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Developing University Students' Argumentative Discourse: An Ill-Structured Issue Pertaining To Black African Immigrants And African Americans

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**DEVELOPING UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE DISCOURSE:
AN ILL-STRUCTURED ISSUE PERTAINING TO BLACK AFRICAN
IMMIGRANTS AND AFRICAN AMERICANS**

by

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DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University

Detroit, Michigan

in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

2016

MAJOR: CURRICULUM AND
INSTRUCTION

Approved By:

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Advisor   Date

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my remarkable husband, Adewale Adeoye, as well as my

darling children, Adeoluwa Emmanuel and Ayooluwa Daniella. Thank you for your love,

encouragement, and prayers. Because of my amazing three, I am blessed beyond measure.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Background

Reformers have called for developing K-12 students' argumentation abilities (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013; National Governors Association [NGA] Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO], 2010). Despite the advocacy for argumentation at the K-12 levels, predominant classroom teaching and learning approaches are still traditional for a variety of reasons (see Osborne, 2010). The neglect at developing argumentation abilities in the context of school add to the challenges of learning how to argue faced by postsecondary students (Reznitskaya, Anderson, & Kuo, 2007).

Despite research on argumentation in a variety of disciplines at the K-12 and postsecondary levels, students of all ages grapple with examining and constructing sound arguments that incorporate both the argument and the counterargument. Particularly in English, high school seniors are seldom given the opportunity to compose essays comparable to the writing assignments at the postsecondary level (Applebee & Langer, 2006). In place of essays that require analysis and interpretation (Applebee & Langer, 2006, p. 8), for instance, secondary English language arts (ELA) teachers focus on the typical five-paragraph expository essay to prepare students for state written assessments (Beach, 2011; Kiuhara, Graham, & Hawken, 2009). Consequently, many high school seniors are not adequately prepared for college or the university (Beach, 2011). This is no surprise given that four out of ten incoming freshman are placed in remedial courses at the postsecondary level (National Center for Education Statistics, 2010). The challenges high school seniors face in argumentative discourse does not end as they continue their educational journeys in postsecondary institutions. This is supported by research which indicates that the problem still

persists at the postsecondary level (Jonassen & Kim, 2010; Liu & Stapleton, 2014; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007; Perkins, Farady, & Bushey, 1991; Qin & Karabacak, 2010).

To support university students' learning of argumentation, researchers (i.e., Liu & Stapleton, 2014; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007) have suggested that educators teach criteria instruction to improve university students' argument-counterargument integration abilities. It has also been suggested that university students take part in collaborative reasoning activities (Cabrera et al., 2002). Moreover, the use of ill-structured issues to engage in effective argumentative discourse has been recommended (Jonassen & Kim, 2010).

Nussbaum and Schraw (2007) examined the effects of criteria instruction and a graphic organizer by using a standard argument model as a framework to evaluate postsecondary students' argument-counterargument integration on a writing assessment. The 84 participants were assigned to 1 of 4 conditions: criteria instruction only, graphic organizer only, both criteria instruction and graphic organizer, and control. While criteria instruction and the graphic organizer had positive yet different effects on developing university participants' argument-counterargument integration abilities, the study found that participants who received criteria instruction had more balanced reasoning, better integration of arguments and counterarguments as well as stronger rebuttals. Even so, a limitation of Nussbaum and Schraw's (2007) study was that a pretest-posttest design was not used to compare participant groups to better measure the degree of change that occurred as a result of the interventions.

Liu and Stapleton (2014) also examined the effectiveness of criteria instruction on university students' learning of argumentation using a modified version of Toulmin's (1958) argument pattern (TAP). A pretest-posttest design was used, and the 125 university participants were assigned to 1 of 2 conditions: criteria instruction or control. The study found that students in

the experimental group had better argument-counterargument integration owing to the learning of criteria instruction for argumentation. While the result is consistent with the findings of Nussbaum and Schraw (2007) on the effectiveness of criteria instruction, a limitation of Liu and Stapleton's (2014) study was that group discussion activities (e.g., collaborative reasoning) were implemented along with criteria instruction but never tested (Reznitskaya et al., 2001). Thus, this limitation changes the result of the study tremendously since group discussion activities can also influence students' written arguments. Even so, the limitation previously described supports the hypothesis of the present study by establishing that both criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning are effective in improving university students' argumentative discourse.

