

Chemistry Education Research and Practice

## Effectiveness of the Active Learning in Organic Chemistry Faculty Development Workshops

Journal:	Chemistry Education Research and Practice	
Manuscript ID	RP-ART-06-2019-000137.R2	
Article Type:	Paper	
Date Submitted by the Author:	21-Oct-2019	
Complete List of Authors:	Houseknecht, Justin; Wittenberg University, Department of Chemistry Bachinski, Garrin; Wittenberg University Miller, Madelyn; University of Central Florida, Burnett School of Biomedical Sciences White, Sarah; Johns Hopkins University Bloomberg School of Public Health, Health Policy and Management Department Andrews, Douglas; Wittenberg University, Department of Math and Computer Science	

SCHOLARONE<sup>™</sup> Manuscripts

8 9 10

11 12

13

14

15 16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33 34

35

36

## ARTICLE

Received 00th January 20xx,

Accepted 00th January 20xx

DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

# Effectiveness of the Active Learning in Organic Chemistry Faculty Development Workshops

Justin B. Houseknecht, \*<sup>a</sup> Garrin J. Bachinski,<sup>a</sup> Madelyn H. Miller,<sup>b</sup> Sarah A. White,<sup>c</sup> and Douglas M. Andrews<sup>d</sup>

Active learning has been shown to improve student outcomes and learning, yet organic chemistry instructors have been slow to adopt these pedagogies. The Chemistry Collaborations, Workshops, and Communities of Scholars (cCWCS) Active Learning in Organic Chemistry (ALOC) workshops have sought to facilitate the adoption of active learning methods by helping participants define active learning and understand best practices, persuading them to incorporate these practices into their teaching, and supporting their implementation efforts through an online community, Organic Educational Resources (OrganicERs.org). The effectiveness of the workshops was measured over a two-year period using teaching self-efficacy and teaching practices instruments. Comparison to pre-workshop self-efficacy surveys found significant and sustained gains for knowledge about and belief in the efficacy of active learning methods (d = 1.18 compared to pre-workshop responses) and confidence in intention to implement (d = 0.60). Belief that they were implementing more active learning in their classrooms (d = 0.85) was corroborated by the teaching practices survey and survey of class time allocation which also showed statistically significant (p < 0.001) and sustained growth in student centered teaching (d = 1.00), formative assessment (d = 1.00) 1.04), student-student interactions (d = 0.96), and the amount of class time spent with students working in groups (d = 0.68) for the workshop participants. Gains for participants in the 3-hour Active Learning in Organic Chemistry workshops at the 2016 Biennial Conference on Chemical Education (BCCE) were smaller than those in the 4-day ALOC workshops, but still meaningful. These results indicate that the 2015 and 2016 Active Learning in Organic Chemistry faculty development workshops effectively increased participants' knowledge about, belief in the efficacy of, and implementation of active learning methods.

## Introduction

37 It has become increasingly clear in the last several years that in 38 the STEM disciplines generally and chemistry specifically, active 39 learning methods produce student outcomes superior to traditional lecture: higher exam scores (Freeman et al., 2014; 40 41 Warfa, 2016; Wilson and Varma-Nelson, 2016; Crimmins and 42 Midkiff, 2017; Raum, et al., 2017; Apugliese and Lewis, 2017), 43 improved performance on concept inventories (Freeman et al., 44 2014), higher success rates (Paulson, 1999; Freeman et al., 45 2014; Mooring, et al., 2016; Warfa, 2016; Wilson and Varma-46 Nelson, 2016; Crimmins and Midkiff, 2017), and often improved 47 attitudes toward the discipline (Mooring, et al., 2016; Cam and 48 Omer, 2017; Raum et al., 2017; Vishnumolakala et al., 2017), 49 though alternative explanations (e.g., selection bias) have been

<sup>a</sup> Department of Chemistry, Wittenberg University, 200 W Ward St, Springfield, OH 45504.

<sup>b.</sup> Immunity and Pathogenesis Division, Burnett School of Biomedical Sciences, University of Central Florida, Orlando, Florida, 32827.

<sup>c</sup> Health Policy and Management Department, Johns Hopkins School of Public Health, 615 N. Wolfe Street, Baltimore, MD 21205.

58 Electronic Supplementary Information (ESI) available: workshop schedules, 58 statistical details of responses to each item for each workshop, and details of 59 statistical analysis. See DOI: 10.1039/x0xx00000x

60

50

51

52

53

54

55

proposed to explain some results (Chan and Bauer, 2015). Active learning is a term that has been used to define a broad range of evidence-based teaching methods in which students participate in and contribute to class sessions rather than merely observing and taking notes. Most methods are grounded in social constructivism which posits that students develop meaning best through interaction with peers (Palincsar, 1998). Common active learning methods include clearly defined methods such as Process Oriented Guided Inquiry Learning (POGIL, Moog and Spencer, 2008), Peer Instruction (PI, Mazur 1997), Problem-Based Learning (PBL, Duch *et al.*, 2001), and Peer-Led Team Learning (PLTL, Gosser *et al.*, 2000) as well as more generic methods such as the flipped classroom, the use of classroom response systems, and a plethora of collaborative learning techniques (Barkley *et al.*, 2005).

Choice overload from the sheer variety of methods that have been shown to be effective may be part of the reason that so few chemists, outside of chemical education researchers, have implemented active learning methods in their classrooms. One recent survey of more than 800 chemistry faculty found that only 12.9% of faculty self-report that they use a flipped approach ("primary content delivery mode occurs outside of the classroom and the application of content occurs inside the classroom") at least weekly in their courses (Srinivasan *et al.*, 2018). This result is consistent with a cross-disciplinary study of

 <sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup> Department of Math and Computer Science, Wittenberg University, 200 W Ward
St, Springfield, OH 45504.

## Page 2 of 12

#### Journal Name

ARTICLE

more than 2,000 classes which found that Chemistry lags significantly behind the STEM average of 18% of "instructors who incorporate student-centered strategies into large portions of their classes" (Stains *et al.*, 2018). It is also true that the vast majority of chemistry instructors have little experience with active learning – either as students or instructors - and have already invested substantial time and energy becoming proficient at delivering content through lecture. Resistance, particularly of senior colleagues, may be lessening but remains an impediment to change for many chemistry instructors.

## Theoretical Framework

The Teacher-Centered Systematic Reform (TCSR) Model recognizes that instructional transformation is facilitated by three interrelated factors: instructor knowledge and beliefs about teaching, personal factors including experience, and contextual factors (Woodbury and Gess-Newsome, 2002; Gess-Newsome et al., 2003). Gibbons et. al. (2018) have recently demonstrated the impact of instructor beliefs and self-efficacy on teaching practice in a survey of over 1200 chemistry instructors at a broad range of US institutions. Instructor experience, particularly professional development, is a crucial factor for instructional change in the TCSR Model (Fullan, 1991). Contextual factors include: student and classroom characteristics, departmental and disciplinary support, textbook and technology availability, and administrative support (Woodbury and Gess-Newsome, 2002; Gess-Newsome et al., 2003). The TCSR Model is a helpful framework for understanding the factors required for instructional transformation and their interdependence, but does not describe the process by which transformation occurs.

