in a research dialogue, then normal attendance policies will apply on filming dates. If you choose not to participate in being video-recorded in your dialogue, please let me know, so we can move you to a non-research dialogue this semester if possible, or you'll receive a rain check to enroll in a non-research dialogue in a subsequent semester.

Are there any questions I can answer regarding confidentiality, or about the video-recording sessions in general? **[Share your contact information with them].** Feel free to contact me personally if you have any additional questions or concerns that arise during the semester about the video-recording sessions.

[see sample flyer conveying this information on the next page]

Your intergroup dialogue group may be video-recorded three times during the winter semester.

What the videos will be used for: These videos will help us improve intergroup dialogue facilitation and curriculum.

Who is selected?: We are randomly selecting research dialogue groups.

How will they be video-recorded?: We'll be recording in the least intrusive manner possible, and we'll ask everyone to do what ever you normally do during a dialogue session.

Confidentiality: These video-recordings are being filmed solely for evaluation and research, and will only be viewed by researchers. Only anonymous research IDs will be used during analysis. The videos will never be used for publicity purposes.

Student's Participation: Participating in a research dialogue is voluntary. If you consent to remain in a research dialogue, then normal attendance policies will apply on filming dates. If you choose not to participate in being video-recorded in your dialogue, please let _____ [Email:_____] know before your next dialogue session.

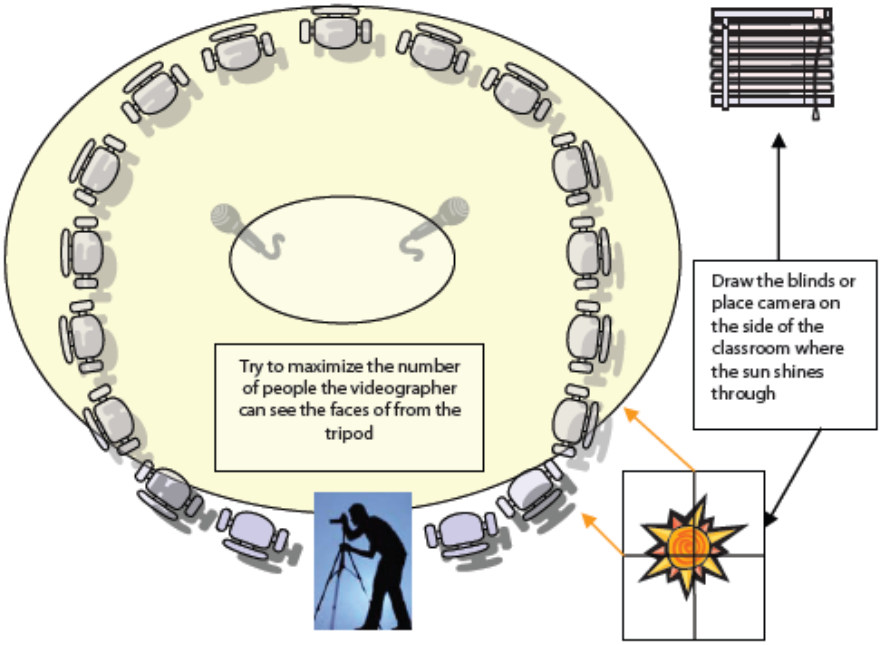
General Questions and Concerns?: Feel free to contact _____ at _____ with any questions or concerns you have regarding being video-recorded in a dialogue.

Your participation in these video-recorded dialogues is appreciated!

Setting up the Classroom before Filming Sessions

Arrive Twenty Minutes before Each Filming Session

- Help the videographer set up the chairs in an **elongated** circle, so that the circle opens up to the camera, like so:



- If you class has fewer participants, make a horse-shoe shaped circle, and face the two desk-chairs on the edges on each end of the circle slightly inwards, facing the other desk-chairs.
- If there are windows in the classroom, draw the blinds, or – if there are no blinds and it is sunny - ask if the videographer if s/he would prefer to set up on the side where the sunlight is pouring through the windows (to minimize glare).
- If it is possible to limit "white noise" from fans/etc., please do so.
- **Once everyone is seated, ask them to move in toward the chair opposite from the videographer and fill in any empty seats.** This will maximize the number of people we'll have a good view of through the camera lens, since it's hard to see people in the picture who are sitting near the videographer.