While the above-mentioned studies still establish criteria instruction as an effective tool in the learning of argumentation, collaborative reasoning is another tool that can be used to improve university students' argumentative discourse. Several researchers have indicated that collaborative reasoning can improve students' argumentative abilities (e.g., Dong, Anderson, Kim, & Li, (2008); Kuhn & Udell, 2003). Nevertheless, most studies on collaborative reasoning have either been done at the school age level (e.g., Reznitskaya et al., 2001) or online (e.g., Mcalister, Ravenscroft, & Scanlon, 2004). Although Limbu & Markauskaite (2015) explored how university students experience online collaborative writing, no study to date has actually examined, tracked, or detailed how participating in collaborative reasoning groups can improve university students' argument-counterargument integration skills specifically in argumentative discourse.

Thus, this present study used a pre-test, mid-test, post-test design to measure the degree of change that occurred in the university students as a result of implementing criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning in the learning of argumentation. Criteria based instruction and collaborative reasoning using a mixed-method approach was used to examine university students'

argumentation abilities. 40 university students were placed in 1 of 2 conditions: criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning or control. In line with Liu and Stapleton's (2014) study on criteria instruction, the study at hand used a modified version of TAP to evaluate university students' argumentative writing. To realize the effects of the interventions previously mentioned, the ill-structured issue pertaining to black African immigrants and African Americans was the context of the study. This ill-structured issue was used because the classrooms faced had an increase in the number of black African immigrants enrolling in the university. This study was conducted in an English composition class which consisted of students from various ethnic groups.

Overview of the Study

Table 1 represents the nature of this study being reported in this dissertation.

Table 1

A Study on Developing University Students' Argumentative Discourse

Articles	Focus of the Study	Theoretical Framework	Research Questions	Methods
Article 1	Students' Perceptions of Black African Immigrants and African Americans	Phenomenography (Marton & Booth, 1997)	1. What are the qualitatively different ways university students perceive black African immigrants and African Americans? 2. Can these perceived variations be translated into arguments?	Phenomenography (Marton & Booth, 1997)
Article 2	The Effects of Criteria Instruction and Collaborative Reasoning	Toulmin's (1958) Argument Pattern Walton and Krabbe's (1995) Dialogue Types	1. How do university students' argument-counterargument integration abilities in writing change over the course of a	Pre-, Mid-, Post-Tests and Final Term Paper 1-4 Point Rubric

			semester as a result of the interventions?	
			2. What types of dialogue occur within the collaborative reasoning groups?	Coding Dialogues Observations
Article 3	A Case Study of Argumentation Development	Toulmin's (1958) Argument Pattern Walton and Krabbe's (1995) Dialogue Types	1. How do (a) learning the criteria instruction and (b) participating in collaborative reasoning groups help two university students at different argumentative writing levels develop their argument-counterargument integration abilities over the course of 10 weeks?	Pre-, Mid-, Post-Tests and Final Term Paper 1-4 Point Rubric Coding Dialogues Interviews Observations

Table 1 illustrates a five-chapter, three-article dissertation. Chapter one is the window of this dissertation displaying the content of the study. Chapters two to four constitute Articles one through three respectively.

Chapter two presents the first article that identifies university students' perceptions of black African immigrants and African Americans using phenomenography. It also argues for the use of descriptive categories as claims for argumentation. Chapter three presents the second article which examines the effects of criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning on university students' argument-counterargument integration abilities over the course of 10 weeks using a mixed methods approach. Chapter four presents the third article on a case study that tracked the argumentation experiences of two university students with different learning developments in the

context of learning about criteria instruction, essay writing, and engaging in collaborative reasoning groups. Chapter five concludes the dissertation with a summary of research findings, issues reflecting evidence, and implications.

Description of Terms

African-Americans are black, native-born American descendants of Africans who were enslaved within the borders of the present United States. Their origin and heritage can be traced to Africa.

Black, African immigrants are black nationals of African countries who recently migrated (voluntarily or involuntarily) to the United States and have traceable genealogical links to the continent of Africa (Tettey & Puplampu, 2005, p. 12).

Collaborative reasoning in regards to argumentation is a social process in which students work together to construct and critique arguments.

Criteria instruction are goals that define the qualities of a good argument.

Phenomenography is an interpretative research approach that can be used to identify and describe the qualitatively, distinct ways of experiencing, understanding, and/or conceptualizing a phenomenon.

CHAPTER 2 (Article One)
A PHENOMENOGRAPHY OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF BLACK AFRICAN IMMIGRANTS AND AFRICAN AMERICANS: A CONTEXT FOR ARGUMENTATION

Abstract

This study examined university students' perceptions of black African immigrants and African Americans to develop an ill-structure issue to be used for argumentative discourse. University students were individually interviewed, and 33 transcripts were analyzed using a phenomenograhic methodology. University students had 24 perceptions in which 10 pertained to black African immigrants and 14 to African Americans. University students' common perceptions were grouped into six descriptive categories. It is proposed and demonstrated that university students' perceptions can be translated into arguments to teach argumentation. Implications on teaching and learning as well as future research are mentioned.