35 Rogers' diffusion of innovations theory describes the 36 innovation decision making process as comprising five stages: 37 knowledge, persuasion, decision, implementation, and finally 38 confirmation (Rogers, 2003). The foundational role of 39 knowledge and persuasion in Rogers' theory is consistent with 40 the key factors of the TCSR Model, particularly the importance 41 of instructor beliefs and self-efficacy (Woodbury and Gess-42 Newsome, 2002; Gess-Newsome et al., 2003). Indeed, 43 educational reformers working within the TCSR Model 44 framework have demonstrated that the change process begins 45 with growth in instructor knowledge and beliefs about teaching 46 (Bauer et al., 2013; Windschitl and Sahl, 2002). Henderson et al. 47 (2012) found that presentations and workshops, particularly the 48 Physics and Astronomy New Faculty Workshop, effectively 49 moved physics faculty through the first three stages of the 50 decision-making process (knowledge, persuasion, and decision), 51 but needed to do more to support faculty during the 52 implementation and confirmation stages. This is consistent with 53 his finding that effective educational change strategies involve 54 two or more of the following: extended contact (a month or 55 more), performance evaluation and feedback, and a deliberate 56 focus on changing faculty attitudes and beliefs (Henderson et 57 al., 2011). These findings suggest that typical faculty 58 development workshops struggle to promote the desired long-59 term change in teaching practice because facilitators don't have 60

meaningful contact (that supports implementation and confirmation) with participants after the conclusion of the workshop. A recent report by Manduca *et al.* (2017) in geosciences education suggests that online communities of practice can provide effective support for the implementation of student-engaged teaching practices which leads to positive confirmation and sustained use of the desired teaching practices.

The theoretical framework for this quantitative study uses the TCSR Model to understand the factors that facilitate instructional transformation and their interconnectivity. Roger's diffusion of innovations theory was used to understand the process of instructional transformation, particularly the role that faculty development workshops can play in moving instructors through the process and supporting their postworkshop activities.

## Workshop Assessment in Chemistry

Discipline and sub-discipline specific faculty development workshops on active learning have been available in chemistry since at least the early 2000's. Despite the prevalence of these workshops there are relatively few reports concerning their effectiveness that go beyond characterizing the workshops, their participants, and their participants' opinion of the workshop. Notable exceptions include the Core Collaborators Workshops (CCW) for biochemistry (Murray et al., 2011), POGIL-PCL workshops for physical chemistry laboratory (Stegall et al., 2016), and Cottrell Scholars Collaborative New Faculty Workshop (CSC-NFW) for chemistry faculty at R1 institutions (Baker et al., 2014; Stains et al., 2015). The CCW and POGIL-PCL workshops focused on POGIL methods whereas the CSC-NFW introduced participants to a variety of evidence-based instructional practices (EBIPs). These studies used primarily selfreported survey results to measure confidence and rates of implementation in the year following workshop attendance, despite evidence that self-reported data is not the best measure of actual teaching practice (Kane et al., 2002; D'Eon et al., 2008; Ebert-May *et al.*, 2011) and that a significant fraction of faculty discontinue use of evidence-based instructional practices after a few uses (Henderson et al, 2012). Most surveys were developed in-house, though the CSC-NFW also used validated surveys to measure teaching beliefs and teaching efficacy. The CSC-NFW studies are also noteworthy for inclusion of a control group and an attempt to assess changes in teaching practice using COPUS (Smith et al., 2013) analysis of video recorded class sessions the semester after and two years after workshop attendance. Unfortunately, with only 22 of 81 workshop participants submitting the first recording and only 3 of those submitting the second it is difficult to argue that the COPUS results provide a meaningful analysis of workshop effectiveness. More recent reports that observation of multiple class periods are required for accurate classification of teaching style further challenges the direct observation approach (Stains et al.<u>, 2018).</u>

1 2

3

4

5

6

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

18

19

20

21

22

23

24

25

26

27

28

29

30

31

32

33

34

35

36

37

38

39

40

41

42

43

44

45

46

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59 60 ARTICLE

#### Journal Name

## Active Learning in Organic Chemistry Workshops

Organic Education Resources (OrganicERs) was founded in 2012 to promote the use of evidence-based instructional practices in the teaching of organic chemistry. Members of the Leadership Board, with support from Chemistry Collaborations, Workshops, and Communities of Scholars (cCWCS), developed OrganicERs.org in 2013 (OrganicERs, 2013). This website, now in conjunction with a private Facebook group (OrganicERs, 2015), continues to host the online community of practice where pedagogical and curricular best-practices are shared and discussed. OrganicERs was also able to host 3-day, 4-day, and 3hour Active Learning in Organic Chemistry workshops from 2013-2018 with the support of cCWCS. The community of practice and workshops have been described in greater detail elsewhere (Leontyev et al., 2019). The purpose of this project is to assess the effectiveness of the two 4-day (ALOC) workshops and two 3-hour (BCCE) workshops held in 2015 and 2016.

Twenty-four participants attended the 2015 4-day (ALOC) workshop in Washington, D.C. and 22 attended the 2016 ALOC workshop in Cincinnati, OH. Most participants taught at 4-year institutions (62%), though community college instructors (20%) and faculty at schools with graduate programs (18%) were also well represented. The workshop facilitators (5 each year) used active learning methods extensively throughout the workshop such that participants gained experience with the methods as students and as instructors. The workshops began with introductions (see Appendix A) and the acknowledgement that personal factors and experience do impact our ability to transform instructional practice (Woodbury and Gess-Newsome, 2002; Gess-Newsome et al., 2003). The remainder of the first evening was used to provide an overview of the active learning methods introduced in the workshop, the theoretical and empirical evidence supporting their efficacy, and the concept of backward design (Wiggins and McTighe, 2006). These sessions were designed to provide a compelling rationale for implementation of active learning methods. Each of the following days began with workshop facilitators describing how they make use of particular EBIPs (Fig. 1) in their own teaching. These sessions were designed to inform participants of the underlying theory and best practices for each method as well as to experience the methods as a student. Afternoon sessions were more practical with introductions to technology (Fig. 1), opportunities to interact with it, and time for participants to design and receive feedback on instructional modules. Workshop facilitators had extensive experience with the EBIPs and technologies introduced and were therefore able to emphasize their compatibility with organic chemistry instruction. The workshops also included a session on summative assessment to help participants' understand bestpractice and provide preparation for the confirmation stage of Roger's diffusion of innovations theory.

A total of 40 participants attended two 3-hour workshops at the 2016 Biennial Conference on Chemical Education (BCCE) at the University of Northern Colorado. These workshops used *Reaching Students: What Research Says About Effective Instruction in Undergraduate Science and Engineering* to

#### Evidence-Based Instructional Practices:

Flipped classroom (Srinivasan *et al.*, 2018) Just-in-Time Teaching (Novak *et al.*, 1999) Detailed learning objectives (Wiggins and McTighe, 2005) Peer Instruction (Mazur, 1997) Collaborative learning (Barkley *et al.*, 2005) Formative assessment (Angelo and Cross, 1993)

#### Technologies:

Livescribe pens
Snaglt
Classroom response systems
EasyOChem
Doceri
Explain Everything

Figure 1 – Primary evidence-based instructional practices and technologies introduced at the 2015 and 2016 4-day ALOC workshops.

provide an overview of evidence-based instructional practices (Kober, 2014). The philosophy of these workshops was similar to the 4-day workshops, but the schedule (Appendix B) was highly compressed. Participants at the BCCE workshops taught primarily at 4-year institutions (57%), but there were more faculty from schools with graduate programs (24%) than at the ALOC workshops. Five percent of participants at the BCCE workshops taught at high schools and the remaining 19% taught at community colleges.

## **Research Questions**

Effectiveness was defined as increasing participants': knowledge about and belief in the efficacy of active learning, proficiency with active learning methods, and implementation of active learning methods in their classrooms. Our research questions are:

- RQ1. Will participants' knowledge about and belief in the efficacy of active learning increase significantly after the workshop and, if so, will those changes be sustained?
- RQ2. Will participants' confidence with active learning methods increase significantly after the workshop and, if so, will those changes be sustained?
- RQ3. Will participants' implementation of active learning methods increase significantly after the workshop and, if so, will those changes be sustained?
- RQ4. Will the 4-day (ALOC) workshops be significantly more effective than the 3-hour (BCCE) workshops?