Reviewing the Filming Protocol with the Videographer: An Essential Step!

Before *each* filming session, *please* read out loud ALL of the Videographer Filming Guidelines to the Videographer while the Videographer looks at his/her own copy, especially page 2 .

You should have one copy of the Videographer Filming Guidelines for yourself, to keep on hand during the filming session, and one color copy for the videographer to refer to while you read it out loud, and while filming.

Keeping Track of Who Sits Where

- Once all the participants have taken a seat, **ask them to move in toward the middle of the circle (opposite of the camera) to fill in any empty chairs.**
- Then, ask each facilitator to fill out the seating map on the back of the **Filming Session Summary Sheet** to indicate where everyone is seated, and what unique clothing items each participant is wearing.

During Each of the Three Filming Sessions

To start filming, first, ask the videographer to **zoom in on the top half of a Filming Session Summary Sheet** once the top half is filled out. This will ensure that every video can be identified by watching it.

When a participant arrives late, or leaves early, ask each facilitator to note this, along with the participant's first and last name on the **Filming Session Summary Sheet**.

First Filming Session

If this is the first filming session, please remind participants what the videos will be used for, and what they can do to aid in our filming and evaluation efforts. Please convey this information in particular (in your own words):

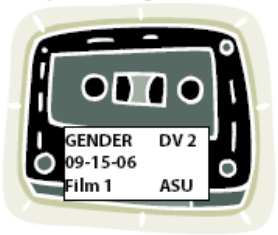
> ***If you get up from you seat for any reason (such as for an activity), please sit in the same seat when you return.*** *These videos will never be used for publicity purposes, and will only be viewed by researchers who are interested in evaluating intergroup dialogues. Only anonymous research IDs will be used for analysis and these videos will be stored under lock and key. We are interested in video-recording a typical intergroup dialogue session, thus, as much as possible; we'd like you all to try to interact with each other as you normally would (i.e., as if the camera were not here).* ***Please avoid speaking to or for the camera, as this tends to be disruptive to the dialogue process.*** **[Note: if a student arrives late during the first filming session, take them aside and review this information with them before they join the dialogue. This will help to prevent latecomers form speaking to and for the camera, which can be disruptive to the rest of the class].**

After Each Filming Session

- Ensure that each facilitator fills out **ALL** of the information requested on the **Filming Session Summary Sheet**, to the best of his/her memory and ability.
- **Compare both facilitator's Filming Session Summary Sheets with the facilitators to look for any discrepancies.** Resolve discrepancies while your collective memory is fresh!
- **Ask the videographer for the two mini-dvs (i.e., that the class session was recorded to), and record the following information on each mini dv tape (see next page).**

On the sticky, peel off labels that go on the FRONT SIDE of the mini-dv TAPE write:

- **RACE *or* GENDER**
- **Filming Date** e.g. "09-15-06"
- **Film 1 (if it's the first filming session), Film 2 (if it's the second filming session), or Film 3 (if it's the third filming session)**
- **DV 1 *or* 2** (since the videos will typically be recorded onto two mini dv tapes, we need to know which mini dv contains the first half of the class, and which contains the second half of the class)
- Abbreviation for your University or College.
- ***Like this:***



On TOP of the mini-dv tape-holder insert, write the same information:

GENDER	**DV 2**
09-15-06	
Film 1	**ASU**

On the SIDE of the mini dv tape-holder insert, write:

- The first and last names of the facilitators*
- The name of the filming contact person/supervisor (you)
- The College or University the filming session took place at

Sara Colby*
John Davis*
Amy Goodman
University of Arizona

Store the Filming Session Summary Sheet and the mini-dvs in a *dry and cool* place until you can mail them, ASAP, and via insured mail to the University of Michigan. Thank you for your cooperation!!!