Key words: African American, African immigrants, phenomenography, ill-structured issue

Introduction

Developing effective argumentation abilities helps students to organize, better comprehend, and elaborate on ill-structured issues (Jonassen & Kim, 2010). These development features enhance constructing logically stronger written and oral arguments (Chinn, 2006; De La Paz, 2005; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007). Effective argumentation is fundamental to higher order thinking (Ogan-Bekiroglu & Eskin, 2012), but students at various levels find this process difficult. A major weakness observed in both school age (Ferretti, Lewis & Andrews-Weckerly, 2009; Venville & Dawson, 2010) and postsecondary students (Jonassen & Kim, 2010; Liu & Stapleton, 2014; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007) is the lack of counterarguments in persuasive writing. Persuasive writing involves the student convincing the other that his or her claim is more credible (Walton & Krabbe, 1995). To improve argument-counterargument integration, Jonassen and Kim

(2010) suggest using ill-structured problems or issues. University based studies have focused on ill-structured issues such as drug abuse (Stapleton & Wu, 2015), television violence (Nussbaum & Kardash, 2005; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007), urbanization (Lui & Stapleton, 2014), and the preservation of cultural practices (Lui & Stapleton, 2014).

Ill-structured problems are more challenging to solve and "are characterized as having (a) alternative solutions to problems, (b) vaguely defined or unclear goals and constraints, (c) multiple solution paths, and (d) multiple criteria for evaluating solutions" (Jonassen & Kim, 2010, p. 449). As a context for developing argumentation abilities, this study used the ill-structured issue pertaining to black African immigrants and African Americans. Phenomenography (Marton & Booth, 1997), a research tradition, was used to discover how individuals experience a phenomenon such as the ill-structured issue presented in this study.

Phenomenography

Developed at the University of Göteborg in Sweden and appearing in educational studies as early as the 1970s (Richardson, 1999), phenomenography has been defined as an interpretative research approach that can be used to identify and describe the qualitatively, distinct ways of experiencing, understanding, and/or conceptualizing a phenomenon (Ashworth & Lucas, 2000; Marton, 1988; Marton & Booth, 1997). The various conceptualizations of a phenomenon are clearly expressed and grouped into categories of description which are further differentiated by the dimensions of variation emerging from the data collected. The end result is an outcome space which articulates the limited number of distinctive ways a phenomenon can be experienced.

Numerous studies have used phenomenographic research tools to identify the limited number of ways to experience a phenomenon or concept (Marton & Booth, 1997). Säljö (as cited in Richardson, 1999) interviewed ninety participants between the ages of 15 and 73 from various

institutions to study the conceptions of learning. The study revealed the participants had five qualitatively different conceptions of learning. Not only has phenomenography been influential in research specifically on higher education (Ashworth & Lucas, 2000; Richardson, 1999), the approach has been used to identify different ways of experiencing an array of academic disciplines including science, English, and math. For example, Ebenezer and Fraser (2001) looked at first year chemical engineering students' conceptions of energy; Reid and Petocz (2002) described students' conceptions of statistics; Souleles, Savva, Watters, Annesley, and Bull (2014) identified students' perceptions about the use of iPads in undergraduate and design programs; and Boon, Johnston, and Webber (2007) looked at English faculty's conceptions of information literacy. The studies mentioned are just a few that reveal the benefits of describing participants' understandings of phenomena using the phenomenographic approach. Therefore, the phenomenographic approach has been used to identify how a group of university students perceived black African immigrants and African Americans. These variations in perceptions were used as statements for argumentation.

Problem Statement

Langmia and Durham (2007) state that Africans and African Americans have been upholding the stereotypical views of the other (p. 816); however, a number of studies reveal other racial and ethnic groups in the United States have wrong perceptions about Africans and/or African Americans as well (Czopp & Monteith, 2006; McClain et al., 2006). McClain et al.'s (2006) study, for example, found that Latino immigrants held negative stereotypical views of blacks in general. Czopp and Monteith's (2006) study confirmed that the perceptions different racial or ethnic groups—whites, Asians, Hispanics and even blacks—have of blacks is multidimensional which

suggests that various racial groups have both positive and negative stereotypical perceptions of the black race.