Effectiveness was measured by comparison of pre- and postworkshop results on self-efficacy and teaching practices surveys, all self-reported by workshop participants. Self-efficacy refers to "an individual's belief in his or her capacity to execute behaviors necessary to produce specific performance attainments" (Bandura, 1999). The self-efficacy survey used in this study was adapted from validated teaching self-efficacy

#### ARTICLE

1 2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

surveys (Prieto-Navarro, 2005; Chang *et al.*, 2010). The teaching practices survey used was the Postsecondary Instructional Practices Survey (PIPS) using the authors' five-factor model (Walter *et al.*, 2016). This instrument, too, has been shown to provide valid and reliable measures of postsecondary teaching practice, particularly for introductory-level courses in the sciences. Limited resources and time between workshop enrollment and participation precluded alternative measures of active learning implementation such as student evaluations of teaching and classroom observation of teaching.

## Methods

16 All the instruments administered to workshop participants were 17 created and distributed through SurveyMonkey 18 (SurveyMonkey, 2019). Administration of all instruments was 19 approved by the Wittenberg University IRB (electronic 20 communication, IRB 082-201516, IRB 107-201617, IRB 080-21 201718).

22 The self-efficacy items (Fig. 2) were adapted for organic 23 chemistry from the previously validated Faculty Teaching 24 Efficacy survey (Prieto-Navarro, 2005) and the College Teaching 25 Self-Efficacy Scale (Chang et al., 2010). All responses were on a 26 five-point Likert scale from "1 - unsure of what this is" to "5 -27 very confident". Participants in the 3-hour workshops (BCCE) 28 received an abbreviated survey that did not include questions 29 about classroom technologies (Q10-18) as these topics were not 30 discussed in the BCCE workshops. The self-efficacy survey was 31 administered to workshop participants one week prior to the 32 workshop, one week after the workshop, and every six months 33 thereafter through 24 months. It was also administered to a 34 control group comprised of participants' departmental 35 colleagues two weeks apart, then 6 months and 12 months 36 thereafter. The Postsecondary Instructional Practices Survey 37 (PIPS) was administered to workshop participants one week 38 after the workshop and every six months thereafter through 24 39 months (Walter et al., 2016). It was discovered late in the data 40 analysis that item 10, "I structure class so that students explore 41 or discuss their understanding of new concepts before formal 42 instruction", was accidently omitted from early administrations 43 of PIPS. This item could not therefore be included in the 44 analysis. Participants that did not respond to the initial request 45 to complete a survey were reminded to complete the survey 2 -46 3 additional times with personal e-mails.

47 Because there are distinct cohorts of participants (ALOC and 48 BCCE) and each participant gave a quantitative response to each 49 of several items/questions at each of several time periods, the 50 data have a "repeated measures" structure with one between-51 blocks factor and two crossed within-blocks factors. The 52 participants themselves are the blocks. The lone between-53 blocks factor is the cohort, and it has two levels, corresponding 54 to the two workshop types. One of the within-blocks factors is 55 the item/question, corresponding to the measurements 56 recorded on each participant at each period. The other within-57 blocks factor is the time period, and it has six levels - though the latter five periods were occasionally aggregated to facilitate 58 59 overall pre-workshop vs. post-workshop comparisons.

#### For the following, please rate how confident you are with each statement:

- Q1) I understand active learning.
- Q2) Evidence supports the effectiveness of active learning.
- Q3) I use active learning in the classroom.
- Q4) I plan to use an increased amount of active learning in the classroom.
- Q5) Specifying the learning goals that I expect my students to attain.
- Q6) Using different teaching methods depending on learning goals.
- Q7) Using different assessment methods depending on learning goals.
- Q8) Actively engaging my students in my classroom.
- Q9) Promoting student preparation for my classes.
- Q10) Utilizing *SnagIt* effectively to enhance student learning outcomes.
- Q11) Utilizing the *iClicker* system effectively to enhance student learning outcomes.
- Q12) Utilizing Nearpod effectively to enhance student learning outcomes.
- Q13) Utilizing *Livescribe* pens effectively to enhance student learning outcomes.
- Q14) Utilizing the *Doceri* system effectively to enhance student learning outcomes.
- Q15) Utilizing *Explain Everything* effectively to enhance student learning outcomes.
- Q16) Utilizing Peer-to-Peer learning effectively to enhance student learning outcomes.
- Q17) Utilizing written learning objectives effectively to enhance student learning outcomes.
- Q18) Utilizing reading prompts effectively to enhance student learning outcomes.
- Q19) Recognizing this community as a resource that can help me create an active learning environment in my classroom.
- Q20) Seeking help from members of this community.

Figure 2 - Items on the self-efficacy survey. Response options were: (1) unsure of what this is, (2) Not confident at all, (3) Not very confident, (4) Somewhat confident, (5) Very confident

There are a total of 44 items/questions. The 20 self-efficacy questions are separated into five groups: Knowledge, OrganicERs, Intent, Proficiency, and Implementation. The 24 items on the PIPS instrument were divided into five subscales and Time Allocation (four options). These 14 groups of items/questions were analyzed separately, mostly in a series of 14 repeated measures analyses as described above.

Exploratory data analysis included visualizations of the main effects and interaction effects of the cohort, period, and item/question factors on the participants' responses. Formal repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) modeling and inferential testing then showed which combination of these factors was most relevant in explaining the responses. The formal analysis was followed up with pairwise comparisons (using Tukey's adjustment to minimize the risk of false positive differences) to determine which cohort, periods, and items/questions had different responses, and by how much. The effect sizes were expressed both on the original scale and on a standardized scale using Cohen's *d* (Cohen, 1988), and were expressed both with single-number estimates and with confidence intervals. All analysis was performed using R (R Core Team, 2018) via RStudio (RStudio Team, 2018).

Effect sizes in this report were calculated using Cohen's d which can be understood as how much of a standard deviation a measurement changed (Cohen, 1988). Changes of 20% of a standard deviation (d value of 0.2) are generally considered small, changes of 0.5 d are considered moderate, and changes greater than 0.8 d are generally considered large. Effect sizes

3

4

5

6

7

8 9 10

11

## Journal Name

can also be calculated from analysis of variance (ANOVA) studies by determining the percentage of variance explained by group membership. These are often reported as eta-squared values; values less than 1% ( $\eta^2 < 0.01$ ) are generally considered small, values near  $\eta^2 = 0.06$  are considered moderate, and values of  $\eta^2 > 0.14$  are considered large (Cohen, 1988).

## Results and discussion

12 The validity of the self-efficacy survey is supported by several 13 factors. First, the structure of the survey and each item was 14 adapted from previously validated instruments (Prieto-Navarro, 15 2005; Chang et al., 2010). Second, content validity is supported 16 because each item was developed from the workshop 17 objectives developed by the facilitators. Test-retest reliability of 18 the self-efficacy survey was assessed using a control group that 19 did not attend the workshops. Participants in the 4-day ALOC 20 workshops recruited chemistry colleagues that completed the 21 self-efficacy survey twice, two weeks apart. Comparison of the 22 first two administrations for 26 control subjects provided a 23 Pearson correlation coefficient of 0.85, standard error of 24 measurement of 0.58, and an 86% chance of identical responses 25 according to a paired *t*-test. The average corrected effect size 26 was small (g = 0.20) and the largest was medium (g = 0.47, Q9, 27 Fig. 2) using Cohen's guidelines (Cohen, 1988). Standard errors 28 of measurement for individual items ranged from 0.3 to 0.9 with 29 an average of 0.54 ( $\pm$ 0.14). These results indicate that the self-30 efficacy survey produced reliable data and valid inferences for 31 use with chemistry faculty despite being adapted from self-32 efficacy instruments originally designed for use across the 33 university with non-native English speakers.

34 Coefficient  $\alpha$ -values were calculated for each of the five 35 factors on the PIPS (Table 1) to determine its internal 36 consistency with the ALOC and BCCE cohorts. All coefficient  $\alpha\text{-}$ 37 values were similar to, but greater than, those reported by 38 Walter et al. with the exception of the content delivery factor 39 for the ALOC cohort which was marginally lower (Walter et al., 40 2016). Walter et al. (2016) established the validity of the PIPS 41 instrument, in part, with both exploratory and confirmatory 42 factor analysis. We were not able to perform CFA of the PIPS 43 instrument with our population due to small sample size.