Filming Session Summary Sheet

Using a loud and clear voice, please announce to the class when you are moving from one phase of an activity to another (e.g., from dialogue to debriefing). This will allow us to mark these transitions later.

Today's Date: _____

Today's Filming Session was the:

☐ 1st of Three ☐ 2nd of Three ☐ 3rd of Three

Facilitators' First and Last Names:

Facilitator: _____

Facilitator: _____

Type of Dialogue:

☐ Race-Ethnicity ☐ Gender

Semester (Choose One):

☐ Fall ☐ Winter ☐ Spring

Name of University or College:

_____

Filming Contact Person/Supervisor:

_____

Approximately how many (non-facilitator) participants attended today?: _____

Who arrived more than fifteen minutes late to class?

(1) First and Last Name of Student: _____

☐ arrived toward the beginning of class ☐ arrived mid-class ☐ arrived toward the end of class

(2) First and Last Name of Student: _____

☐ arrived toward the beginning of class ☐ arrived mid-class ☐ arrived toward the end of class

Who left before the end of class?

(1) First and Last Name of Student: _____

☐ left toward the beginning of class ☐ left mid-class ☐ left toward the end of class

(2) First and Last Name of Student: _____

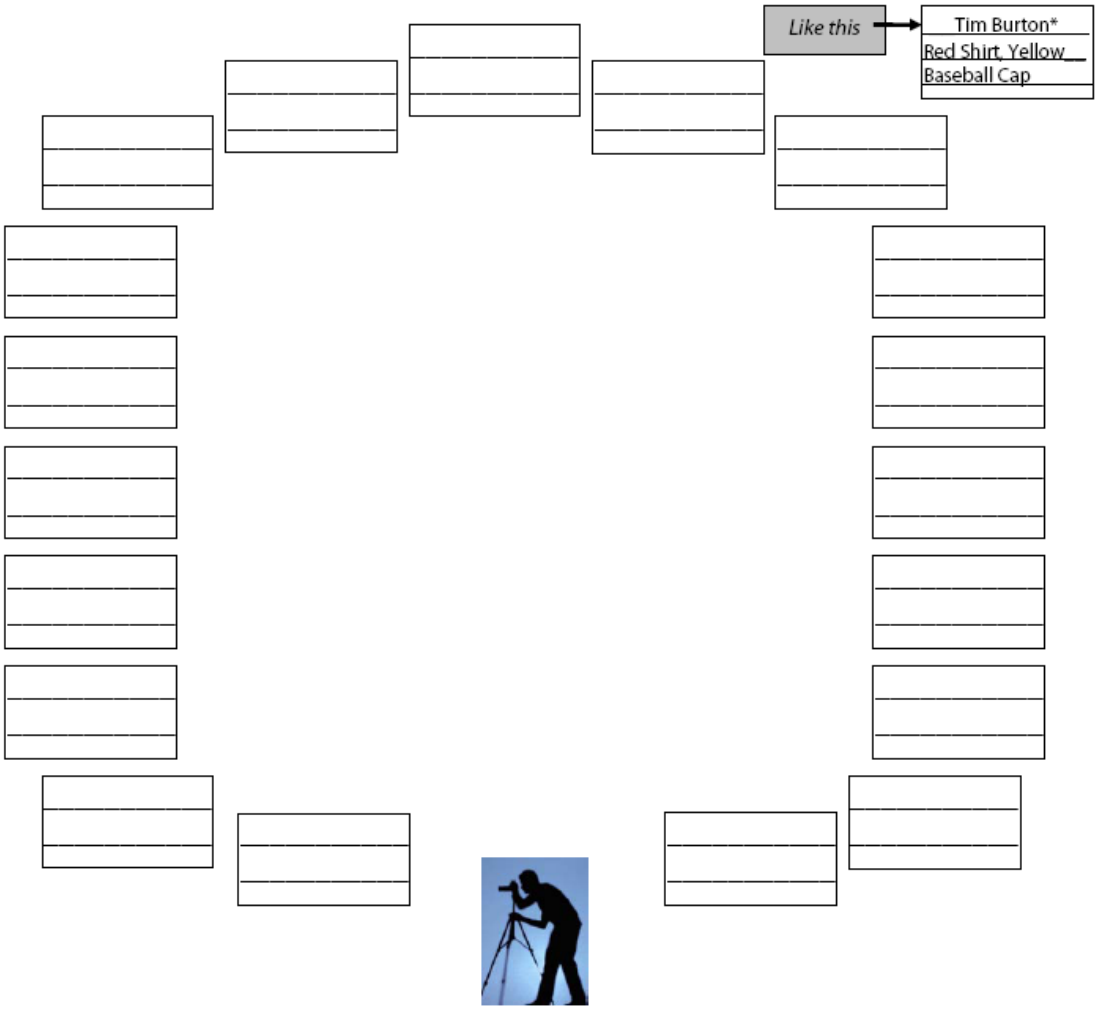
☐ left toward the beginning of class ☐ left mid-class ☐ left toward the end of class