Numerous studies have endeavored to expose the perceptions of Africans, African Americans, and/or the Black race (e.g., Mou, 2014; Traoré & Lukens, 2006), but the perceptions are often generalized or incomplete. For example, Traoré and Lukens' (2006) study elucidated on the relations between African immigrant and African American students. Nevertheless, the study only discussed the negative perceptions African and African American high school students had of each and from where the negative perceptions originated. Consequently, the study failed to fully discuss all (good or bad, positive or negative, truthful or stereotypical) the perceptions the student participants had of African immigrants and African Americans. Identifying all the ways African Americans and Africans are perceived (even if limited) would have given a holistic understanding of how the two groups are perceived by the other.

For another working example, McClain et al.'s (2006) study found that Latino immigrants held negative stereotypical views of blacks in general. About 59% of the Latino immigrants felt blacks were not hardworking, 33% percent felt blacks were not easy to get along with, and 57% percent felt blacks could not be trusted. Even supposing the study sheds more light on the issue of race relations, neither the rationale nor the origin of the Latino immigrants' perceptions were fully discussed. McClain et al. (2006) suggested that these negative perceptions were learned while still in their native countries, but it is apparent from the results of (or percentages in) the study that not all the Latino immigrant participants held negative perceptions about black Americans. Thus, the positive perceptions some Latino participants possibly had concerning black Americans were neither mentioned nor discussed. This again shows that the perceptions of African Americans are often generalized and/or incomplete in the literature.

Despite most studies mentioning stereotypical views and negative perceptions of Africans, African Americans, and/or the Black race, it is important to note that the perceptions of black Africans and African Americans are not always negative. For example, it is frequently observed that whites, in general, have a negative perception of blacks and show resentment towards them (see Dixon & Rosenbaum, 2004), but the notion that all whites have negative views of all blacks is just plain ludicrous. According to Czopp and Monteith (2006), "people's perceptions of Blacks can be a combination of traditional hostility and stereotypic praise" (p. 247). Dixon and Rosenbaum (2004) stated that whites who reported having black friends or acquaintances had a positive perception of blacks. Hence, it was important that the study at hand describe the qualitatively different ways black African immigrants and Africans are perceived. Revealing the perceptions held by other racial and ethnic groups will present a holistic view and understanding of black African immigrants and African Americans in the United States. On that account, phenomenography was the theoretical approach used to expose the various perceptions of African immigrants and African Americans by focusing on the descriptive level of university students' understanding of both groups.

The rationale for developing a phenomenography study is to use the descriptive categories of perception for developing university students' argumentation abilities. Based on this goal, two related questions were formulated:

1. What are the qualitatively different ways university students perceive Africans and African Americans?

2. Can these perceived variations be translated into arguments?

Significance of the Study

This study is significant for a number of reasons:

First, this study identified university students' perceptions of black African immigrants and African Americans. Provided that the experiences of Africans and African Americans in earlier studies could differ from those in a more recent study, it was necessary to discover the university students' current perceptions.

Second, this phenomenographic study produced categories of description strictly based on the university students' perceptions to answer questions about how black African immigrants and African Americans are perceived.

Third, this study can be used as a context to teach students argument–counterargument integration as ill-structured issues can be used as a context to help students engage in effective argumentation (Jonassen & Kim, 2010).

Methodology

Research Design

This study took a phenomenographic approach which is considered one of the best methods when researching human experiences (Wimpenny & Gass, 2000). Similar to phenomenology, phenomenography follows similar rules of interviewing (e.g., bracketing, in-depth interviews) and the overall object of research (see Ashworth & Lucas, 2000; Caelli, 2001; Groenewald, 2004; Wimpenny & Gass, 2000). However, phenomenology takes on a first-order perspective by taking all the "pieces that have emerged into a total experience, showing patterns and relationships" (Patton, 2002, p. 487). When taking the phenomenological approach, moreover, greater emphasis is placed on the individual experience thereby grouping the experiences of all the participants in question into one, single experience (Barnard, McCosker, & Gerber, 1999; Patton, 2002). Phenomenography, on the other hand, takes on a second-order perspective by focusing on the

descriptive level of the participants' understandings of a phenomenon which is then presented in an empirical manner known as categories of description and an outcome space.

Setting

The participants in the study attended Sunshine University located in the Midwestern part of the United States. Amid a culturally diverse student body, the university served a growing number of undergraduates as a result of two prevailing science programs: nursing and physical therapy. The university also served a growing population of beginning and transfer students due to the growing demand in medical fields specifically in the United States.