44 Response rates for the self-efficacy and instructional 45 practices surveys for the participants in the 4-day ALOC 46 workshops were above 50% for all administrations with an 47 average of 74% (Table 2). The 3-hour BCCE workshop 48 participant response rates were less with a low of 38% and an 49 average of 52%. Response rates tended to be lowest for the 18-50 month surveys that were administered during the academic 51 year and response rates decreased slightly over time. These 52 response rates are similar to those reported for the CSC-NFW 53 (59%, Baker et al., 2014) and POGIL-PCL (69%, Stegall et al, 54 2016) workshops. The CCW had remarkably higher response 55 rates (90% of attendees at their second workshop), though only 56 18 of 24 total participants responded (Murray et al., 2011). It is 57 not unexpected that the highest response rates are for cohorts 58 that attended multiple multi-day workshops (CCW) and the 59 lowest for those that attended only a 3-hour workshop (BCCE). 60

Factor	# Items	ALOC α	BCCE α	Lit αª
Content Delivery	4	0.617	0.728	0.644
Student Centered	5	0.854	0.925	0.606
Formative Assessment	5	0.760	0.864	0.641
Student-Student Interactions	6	0.869 <sup>b</sup>	0.971 <sup>b</sup>	0.825
Summative Assessment	4	0.457	0.509	0.447

<sup>a</sup> Walter *et al.*, 2016. <sup>b</sup> Item 10 omitted.

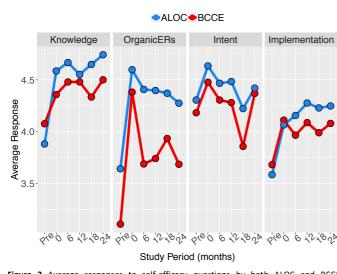
Table 2 Survey response rates				
	Control ( <i>N</i> = 26)	2015 ALOC ( <i>N</i> = 24)	2016 ALOC ( <i>N</i> = 22)	2016 BCCE ( <i>N</i> = 40)
Pre-Workshop	100	100	100	83
1 week	100	88	96	53
6 months	27	58	73	60
12 months	31	63	64	63
18 months		63	55	38
24 months		71	64	48

#### Knowledge, Beliefs, and Intent

Rogers' diffusion of innovation theory recognizes that before instructors implement new innovations they must understand the innovation, be persuaded that it could be beneficial, and make the decision to implement it (Rogers, 2003). The Teacher-Centered Systematic Reform Model also recognizes that contextual factors, such as disciplinary support (e.g., OrganicERs), are important factors influencing the success of implementation (Woodbury and Gess-Newsome, 2002; Gess-Newsome et al., 2003). Several items on the self-efficacy survey probed workshop participants' confidence in their understanding of active learning (Q1), belief that it is effective (Q2), the ability of OrganicERs to support their implementation efforts (Q's 19 and 20), and confidence in their intent to implement more active learning methods in their teaching (Q4). Figure 3 shows how average responses to Questions 1 and 2 (Knowledge), Questions 19 and 20 (OrganicERs), and Question 4 (Intent) changed over time for the 4-day ALOC and 3-hour BCCE workshop participants.

Participants at both ALOC and BCCE workshops reported significant and sustained knowledge gains after attendance. Repeated measures ANOVA modeling showed that period (F(5,592) = 35.2, p < 0.001) and workshop type (F(1,592) = 8.7, p < 0.001)p = 0.003) were important factors. Self-reported knowledge differences among the post-workshop responses were not statistically significant (p > 0.25), but the difference between average pre-workshop response and average post-workshop response (+0.59) was significant (p < 0.001) with a very large effect size of more than a standard deviation (d = 1.18) as summarized in Table 3. Participants at the 4-day ALOC workshops did report moderately greater knowledge gains (+0.12, d = 0.23) than participants at the 3-hour BCCE workshops due partially to starting at a lower average knowledge and partially to a higher average after the workshops. Stains et al. (2015) also studied the knowledge and

#### Journal Name



**Figure 3** Average responses to self-efficacy questions by both ALOC and BCCE participants. Similar items were condensed into Knowledge (Q1, Q2), OrganicERs (Q19, Q20), Intent (Q4), and Implementation (Q3, Q5-8).

beliefs of the CSC-NFW participants before and after their workshop. They found no significant change in the number of evidence-based instructional practices (EBIPs) their control group knew, but a large change (from 8 to 14 EBIPs) for workshop participants immediately after the workshop. This change was sustained after 12 months with 15 EBIPs. Scores on the student-centered scale of the Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI) also increased slightly (effect size, r = 0.23) immediately after the CSC-NFW, but returned to pre-workshop levels one year later. It is not surprising that college faculty retain knowledge about teaching practices for a year (CSC-NFW) or two (ALOC and BCCE). The large and sustained increases we observed in ALOC and BCCE participants' belief that active learning methods are effective (Q2), however, are surprising. It is possible that this belief was sustained due to adequate support for implementation within the OrganicERs community and/or confirmation of effectiveness due to high levels of implementation.

Disciplinary support can be an important factor in whether faculty successfully implement teaching innovations (Woodbury and Gess-Newsome, 2002; Gess-Newsome et al., 2003). Questions 19 and 20 on the self-efficacy survey (Fig. 2) assessed whether ALOC and BCCE workshop participants recognize OrganicERs as a resource (Q19) from which they feel comfortable seeking help (Q20). Repeated measures ANOVA modeling showed that period (F(5,595) = 31.2, p < 0.001), workshop type (F(1,595) = 90.1, p < 0.001), and question (F(1,595) = 11.6, p = 0.001) were important factors. Initial gains were significant (p < 0.001, d = 1.42). Participants' confidence in OrganicERs decreased at the 6-month survey (p = 0.002, d = -0.51), particularly of those that attended the BCCE workshops (Fig. 3). Even with this decline, the average responses on these items after the workshops were significantly greater than the pre-workshop survey (p < 0.001, d = 1.02). Responses from the ALOC participants did express significantly more confidence in OrganicERs than those of the BCCE participants (+0.56, p < 0.001, d = 0.74) as expected due to greater length of interaction. The high, and particularly for ALOC participants, sustained average responses to these items is an indication that workshop participants were confident OrganicERs could be a source of disciplinary support as they implement instructional change.

The hope and expectation of the workshops was that increasing participants' knowledge about and belief in the efficacy of active learning methods and connecting them with disciplinary support would increase their intention (Q4, Fig. 2) to implement these methods in their courses after the workshop. Figure 3 illustrates that participants' confidence in their intention to implement active learning methods did increase significantly immediately after the workshops (p <0.001, d = 0.60). Responses varied over the following 2 years with particularly low average responses 18-months after the workshops. This is not unexpected as intent should diminish once methods have already been implemented and our experience is that few instructors implement major instructional change in the midst of an academic year. ANOVA modeling showed that in addition to period (F(5,249) = 5.0, p < 1000.001), workshop type attended was also an important factor (F(1,249) = 8.3, p = 0.004). Participants at the 4-day ALOC workshops reported stronger confidence in their intent to implement more active learning methods throughout the duration of the study (+0.17, p = 0.004, d = 0.32).

Participant responses to the self-efficacy survey suggest that they believe that the ALOC and BCCE workshops did effectively increase their knowledge about and belief in the efficacy of active learning methods and these increases were sustained for at least two years after workshop attendance (RQ1). The survey also found that participants' confidence in their intent to incorporate more active learning methods in their teaching increased after the workshops.