Please see back of this sheet for seating map

Seating Map

We need to know who is sitting where so we can match student's names with their research IDs. Your supervisor will write student research IDs on a blank sheet like this, and then shred this sheet to maintain confidentiality.

- **Please write the first and last name of each student and facilitator in the "chairs" depicted in the seated map below that correspond with where they are sitting.**
- **Briefly describe one or two articles of clothing each person is wearing inside his/her "chair" (see example provided below).**
- **Place a star (*) on the chairs occupied by the facilitators.**
- When class is over, **place an X on "chairs"** depicted below that were **not occupied** by students or facilitators during the class session.



Comments about this Dialogue and Filming Session

Please share anything you would like to about this dialogue and filming session. For example, you may have a few thoughts about how the presence of a camera and videographer influenced dialogue dynamics.

Thank you for your thoughts and assistance.

Q & A, and How to Find and Manage a Film Crew

Q: Who will be filmed and how many times?

- Each **dialogue group** is a cohort that begins and finishes their semester-long course together.
- Each **dialogue group** will be **filmed on three different occasions**:
    1. **Personal Social Identity Wheel Session** (usually session 2 or 3)
    2. **Fish Bowl Session** (usually session 6)
    3. **2nd Hot Topic / Gallery Walk Session** (usually session 9)
- We need the videos to be comparable and **contain the same curricular activities**, **so if a videographer misses a film session, there can be no "make up" filming session.**
- **Allot approximately two-hours for each filming session** (i.e., even if your classes are three hours long).

Q: How many dialogue groups and class sessions is each University responsible for filming?

- **Each University will film two dialogue groups:**
    - **One** group will be a **gender dialogue group**, and
    - **one** group will be a **race/ethnicity dialogue group**.
    - Each of these groups will be filmed on three occasions, during the sessions listed above.
    - This means that each of these institutions should send **video recordings of six dialogue-class sessions** back to the University of Michigan

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Q: What semester should we film?

- Some dialogues will be filmed in the fall
- Most will be filmed in the winter
- Some institutions will film both semesters
- What will work best for your campus?

Q: How do we find a film company, what should we tell them, and how much can we pay them?