Participants

In the fall semester of 2014, 33 English composition students participated in the study. The demographics of the 33 students are as follows: 8 black Africans, 12 African Americans, 6 Whites/Europeans, 1 Arab/Arab American, 1 Arab African, 2 Jamaicans, 1 Hispanic, 1 Filipino, and 1 Indian. It is important to note that the university has experienced an increase in adults returning to school to pursue new careers. Thus, the average freshman was no longer the typical eighteen-year-old. The age range of the participants varied from 19 to 55. Nineteen students were female and 14 were male.

Data Collection

Bearing in mind that the phenomenographic approach can be effective with small numbers of interviewees, 33 participants were clearly enough to capture the variation in the university students' perceptions of black African immigrants and African Americans. All 33 university participants were interviewed individually for 45 minutes each in a small conference room located on campus. Conversational individual interviews were carried out according to a

phenomenographic tradition (Ebenezer, Chacko, Kaya, Koya, & Ebenezer, 2010; Ebenezer & Fraser, 2001). The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim.

According to the phenomenographic approach, two second-order questions were asked:

(1) How do you perceive black Africans?

(2) How do you perceive African Americans*?*

Based on the responses to these questions, other pertinent questions were asked such as the following: Why do you suppose Africans and African Americans differentiate themselves from each other? Why would you infer that Africans are uncivilized? Why do you believe African Americans are lazy? The interviews concluded when the university students' perceptions of black African immigrants and African Americans were satisfactorily explored and the research questions answered.

Data Analysis

Thirty-three interviews were transcribed verbatim and read multiple times to identify dimensions of variation (Marton & Booth, 1997). Coding categories (Ebenezer & Fraser, 2001) were soon defined based on the elements, characteristics, and commonalities of the university students' responses relating to black Africans and African Americans. Categories of description that interrelated were combined. Each coding category was then assigned a focal color. Information relevant to each category defined was classified and highlighted in the color the category represented. The categories of description were further delineated by dimensions of variation to ensure each response was classified appropriately. The dimensions of variation allowed for an outcome space in which the categories were positioned to show the relationship amongst the categories and illustrate the types of perceptions presented by the university students (Marton, 1988). The phenomenographic study was complete when an outcome space was reached.

Perceptions were then selected from each category and presented as claims to form arguments. The arguments constructed were supported by data from the literature review (used in the results section only) to show how university students' perceptions of black African immigrants and African Americans can be used as claims and developed for argumentative discourse purposes.

The Validity and Reliability of the Study

Member checking was used to ensure the accuracy of the information acquired from the university student participants. During each personal interview, the researcher (a) restated or summarized information to each university student participant and/or (b) questioned the university student participant to confirm answers and determine the accuracy of the researcher's interpretation. Member checking served to minimize incorrect interpretations of data.

Inter-rater reliability of the interview transcripts was also performed by two external experts independently once a tentative set of coding categories was defined. The experts met from time to time to discuss the results, resolve disagreements, and discuss discrepancies in analyses. The experts reached 92% agreement on the coding categories and an outcome space developed form university students' perceptions of black African immigrants and African Americans.

Results

University students had 24 qualitatively distinctive ways of perceiving black Africans and African Americans. 10 perceptions pertained specifically to black African immigrants and 14 pertained to African Americans. Based on the interview transcripts, the following categories were developed: Image and Identity, Disposition and Outlook, Manner and Behavior, Work Ethic, Value of Education, and Cognizance of Racism (see Table 2.1). In turn, each of the descriptive categories will be introduced, supported with evidence, and interpreted. One key interview excerpt is provided to elaborate on each descriptive category of perception. The key excerpt is elaborated

with further supporting evidence and nuances highlighted. All students' nationalities were revealed. All proper nouns (specific names and places) mentioned in the study were replaced with pseudonyms to maintain the anonymity of the university student participants.

Table 2.1

Perceptions of Black Africans and African Americans

No.	Descriptive Categories	Black Africans	%	African Americans	%
1	Image and Identity	Africans maintain their African identity.	56%	African Americans deny their African heritage.	33%
		Africans take on both African and African American identities.	36%	African Americans embrace their African identity and heritage.	18%
		Africans drop the African identity and embrace an American identity.	21%	African Americans identify themselves in terms of complexion.	21%
2	Disposition and Outlook	Africans are goal oriented and driven to succeed.	58%	African Americans are ill-informed about Africa and/or Africans.	58%
		Africans are family and community oriented.	30%	African Americans are good at sports.	15%
				African Americans are inferior.	21%
				African Americans are given a bad reputation.	39%
				African Americans are not family oriented.	24%
3	Manner and Behavior	African males are controlling, domineering, and demean women.	30%	African Americans are violent and behave inappropriately.	48%
		Africans are better than African Americans.	24%		