Table 3 Effect of peri	od and worksho	p type on sel	f-reported gains	5.
	<b>Period</b> (all post-workshop vs. pre-workshop)		Works (ALOC vs.	•
	Cohen's d	p	Cohen's d	p
Knowledge	1.18	< .001	0.23	0.003
OrganicERs	1.02	< .001	0.74	< .001
Intent	0.60*	< .001*	0.32	< .001
Proficiency	0.78	< .001	N/A	N/A
Implementation	0.85	< .001	0.15	< .001
Student- centered	1.00	< .001	0.59	< .001
Formative assessment	1.04	< .001	0.60	< .001
Interactive	0.96	< .001	0.38	0.007
% Lecture	0.77	< .001	0.28	0.038
% Small Groups	0.68	< .001	0.23	0.090
*Comparison of only	the 1-week po	st-workshop	to the pre-wo	rkshop responses.

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

17

47

48

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59 60

#### Journal Name

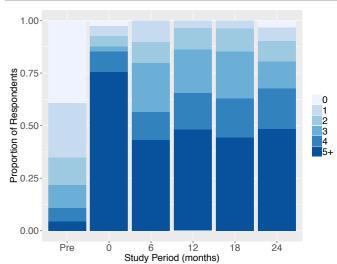
#### Confidence with Active Learning Methods

The TCSR Model suggests that confidence with reformed teaching methods is a prerequisite for their implementation (Woodbury and Gess-Newsome, 2002; Gess-Newsome *et al.*, 2003). Questions 3 and 5 – 9 assess whether participants had confidence implementing the evidence-based methods discussed in the workshops (Figs. 2 and 3). Repeated measures ANOVA modeling found that period (F(5,1947) = 54.8, p = 0.000), workshop type (F(1,1947) = 11.3, p = 0.001), and question (F(5,1947) = 43.6, p = 0.000) were all important contributors to the observed change in responses. Average responses increased immediately following the workshops and this increase grew further over the following two years (p < 0.001, d = 0.85). The difference between ALOC and BCCE workshops was small (p < 0.001, d = 0.15).

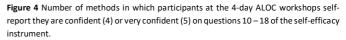
18 Questions 10 - 18 on the self-efficacy survey (Fig. 2) 19 measured 4-day ALOC workshop participants' confidence using 20 particular teaching methods. A stated goal of the workshops 21 was for participants to become proficient with the use of at least 22 two of the nine methods that were discussed at the workshops. 23 As shown in Figure 4, approximately one third of respondents 24 rated themselves as proficient (4 or 5 on the Likert scale) with 25 two or more methods prior to the workshop. This percentage 26 increased three-fold (to > 90%) after the workshops and was 27 sustained over the two-years that participants were queried. 28 The percentage of respondents confident in their ability to use 29 five or more methods increased by 70% during the workshop 30 and remained constant at about 50% for the remainder of the 31 study. Repeated measures ANOVA modeling found that period 32 (*F*(5,230) = 14.5, *p* < 0.001) and participant (*F*(46, 230) = 3.5, *p* < 33 0.001) explained 51% of variation in the responses. 34 Respondents, on average, became confident or very confident 35 on two additional methods (p < 0.001, d = 0.78) after ALOC 36 workshop attendance. These results indicate that the ALOC 37 workshops were highly effective at improving participants' 38 confidence using active learning methods and that these gains 39 remained steady from 6-24 months after the workshops (RQ2). 40 These results are similar to those seen with participants in the 41 CCW where prior to the workshop only 28% of participants were 42 "confident" or "very confident" in their ability to implement 43 POGIL techniques, but this increased to 78% eight months after 44 the workshop (Murray et al., 2011). 45

## Implementation of Evidence-Based Methods a

Belief in the efficacy of active learning methods and confidence in one's ability to implement them are necessary for effective implementation, but they do not guarantee that implementation will occur as personal and contextual factors can remain significant obstacles (Woodbury and Gess-Newsome, 2002; Gess-Newsome *et al.*, 2003). Items from the self-efficacy survey, analysis of results from the Postsecondary Instructional Practices Survey (PIPS), and self-reported allocation of class time were used to determine whether workshop participants believed that they had implemented the evidence-based, active learning methods discussed in the workshops.



ARTICLE



The CCW and POGIL-PCL workshop conducted surveys 7-8 months post-workshop to determine the extent to which participants implemented workshop-specific modules (Murray et al., 2011; Stegall et al., 2016). Most CCW and POGIL-PCL participants, 90% and 77% respectively, reported implementing at least some workshop material within this timeframe, though only 42% of the POGIL-PCL participants reported using the modules regularly. The CSC-NFW study also found statistically significant increases in the number and frequency of evidencebased methods participants reported implementing (Stains et al., 2015). Their control group and workshop participants both reported using more EBIPs one year after the workshop, but the increase was greater for the participants (p = 0.044,  $\eta^2 = 0.062$ ). The CSC-NFW participants also reported using EBIPs more frequently one year after the workshop, particularly group work  $(p = 0.018, \eta^2 = 0.086)$ , whole class discussion  $(p = 0.047, \eta^2 =$ 0.061), and move into class (p = 0.015,  $\eta^2 = 0.091$ ). These increases were statistically significant compared to the control group which reported decreased frequency of use.

#### Self-efficacy survey

The majority of questions on the self-efficacy survey provided insight on whether participants had implemented active learning methods. The increase in respondent confidence in implementation of active learning methods (Q3 and 5 - 8, Fig. 3) and the large percentage (90%) of ALOC respondents that remain confident in their ability to use at least two active learning methods after two years (Fig. 4) suggests that they are using these methods in their teaching.

#### **PIPS subscale analysis**

The Postsecondary Instructional Practices Survey (PIPS) was used, in addition to items on the self-efficacy survey, as a measure of whether workshop participants believe that they have implemented active learning methods. Our hypothesis was that scores on the student-centered teaching, formative assessment, and student-student interactions subscales would increase for workshop participants that incorporate active

#### ARTICLE

1 2

learning methods. Figure 5 shows that scores on these scales 3 increased as expected from the large (d = 0.85) reported 4 increase in confidence using active learning methods (above), 5 particularly for the ALOC workshops. Scores on the student-6 centered teaching (F(1,173) = 45.2, p < 0.001, d = 1.00),7 formative assessment (*F*(1,172) = 48.8, *p* < 0.001, *d* = 1.04), and 8 student-student interactions (F(1,172) = 41.9, p < 0.001, d =9 0.96) scales all increased by approximately one standard 10 deviation from pre-workshop levels. These are large 11 improvements that, particularly in conjunction with the self-12 efficacy and time allocation data, provide strong evidence that 13 the 4-day ALOC and 3-hour BCCE workshops effectively 14 increased the implementation of active learning, evidence-15 based instructional practices in participants' courses. 16 Approximately two-thirds of ALOC and one-half of BCCE 17 participants reported increases of at least half a standard 18 19 deviation on the student-centered teaching, formative assessment, and student-student interaction scales after two 20 years. These proportions are roughly comparable to the 77% of 21 participants that implemented some material and 42% that 22 23 reported using the modules regularly within 8 months of the POGIL-PCL workshop (Stegall et al., 2016). Participants at the 24 ALOC workshops reported greater gains for the student-25 centered teaching, formative assessment, and student-student 26 interaction scales than participants at the BCCE workshops 27 (Table 3). It is possible that the larger effect sizes observed with 28 the PIPS instrument are due to its greater sensitivity than the 29 other measures of implementation we used. Scores on the 30 content delivery (F(1,173) = 13.4, p < 0.001, d = 0.54) and 31 summative assessment (F(1,172) = 1.1, p = 0.309, d = 0.15) 32 scales decreased after the workshops. 33

#### 34 Allocation of class time

The PIPS instrument also asked respondents to estimate the 35 percentage of class time spent on lecture, individual work, small 36 37 group work, and other pedagogies. Though lacking detail, this 38 does provide another measure of whether workshop participants believe they altered their teaching practice after 39 workshop attendance. Figure 6 illustrates that workshop 40 participants, particularly the ALOC cohort, reported a reduction 41 in the percentage of time spent lecturing the whole class in the 42 four semesters following workshop attendance (-11%, F(4,165) 43 = 7.7, p < 0.001, d = 0.77). Workshop type was also an important 44 45 factor in the ANOVA modeling (F(1,165) = 4.4, p = 0.038, d =0.28). 46