- **Call a few film companies in your area to get an idea of the range of per-hour rates available**.
- Here are some suggestions for **who you can contact to get recommendations for film companies** that regularly film classes at your educational institution (because they often have relevant experience and tend to offer the best prices):
    - your institution's **media services center**
    - your institution's **information technology center**
    - your institution's **School of Art and Design**: call a department administrator, and ask them if they can recommend a film company, or if they have any suggestions about who you could contact in their department who might be able to make such a recommendation
    - ask your **colleagues** if they have any recommendations, especially those who you know have been filming classes or lectures
    - if all else fails, use your **Yellow Pages** (and/or do a web-search) and search under:
        - **Video-Taping and Production Services**
        - **Recording Service - Sound and Video**

- ask you call around and ask for estimates, **ask companies that give you outrageously high estimates if they could recommend any budget film companies that might have experience filming classes for educational or research purposes**
- **If there are no film companies in your vicinity, please contact Elizabeth at emeier@umich.edu**, and we can talk about how you might go about training a few students to conduct the filming sessions.

- **Tell each film company:**

  - **how many two-hour filming sessions are needed in total**
  - approximate time frame of filming sessions (e.g., winter semester)
  - then read them the following script, out loud, in person or via phone:
  - We are recording intergroup dialogue videos across ten different colleges and universities solely for research and evaluation purposes. These videos will *never* be edited for public viewing, or shared for promotional or educational purposes.
  - It is important that you understand that every **one minute interval of video** that has fewer than three people in the shot (including the speaker); OR so much background noise that we are not able to transcribe what the speakers are saying **will be counted as "missing data."**
  - If we have too many "missing data" points, we will not be able to fulfill our research contract with the organization that is funding this research. Thus, we would like to emphasize that **we will not be able to complete this research without the full cooperation of a reliable videographer or film company.** If we hire you for this job, we will need your videographers to **memorize and closely adhere to our video-recording protocol.**
  - Also, scheduling a make-up session is not an option for us, and will force us to throw out a set of research videos. Thus, you all will need to arrange to have

someone cover for you if you are not able to make it for a particular filming session.

- **All videos will need to be recorded onto 60-minute mini dv tapes** (63/65 minute mini dv tapes are also o.k.). Longer mini dv tapes tend to break more easily, and we can not afford to lose any video research data.
- We will ask you to bring multiple microphones to filming sessions and set up the microphones in a way that will allow us to transcribe everything that anyone says during whole-class discussions.
- One of our staff members will arrive twenty minutes before each filming session to review our filming protocol with you and help you set up. This individual will remain present during each filming session to help guide you if you have any questions. At the end of the filming session, we'll ask you to give the mini dv tapes to this staff member**.**

- **Ask each film company:**
  - **if they are available for the approximate dates/times needed, or in that period of time (you may need to adjust a few filming dates to fit their availability).**
  - **if they can provide the kind of filming services you are looking for.**

- **To get the best per-hour price** (which will allow us to allocate funds to other much needed expenditures):
  - **One of the first things they will ask you is, "What kind of budget are you working with?" I recommend politely avoiding answering this question** by telling them you are operating on a limited budget, and are calling around to different film companies to get an idea of what it will cost to film these classes (or something along those lines). If you reveal your budget, they will probably estimate that their cost per hour is at the top limit of your budget.

- When getting estimates, tell the filming company how many sessions you'll need filmed, and then **ask if they can offer you a discount rate since you are booking multiple filming sessions**.
- When a filming company offers you a per-hour rate estimate, **ask if there will be any additional costs** associated with each filming session, such as for mini-dvs, set-up time, etc., or **is *everything* included in the price?**
- **Keep track of:**
  - the names and numbers of the film companies you contacted
  - the name of the person who gave you the estimate, and the date the estimate was made
  - the estimated rate per hour, and what all is included in that price
- Once you have received a few estimates, **go with the company that offers the lowest per hour rate with all costs included**, provided that they:
  - **meet most of our specifications**
  - are probably going to be **available** during the most of the times you'll need them, and
  - **appear to be semi-professional** videographers.

- Each institution can pay a filming company **up to a maximum of $240 per hour of filming including all costs** (e.g., for a mini-dv, set-up time, etc.).
- **If the film company charges substantially less than $240,** ask them what their hourly rate would be **if they have an audio-technician** accompany the videographer to filming sessions – **if under $240, add the audio-technician.**
- **If you can *not* find a film crew that will accept $240 an hour, please contact Elizabeth at emeier@umich.edu** or via phone at **734-761-3836** and we can talk about various options.