4	Work Ethics	Africans are hardworking and have good work ethics.	91%	African Americans are hardworking.	45%
				African Americans have poor work ethics.	64%
5	Value of Education	Africans are educated and value education.	61%	African Americans are educated and value education.	39%
				African Americans do not value education.	33%
6	Cognizance of Racism	Africans deemphasize racism.	39%	African Americans overstress racism.	55%

Image and Identity

Africans maintain their African identity. Out of 33 students, 19 (56%) emphasized that

African immigrants maintain their African identity in America. Godwin, an African, represents

those students who focused on the identity of Africans (Excerpt 1):

Excerpt 1

> African kind of defines me more than African American because if I use the word African
> American, I might have to explain what I mean. If I say African, simply you might have
> an idea—okay, he's from Africa. . . . I pride myself in being a Gambian. So, I mean, that's
> what I am so that's what I go by. (Godwin)

Godwin expressed that African defines him more than the term African American. He explained

that being defined as African gives one a better idea of his identity. Even so, Godwin expressed

that he is proud to be a Gambian and embraces his African nationality.

Africans take on both African and African American identities. Of the 33 students, 12

students (36%) emphasized that Africans embrace not just their African identity but their African

American identity. Joe, an African, represents those students who focused on the identity of

Africans (Excerpt 2):

Excerpt 2

> I think I straddle the fence between both. I think I use whatever group is most advantageous to me at the time. However, I think I have a good understanding of both groups given the fact that I have ingratiated myself in both cultures. So, I'm in the middle. . . . I embrace it. I use it as a tool, and I use it to my advantage. You know, like with anything else, I'm going to take the best of both worlds, the best of both opportunities and leverage it for my success. (Joe)

Joe admitted to taking on both the African and African American identities and using his knowledge of both groups to his advantage. Joe also bragged about having "the best of both worlds."

Joy, an African, elaborated on the advantages of taking on both the African and African American identities:

> Depending on what day of the year it is and what's going on in the media. For example, with Ebola going on, if you say you're African, you might as well say you have the plague. So right now, it's a plus to be African American. When things like Ferguson and other racial injustice issues or if somebody black or African American does something crazy in the media, then yes it would probably be more affordable to be African. (Joy)

While Joy expressed there are benefits to taking on both identities, she also elaborated on some of the disadvantages:

> I embrace both cultures because I lived in both cultures. I would say as I've grown, both cultures have embraced me. But when I was younger, I didn't really fit into either culture. . . . Because the Africans felt I was too African American and the African Americans felt like I was too African. I felt like a mixed child. You know how bi-racial people feel? That's how I felt because you—they want you to pick . . . they don't want you to be both. . . . I'm not picking because I'm both. (Joy)

Africans drop the African identity and embrace an American identity. Out of 33 students, 7 (21%) emphasized that African immigrants drop their African identity to be recognized as African Americans or Americans. Bill, an African, represents those students who focused on the identity of Africans (Excerpt 3):

Excerpt 3

> Because being an American is the best thing you can be, in my opinion, in the country. America's still the most powerful country in the world. Regardless of size, it is the most

respected country in the world. And it's the country who probably has the most influence. So no matter what, I want to be associated with America. And it's the country who's gonna protect their citizens and the liberties of their citizens. And all those things being said, I think no matter what, I associate myself with being an African American. . . . But at the end of the day, I'm an American regardless of if you put African before it. I'm an American. And so that's what I stand behind. (Bill)

Bill expressed that taking on an African American or American identity has many benefits. Bill stressed that the United States, which is the most "powerful," "respected," and influential country in the world, looks after its citizens. For these reasons, Bill stood behind his stance and maintained he would always be an American "regardless of if you put African before it."

Sade, an African, provides reasons why African immigrants must take on the African American identity:

Well, although I'm a Nigerian, but here I'm in America. . . . Most of the time when you fill forms and other stuffs, you can hardly find just African in it to categorize. For you to fall in place, you just have to say African American. And because I'm not just coming to visit, I'm coming to stay too. I am here to stay, so I am an African American. (Sade)

Sade emphasized the urgency to be identified as an African American so as "to fall in place" since Africans are not differentiated from African Americans in the United States (specifically on forms). According to Sade, moreover, she is left with no other choice but to embrace the African American identity as it is her intention to stay in America.