47 The reduction in self-reported time spent lecturing corresponded to an increase in the percent of time spent with 48 students working in small groups (+11%, p < 0.001, d = 0.68). 49 This medium effect size is comparable to that reported for CSC-50 51 NFW participant use of small group work (p = 0.018,  $\eta^2 = 0.086$ ) one year after their workshop (Stains et al., 2015). Changes to 52 the amount of time spent with students working individually or 53 "other" were negligible. Repeated measures ANOVA modeling 54 also found that participants in the ALOC workshop reported 55 higher levels of small group work than BCCE participants (+4%, 56 p = 0.095, d = 0.23) despite reporting less use of small group 57 work in the semester before workshop attendance. 58



Page 8 of 12

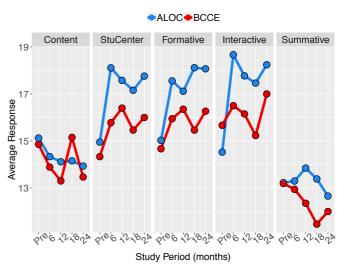


Figure 5 Workshop participant scores on the Content, Student-Centered, Formative Assessment, Student-Student Interactions, and Summative Assessment subscales of the PIPS instrument.

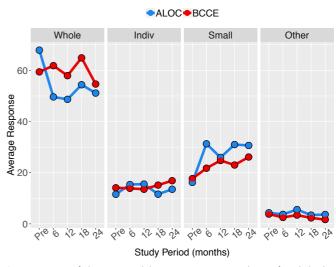


Figure 6 Percent of class time workshop participants reported using for whole class lecture, individual work, small group work, and other.

The self-efficacy survey, analysis of the PIPS instrument subscales, and the survey of time allocation in class meetings all suggest that ALOC and BCCE workshop participants believed that they increased their implementation of evidence-based, active learning methods after workshop attendance. The large magnitude and consistency of these increases (Table 3) provide great confidence that the ALOC and BCCE workshops were effective in their goal to increase implementation of evidencebased, active learning methods in the organic chemistry courses of participants (RQ3).

#### Efficacy of 4-Day ALOC versus 3-Hour BCCE Workshops

The final research question (RQ4) is whether the 4-day ALOC workshops were significantly more effective than the 3-hour workshops facilitated at the 2016 BCCE. Review of Figures 3, 5, and 6 as well as Table 3 show that both types of workshop effectively changed participants' knowledge, beliefs, and

#### Journal Name

2 teaching practices. The effect size for these changes were in the 3 medium to large range. Pre-workshop survey responses largely 4 indicate that the ALOC and BCCE participants entered the 5 workshop with similar profiles. Exceptions include higher 6 responses for the ALOC participants on knowledge of 7 OrganicERs (Fig. 3) and time spent on whole-class lecture (Fig. 8 6) as well as lower average responses regarding their knowledge 9 about active learning methods and belief in its efficacy (Fig. 3) 10 and use of student-student interactions (Fig. 5). These 11 differences suggest that, on average, participants at the ALOC 12 workshops were slightly less likely to be using active learning 13 practices before the workshops. 14

Participants in the 4-day ALOC workshops reported, on 15 average, greater change than participants in the 3-hour BCCE 16 workshops such that two years after the workshops ALOC 17 participants were more likely to be using active learning 18 19 practices by every measure in this study. Repeated measures ANOVA modeling found that the effect of workshop type was 20 significant, but small (d = 0.15 to 0.38) for each measure other 21 than recognition of OrganicERs as a resource (Q19) from which 22 23 they feel comfortable seeking help (Q20) (d = 0.74), the PIPS student-centered scale (d = 0.59), and the PIPS formative 24 assessment scale (d = 0.60, Table 3). The large effect for 25 confidence in OrganicERs suggests that the 4-day ALOC 26 workshops did a much better job incorporating workshop 27 participants into our community of practice than the shorter, 3-28 hour BCCE workshops. Even with the medium to large effect 29 sizes for the PIPS student-centered and formative assessment 30 scales, participants at the 3-hour BCCE workshops reported 31 significant gain. The other, smaller effect sizes suggest to us that 32 33 the shorter workshops, though less effective than the 4-day workshops, are valuable experiences that have measurable 34 impacts upon teaching knowledge, beliefs, and practice. 35

## Limitations

36

37

38

60

39 It is important to note several limitations of this study. First, all 40 data in this study is self-reported and therefore subject to errors 41 of self-perception (Kane et al., 2002; D'Eon et al., 2008; Ebert-42 May et al., 2011). It would have been preferable to at least 43 corroborate this data with data from direct observation, but the 44 short amount of time between workshop acceptance and 45 attendance along with resource limitations made direct 46 observation impossible. Second, the self-efficacy instrument 47 was adapted from instruments that were validated with 48 university instructors from across the disciplines whose native 49 language was not, primarily, English (Prieto-Navarro, 2005; 50 Chang et al., 2010). Attempts were made to validate the self-51 efficacy instrument for English-speaking chemistry faculty, but 52 it would have been preferable to use more than 26 subjects for 53 this effort. Finally, it is not possible to predict whether 54 workshop participants would have increased their use of active 55 learning methods regardless of workshop attendance. Ideally 56 participants' gains could be compared to those of a control 57 group of chemistry instructors that didn't attend a workshop or 58 interact with anyone who had, but finding such a group of 59

faculty with sufficient motivation to respond to 44 questions five times over a period of two years was not possible.

#### Conclusions

Self-efficacy and instructional practice surveys were used to measure the effectiveness of 4-day ALOC and 3-hour BCCE workshops. The surveys were administered one week before the workshop (self-efficacy only), one week after the workshop, and every six months thereafter for two years. This extended observation period was important to differentiate between participants who abandoned EBIPs after one or two trials and those who, after initial implementation, received positive confirmation of its success and committed to sustained use of the EBIPs (Henderson *et al.*, 2012; Rogers, 2003). Approximately two-thirds of ALOC participants and half of BCCE participants provided responses to these surveys.

The self-efficacy survey, analysis of the PIPS subscales, and changes in the use of class time all suggest that the workshops were highly effective. Participants' knowledge about and belief in the efficacy of active learning methods increased by more than a standard deviation (d = 1.18) after the workshops and this change was sustained over the two years that participants were surveyed (Fig. 3). The 4-day ALOC workshops also had a large effect on participants' beliefs in the OrganicERs community of practice (Fig. 3) and proficiency with active learning methods (Fig. 4). Immediately after the workshops, participants had a greater intention to implement active learning methods (d = 0.60, Fig. 3) and all indications are that they did so. Participants: reported higher levels of confidence in implementation (d = 0.85, Fig. 3); scored higher on the studentcentered (d = 1.00), formative assessment (d = 1.04), and student-student interactions (d = 0.96) scales of the PIPS (Fig. 5); reported lower use of whole class lecture (d = 0.77, Fig. 6); and reported higher use of small group work (d = 0.68, Fig. 6). The large and consistent magnitude of these changes provide good reason to believe that the 4-day ALOC and 3-hour BCCE workshops effectively disseminated evidence-based instruction practices amongst organic chemistry instructors who then implemented these methods in their own courses and confirmed their effectiveness (Rogers, 2003).