Q: How do we pick up the mini dv tapes (videos) and mail them to the University of Michigan?

- At the end of each filming session, the **Filming Contact Person** will ask for the mini-dv tapes from the videographer.
- The **Filming Contact Person** will label the mini dv tapes, and collect the **Filming Session Summary Sheets** from each of the facilitators.
- The **Filming Contact Person** needs to store the mini-dvs, together with their associated **Filming Session Summary Sheets** in a secure, cool, dry place until they are ready to be mailed.
- **As soon as possible after each filming session,** Fed-Ex the **mini dv tapes** and the **Filming Session Summary Sheets (with research IDs only)** to the University of Michigan. Multiply the number of mini-dvs by $240 per mini dv tape, and insure the package for that amount. Require a signature upon delivery, and mail to:

The Program on Intergroup Relations
Care of: Kelly Maxwell
3000 Michigan Union
530 S. State Street
Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1308
734-936-1875 (Phone)

"Filming" Protocol for MIGR Video Research Project

MIGR: A Multi-University Evaluation of the Educational Effects of Intergroup Dialogues

We are video recording intergroup dialogues across ten different colleges and universities **solely for research and evaluation purposes**. These videos will *never* be edited for public viewing, or shared for promotional or educational purposes. It is important that you understand that every **one minute interval of video** that has fewer than three people in the shot (including the speaker); OR so much background noise that we are not able to transcribe what the speakers are saying **will be counted as "missing data."** If we have too many "missing data" points, we will not be able to fulfill our research contract with the organization that is funding this research. Thus, we would like to emphasize that:

We will not be able to complete this research without your full cooperation.
We are requesting that you memorize and closely adhere to the filming protocol outlined on these two pages. Thank you, in advance.

- **Please arrange to have someone cover for you if you are not able to make it for a particular filming session,** since scheduling a make-up session is not an option for us, and will force us to throw out a set of research videos.
- **All videos will need to be recorded onto 60-minute mini dv-tapes** (63/65 minute mini dv tapes are also o.k.). Longer mini dv tapes tend to break more easily, and we can not afford to lose any video research data.
- We are interested in transcribing everything that anyone says during whole-class discussions, so please set up microphone(s) in a way that will maximize our ability to hear what everyone is saying when ever a whole-class discussion occurs (see note about small group discussions on page 2).
- Feel free to move around the classroom to video record individuals who you were not able to previously, but please do not step into the dialogue semi-circle during whole-class discussions or film in a way that appears to be disrupting to individuals in the class.
- One of our staff members will arrive twenty minutes before each filming session to review this filming protocol with you and help you set up. This individual will remain present during each filming session to help guide you if you have any questions. At the end of the filming session please give the mini dv tapes to this staff member.
- Please contact **Elizabeth Meier** at the University of Michigan if you have any questions about this video research protocol: **Email: emeier@umich.edu** **Phone: 734-761-3836**

Filming Protocol for MIGR Video Research Project, *Continued*

Most of the Time:

DON'T zoom in on one speaker**:**

DO zoom in on one speaker *and* the two to three other people *around* that speaker**:**

The Only Exception:

If multiple people speak at the same time, or right after one another, zoom out to include everyone speaking in the shot, even if this means including the entire class. Once one person begins speaking uninterrupted, zoom back in to the speaker and the two to three people around him/her.

Filming Facilitators and Small Groups:

Follow the same filming protocol outlined above when filming facilitators, as well as when you are filming students meeting in small groups. When students split up into small groups:

- Randomly choose ONE group to film for the entire small group activity (i.e., ***don't* jump from group to group during a small group activity**).
- Turn any other microphones off for the other groups because we need to transcribe what this one small group is saying (and it will be hard to do this if we are also hearing the other groups talk).

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