Patrician, an African American, also clarifies why African immigrants are left with no choice but to embrace the African American identity:

I don't think that other cultures differentiate us. They don't separate us; we're all one in the same. That's just my prospective. You know, just for example, a white person—a racist—would not say, "Oh, that African or African American." They'd just say, "That nigger." Who we fooling? I don't think racism discriminates against us. (Patricia)

African Americans deny their African heritage*.* Out of 33 students, 11 (33%) emphasized that African Americans do not embrace their African heritage. Day, an African American, represents those students who focused on the identity of African Americans (Excerpt 4):

Excerpt 4

"Because I feel like I was born here. So I shouldn't be associated with Africa because I am black.

I was born here so I am just like any other American" (Day).

Day expressed that she should not be associated with Africa even though she is black. Day added

that she should be perceived as an American just like anyone who was born in the United States.

> Patricia, an African American, supports the excerpt above:
>
> I guess, you know, my first thought is as an African American woman, I don't consider myself an African. I am not from Africa. I was born in North America. Yes, I have roots there, but I got roots here, and I got roots wherever the Caucasian people in my background come from which could be anywhere—Europe, Germany, wherever. (Patricia)

Although Patricia identified herself as African American, she expressed that she is not from Africa.

Patricia explained that while she has "roots" in Africa, she also has European "roots."

African Americans embrace their African identity and heritage. Out of 33 students, 6

(18%) emphasized that African Americans embrace the African identity and heritage. Bryan, an

African American, represents those students who focused on the identity of African Americans

(Excerpt 5):

Excerpt 5

> My brother started going to a school called Cab College. And when he got there, he really noticed a lot of racism. So he has really changed his mind set and became super Afrocentric which is very opposite of us. . . . He's really taken on the African culture . . . so I wouldn't take him as a typical African American. (Bryan)

Bryan expressed that his brother has embraced more of the African culture as a result of

experiencing racism. Bryan also expressed that his brother is Afrocentric which makes him

different from the "typical African American." Henry, an African American, supported the excerpt

above: "Well, I'm very proud of my race as an African, and I'm never going to deny my heritage"

(Henry).

African Americans perceive themselves in terms of complexion. Out of 33 students, 7 (21%) emphasized that African Americans perceive themselves in terms of color complexion. Tierra, an African American, represents those students who focused on the African Americans' complexion identity (Excerpt 6):

Excerpt 6

> I've been called high yellow, light brown, mixed, albino, white girl by some of my like black friends, classmates. Correct me if I'm wrong, but like black is black. African American is African American. . . . See, I'm different colors [points to face]. My neck is slightly darker than my face. My hands are like two toned. So what color am I? Like high yellow, caramel, light brown? Yeah, so we [African Americans] really need to stop all that. . . . You don't hear whites saying, "Look, you're pink! You're pale! You're red!" [pauses and laughs] Uhm, well, like red—red neck is not really a shade per say. Wait—never mind! Black is black period. (Tierra)

Tierra expressed that she has been identified or described by the color of her complexion (i.e., "high yellow, light brown") by her black friends and classmates. Tiera questioned her own complexion identity given that she is "different colors." Tierra implored African Americans to stop identifying each other in terms of one's complexion as "Black is black period."

Disposition and Outlook

Africans are goal oriented and driven to succeed. Of the 33 students, 19 students (58%) emphasized that Africans are goal oriented and driven to succeed. Benjamin, a Jamaican, represents those students who focused on the African immigrants' drive to succeed (Excerpt 7):

Excerpt 7

> I think African immigrants come into the country and they, I think, come in motivated. I think they come in dedicated to being successful. I think there's a die-hard attitude just like any other immigrant, nationality that comes into the U.S. I think there's a never say die attitude so that even when things do seem bleak, even when things do seem impossible. I think when you look at African immigrants, they just realize, you know, it's just gotta get better. I think we have promoted America as the land of opportunity for so long, and so many believe it that when you have Africans that come here believing in that opportunity, that they strive for it. They work hard for it because they believe it's there. That's the

whole reason for being here you know. They may have sacrificed a great deal, and I think what happens is when they feel like giving up, they look back at that sacrifice. (Benjamin)

Benjamin highlighted that African immigrants are motived, dedicated, and have a "die hard attitude" to succeed and become better. He compared the African immigrants' drive to other immigrants living in the United States. Even when African immigrants face challenges and "feel like giving up," Benjamin expressed that African immigrants remember the sacrifices. He also emphasized America being the land of opportunity.

Benjamin's comments are echoed by Pearl, a Caucasian American: "I think that Africans are more optimists, and they have more of a hope for a future or like a determination and like drive. I think they want to do what's right and the best for them. . . . I think that Africans actually accomplish mostly what they set out to accomplish" (Pearl).