The reported significant and sustained changes in teaching knowledge, beliefs, and practice reported by participants at the 4-day ALOC and 3-hour BCCE workshops are similar to or greater than those reported for the Core Collaborators Workshops (CCW) for biochemistry (Murray et al., 2011), POGIL-PCL workshops for physical chemistry laboratory (Stegall et al., 2016), and Cottrell Scholars Collaborative New Faculty Workshop (CSC-NFW) for chemistry faculty at R1 institutions (Baker et al., 2014; Stains et al., 2015). This report extends that of Stains et al. who found that participants in the CSC-NFW retained the knowledge gained at their workshop for a year; participants in the ALOC and BCCE workshops retained their knowledge gained for two years. Our findings, however, differ from the CSC-NFW in that the change in beliefs about the efficacy of active learning methods (Q4, Fig. 2) was also sustained over the two-year course of the study; Stains et al.

Journal Name

#### ARTICLE

1 2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

36 37

38 39

40

41

42 43

44 45

46

47

48

49 50 51

52

53

54

55

56

57

58

59 60 (2015) found that beliefs in specific student-centered instructional practices on the Approaches to Teaching Inventory (ATI) reverted to pre-workshop levels a year after workshop attendance. The methods used to evaluate the CCW and POGIL-PCL workshops, likewise, make it unclear whether participants continued to implement POGIL modules beyond the academic year following workshop attendance.

The success of the ALOC and BCCE workshops is 10 undoubtedly due to a variety of factors. We believe that four of 11 these are worth noting. First, the workshops were conceived 12 and designed as a means of incorporating participants into a 13 community of practice focused on evidence-based instructional 14 practices in organic chemistry. We have intentionally sought to 15 incorporate diverse pedagogical and institutional perspectives 16 into this community. Second, workshop participants learn about 17 each evidence-based teaching practice, see it modeled while 18 19 experiencing it as a learner, and develop learning artifacts that address key learning challenges faced by their organic chemistry 20 students during the workshops. Third, workshops were led by 21 organic chemistry instructors with years of experience using 22 23 active, evidence-based instructional practices in their courses. Finally, assessment has been an integral component of our 24 attempt to continually improve the workshops. The process of 25 developing clear and concise delineation of workshop 26 objectives required for assessment provided clarity to 27 facilitators and a cohesive experience for participants. We have 28 also been able to use preliminary survey results to eliminate 29 discussion of some technologies that participants did not 30 implement and incorporate others. Finally, the surprisingly 31 positive results from the 2016 BCCE workshops encouraged us 32 to continue offering 3-hour workshops at BCCE despite our 33 perception that three hours is too little time to accomplish 34 lasting change. 35

## Conflicts of interest

The corresponding author (JBH) of this report was also a facilitator of each workshop and is on the Leadership Board of OrganicERs.

## Acknowledgements

The authors wish to acknowledge cCWCS for funding the 4-day ALOC workshops (NSF #1022895), the Wittenberg University Department of Chemistry and the Virginia Ellis Franta Fund for financial support, and Alexey Leontyev for guidance.

## Appendix A: Sample 4-Day ALOC Schedule

#### Monday Evening

6-7 pm	Welcome and Introductions
7-8 pm	Overview of Active Learning Pedagogies
8-9 pm	Backward Design

## Tuesday

8:30-9:15	The Flipped Classroom at IPFW
9:15-10:00	The Flipped Classroom at RCGC
10:15-12:00	Using the Tools (Livescribe and SnagIt)
1:00-1:10	Group Photo
1:10-1:30	cCWCS and OrganicERs.org
1:30-2:45	Clicker technology and use
3:15-4:00	Hands-on activities with clickers
4:00-4:30	EasyOChem
4:30-5:30	The Flipped Lab at Dartmouth
5:30-6:00	Reflection

#### Wednesday

8:30-9:00	Just-in-Time Teaching at Wittenberg
9:00-9:30	Just-in-Time Teaching at Centre
10:00-11:30	Learning Objectives and Reading Prompts
12:30-1:45	Using the Tools (Doceri and Explain Everything)
1:45-2:30	Assessments
3:00-5:30	Concept Inventory Development
5:30-6:00	Reflection

#### Thursday

8:30-9:15	Discussion with previous participant
9:15-10:00	Introducing active learning to others
10:30-11:45	Brainstorming – how will your teaching change?
11:45-12:00	Evaluations

## **Appendix B: Sample 3-Hour BCCE Schedule**

10 min	Introductions
20 min	Chapters 1 and 2 – Thinking about learning and
	teaching as a researcher would
	Evidence for effectiveness of active learning
	Learning goals
30 min	Chapter 3 – Using insights about learning to inform
	teaching
	Constructivism
	Metacognition
60 min	Chapter 4 – Designing instruction
	Think-Pair-Share
	Peer Instruction
	Just-in-Time Teaching
	Interactive exercises
	Cooperative / collaborative learning
30 min	Chapter 5 – Assessing and adapting
30 min	Chapter 6 – Overcoming challenges

## **Notes and references**

Angelo, T. A. and Cross, K. P. (1993), *Classroom Assessment Techniques: A Handbook for College Teachers*; Jossey-Bass: San Francisco, CA.

Apugliese A. and Lewis S. E. (2017), Impact of instructional decisions on the effectiveness of cooperative learning in chemistry through meta-analysis. *Chem. Educ. Res. Pract.*, **18**(1), 271–278.

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

14

15

16

17

19

27

28

29

30

40

41

47

49

50

51

52

53

54

55

56

57

- Journal Name
- Baker, L. A., Chakraverty, D., Columbus, L., Feig, A. L., Jenks, W. S., Pilarz, M., Stains, M., Waterman, R., Wesemann, J. L. (2014), Cottrell scholars collaborative new faculty workshop: Professional development for new chemistry faculty and initial assessment of its efficacy. J. Chem. Educ., 91, 1874-1881.
- Bandura, A. (1999), Self-efficacy: The Exercise of Control. New York, NY: W. H. Freeman.
- Barkley, E.F., Cross, K.P., Major, C.H. (2005) Collaborative Learning Techniques, 1st ed. San Francisco: Wiley.
- Bauer, C., Libby, R. D., Scharberg, M., Reider, D. (2013), Transformative research-based pedagogy workshops for chemistry graduate students and postdocs. J. Coll. Sci. Teach., 43. 36-43. 13
  - Cam, A. and Omer, G. (2017), Effectiveness of case-based learning instruction on pre-service teachers' chemistry motivation and attitudes toward chemistry. Res. Sci. Technol. Educ., 35(1), 74-87.
- Chan, J. Y. K. and Bauer, C. F. (2015), Effect of Peer-Led Team Learning (PLTL) on Student Achievement, Attitude, and Self-18 Concept in College General Chemistry in Randomized and Quasi Experimental Designs. J. Res. Sci. Teach. 52, 319-346.
- 20 Chang, T., McKeachie, W., Lin, Y. (2010), Faculty Perceptions of 21 Teaching Support and Teaching Efficacy in Taiwan. J. High. 22 Educ. 59, 207-220.
- Cohen, J. (1988), Statistical Power Analysis for the Behavioral 23 Sciences. New York, NY: Routledge Academic. 24
- Crimmins, M. T., Midkiff, B. (2017), High structure active learning 25 pedagogy for the teaching of organic chemistry: Assessing the 26 impact on academic outcomes. J. Chem. Educ., 94(4), 429-438.
  - D'Eon, M., Sadownik, L., Harrison, A., Nation, J. (2008), Using selfassessments to detect workshop success - Do they work? Am. J. Eval., 29(1), 92-98.
  - Duch, B. J., Groh, S. E., Allen, D. E. eds. (2001), The power of problem-based learning. Sterling, VA: Stylus.
- 31 Ebert-May, D., Derting, T. L., Hodder, J., Momsen, J. L., Long, T. M., Jardeleza, S. E. (2011), What we say is not what we do: 32 Effective evaluation of faculty professional development 33 programs. BioScience, 61(7), 550-558.
- 34 Freeman, S., Eddy, S. L., McDonough, M., Smith, M. K., Okoroafor, 35 N., Jordt, H., Wenderoth, M. P. (2014), Active learning increases 36 student performance in science, engineering, and 37 mathematics. PNAS, 111(23), 8410-8415.
- Fullan, M. G.; Stiegelbauer, S. (1991), The new meaning of 38 educational change. New York: Teachers College Press. 39
  - Gess-Newsome, J., Southerland, S. A., Johnston, A., Woodbury, S. (2003), Educational reform, personal practical theories, and dissatisfaction: the anatomy of change in college science teaching. Am. Educ. Res. J., 40, 731-767.
- 42 Gibbons, R. E., Villafañe, S. M., Stains, M., Murphy, K. L., Raker, J. 43 R. (2018), Beliefs about learning and enacted instructional 44 practices: An investigation in postsecondary chemistry 45 education. J. Res. Sci. Teach., 55, 1-23.
- 46 Gosser, D. K., Carcolice, M. S., Kampeier, J. A., Roth, V., Strozak, V. S., Varma-Nelson, P. (2000), Peer-led team learning: A quidebook. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall. 48
  - Henderson, C., Dancy, M., Niewiadomska- Bugaj, M. (2012), Use of research-based instructional strategies in introductory physics: Where do faculty leave the innovation-decision process? Phys. Rev. ST Phys. Educ. Res., 8, 020104.
  - Henderson, C., Beach, A., Finkelstein, N. (2011), Facilitating change in undergraduate STEM instructional practices: An analytic review of the literature. J. Res. Sci. Teach. 48, 952-984.
  - Kane, R., Sandretto, S., Heath, C. (2002), Telling half the story: A critical review of research on the teaching beliefs and practices of university academics. Rev. Educ. Res. 72(2), 177-228.

- Kober, L. (2014), Reaching Students: What Research Says About Effective Instruction in Undergraduate Science and Engineering. Washington D.C.: The National Academies Press.
- Leontyev, A., Houseknecht, J. B., Maloney, V., Muzyka, J., Rossi, R., Welder, C., Winfield, L. OrganicERs: Building a Community of Practice of Organic Chemistry Instructors through Workshops and Web-based Resources. Accepted.
- Manduca, C. A., Iverson, E. R., Luxenberg, M., Macdonald, R. H., McConnell, D. A., Mogk, D. W., Tewksbury, B. J. (2017), Improving undergraduate STEM education: The efficacy of discipline-based professional development. Sci. Adv., 3, 1–16.
- Mazur, E. (1997) Peer instruction: A user's manual. Upper Saddle River. NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Moog, R. S. and Spencer, J. N. eds. (2008) POGIL: Process oriented guided inquiry learning. ACS Symposium Series 994. Washington, DC: American Chemical Society.
- Mooring, S. R., Mitchell, C. E., Burrows, N. L. (2016), Evaluation of a flipped, large-enrollment organic chemistry course on student attitude and achievement. J. Chem. Educ., 93(12), 1972-1983.
- Murray, T. A., Higgins, P., Minderhout, V., Loertscher, J. (2011), Sustaining the development and implementation of studentcentered teaching nationally: the importance of a community of practice. Biochem. Mol. Biol. Educ., 39, 405-411.
- Novak, G. M., Patterson, E, T., Gavrin, A. D., Christian, W. (1999), Just-in-Time Teaching: Blending Active Learning with Web Technology. Prentice-Hall: Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- OrganicERs (2013) 2 June, Organic Education Resources: a cCWCS community of scholars. viewed 6 June 2019. <https://www.organicers.org>.
- OrganicERs: Active Learning in Organic Chemistry (2015) 7 July. Available at https://www.facebook.com (accessed 6 June 2019).
- Palincsar, A. S. (1998), Social constructivist perspectives on teaching and learning. Annu. Rev. Psychol. 49, 345-375.
- Paulson, D. R. (1999), Active learning and cooperative learning in the organic chemistry lecture class. J. Chem. Educ., 76(8), 1136-1140.
- Prieto-Navarro, L. (2005), Las creencias de autoeficacia docente del profesorado universitario. Madrid: Universidad Pontificia Comillas.
- Raum M. A., Kennedy, K., Oxtoby, L., Bollom, M., Moore, J. W. (2017), Unpacking "active learning": A combination of flipped classroom and collaboration is more effective but collaboration support alone is not. J. Chem. Educ., 94(10), 1406-1414.
- Rogers E. M. (2003), Diffusion of Innovations. New York: Free Press: New York.
- R Core Team (2018) R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing (3.5.2) [Computer program]. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.
- RStudio Team (2018) RStudio: Integrated Development for R (1.1.463) [Computer program]. RStudio, Inc., Boston, MA.
- Smith, M. K., Jones, F. H. M., Gilbert, S. L., Wieman, C. E. (2013), The Classroom Observation Protocol for Undergraduate STEM (COPUS): A New Instrument to Characterize University STEM Classroom Practices. CBE – Life Sci. Ed., 12, 618-627.
- Srinivasan, S., Gibbons, R. E., Murphy, K. L., Raker, J. (2018), Flipped classroom use in chemistry education: results from a survey of postsecondary faculty members. Chem. Educ. Res. Pract., 19(4), 1307-1318.
- Stains, M., Harshman, J., Barker, M. K., Chasteen, S. V., Cole, R., DeChenne-Peters, S. E., Eagan Jr., M. K., Esson, J. M., Knight, J. K., Laski, F. A., Levis-Fitzgerald, M., Lee, C. J., Lo, S. M., McDonnell, L. M., McKay, T. A., Michelotti, N., Musgrove, A., Palmer, M. S., Plank, K. M., Rodela, T. M., Sanders, E. R., Schimpf, N. G., Schulte, P. M., Smith, M. K., Stetzer, M., Van Valkenburgh, B., Vinson, E., Weir, L. K., Wendel, P. J., Wheeler,

#### ARTICLE

- L. B., Young, A. M. (2018), Anatomy of STEM teaching in North American universities. *Science*, **359**(6383), 1468-1470.
- Stains, M., Pilarz, M., Chakraverty, D. (2015), Short- and long-term impacts of the Cottrell Scholars Collaborative New Faculty Workshop. *J. Chem. Educ.*, **92**, 1466–1476.
- Stegall, S. L., Grushow, A., Whitnell, R., Hunnicutt, S. S. (2016), Evaluating the Effectiveness of POGIL-PCL Workshops. *Chem. Educ. Res. Pract.*, **17**, 407–416.
- SurveyMonkey Inc. Main site [Online]. Available at: http:www.surveymonkey.com (accessed: 8 March 2019).
- Vishnumolakala V. R., Southam D. C., Treagust D. F., Mocerino M. and Qureshi S. (2017), Students' attitudes, self-efficacy and experiences in a modified process-oriented guided inquiry learning undergraduate chemistry classroom. *Chem. Educ. Res. Pract.*, **18**(2), 340–352.
- Walter, E.M., Henderson, C.R., Beach, A.L., Williams, C.T. (2016), Introducing the Postsecondary Instructional Practices Survey (PIPS): a concise, interdisciplinary, and easy-to-score survey. *CBE – Life Sciences Education*, **15**(4), 1-11.
- Warfa A.-R. M., (2016), Using cooperative learning to teach chemistry: A meta-analytic review. J. Chem. Educ., 93(2), 248–255.
- Wiggins, G. and McTighe, J. (2006), *Understanding by Design*, 2nd ed. New Jersey: Pearson.
- Wilson S. B. and Varma-Nelson P., (2016), Small groups, significant impact: A review of peer-led team learning research with implications for STEM education researchers and faculty. J. Chem. Educ., **93**(10), 1686–1702.
  - Windschitl, M., and Sahl, K. (2002), Tracing teachers' use of technology in a laptop computer school: The interplay of teacher beliefs, social dynamics, and institutional culture. Am. Educ. Res. J., 39, 165–205.
- Woodbury S. and Gess-Newsome J. (2002), Overcoming the paradox of change without difference: a model of change in the arena of fundamental school reform. *Educ. Policy*, **16**, 763–782.