Africans are family and community oriented. Of the 33 students, 10 students (30%) emphasized that Africans are family and community oriented. Benjamin, a Jamaican, represents those students who examined Africans as family and community oriented people (Excerpt 8):

Excerpt 8

> My brother-in-law is Nigerian. . . . I have an African uncle. . . . What I have seen is that my uncle and my brother-in-law tend to be more inclusive of people in the family and tend to be more good towards the family as a whole as opposed to taking care of the individual. They tend to be more concerned with community. I've seen my brother-in-law take care of his mother and father in and to a degree that's not very common here in the U.S. (Benjamin)

Benjamin expressed that his uncle and brother-in-law—both African immigrants—embrace the well-being of family. Benjamin also acknowledged the exceptional care his brother-in-law shows his mother and father which is not a common practice here in America.

Tierra, an African American, supports the excerpt above:

> When my roommate's parents were in like Nigeria, a lot of her aunts and uncles and cousins came to see her like all the time. They would give her money and like take her out. I was

so impressed with them. . . . I really like how Africans stick together—you know what I mean? I wish we African Americans were like more together. (Tierra)

Tierra expressed that she was impressed with her roommate's extended family who regularly visited and looked after her roommate thereby filling in for her roommate's parents who were living in Nigeria. Tierra also stated that she admired "how Africans stick together" and wished African Americans could do the same.

African Americans are ill-informed about Africa and/or Africans. Of the 33 students, 19 students (58%) expressed that African Americans are ill-informed about Africa and Africans. Tobi, an African, represents those students who focused on African Americans' knowledge of African and Africans (Excerpt 9):

Excerpt 9

I believe they [African Americans] don't know anything. . . . Yeah, but the ones that read— maybe just the one, a video, read something about Africa—they believe they know everything about Africa. . . . But to me, each time they're talking, I turn a little off. . . . They don't know nothing about Africa. (Tobi)

Tobi expressed that African Americans are ill-informed about Africa. He even admitted that he was turned off by African Americans who think they know "everything" because they "read something" about Africa. Yalonda, an African American, provided a reason for African Americans' lack of knowledge of Africans: "We never learned anything about African immigrants in Black History Month. It's always been like Rosa Parks or Martin Luther King or the one that invented the pressing comb" (Yalonda).

African Americans are good at sports and determined to play professionally. Of the 33 students, 5 students (15%) expressed that African Americans are not only good at sports like basketball and football, they desire to play a sport professionally. Randy, a Caucasian American, represents those students who focused on African Americans' athleticism (Excerpt 10):

Excerpt 10

> Generally, at least in my experience, African Americans are more athletic than myself or other Caucasians that are similar to me in size and stature. And even like today like looking at major league basketball or the NFL, a majority of them are African Americans. So that says a lot to it as well—the NBA as well. They're really good at it, and a lot make it to the pros. (Randy)

Randy acknowledged that African Americans are generally more athletic than Caucasians hence the reason a lot of African Americans "make it to the pros." The perception that African Americans are "really good at it" is Randy's explanation of why the majority of professional football players in the National Football League (NFL) and basketball players in the National Basketball Association (NBA) are African Americans. Randy added that their determination to make it to the pros "says a lot."

Leslie, a Hispanic, supports the excerpt above by elaborating on why African Americans desire to play sports professionally:

> When most people associate black people, they always think about that person was either an actor or that person was some type of athlete. . . . And it's still there a little bit, the athleticism in regards to the ticket out. . . . They focus more on practicing, joining a team, being M.V.P. to make it to the pros. But not everyone can make it to the pros. I think that we have to put more emphasis in our minority groups including African American—an emphasis on education, an emphasis on teaching them that not everybody could be the Michael Jordan.

African Americans are inferior. Of the 33 students, 7 students (21%) expressed that African Americans are inferior. Benjamin, a Jamaican, represents those students who focused on African Americans' inferiority (Excerpt 11):

Excerpt 11

"I've seen myself when I go into situations and people assume that I'm African American, I've noticed that I get a lower class of treatment. But when I speak with an accent or when people realize that I'm Jamaican, I realize that the treatment does get better" (Benjamin).

Benjamin expressed that he has been treated inferiorly when perceived as an African American. He even admitted that he receives better treatment from others when he speaks with an accent or maintains his Jamaican identity.

Leslie, a Hispanic, supports the above with another example: "I feel that sometimes African Americans are belittled and get the shaft . . . . I feel that sometimes society feels like sometimes they're not worthy to get this or why should they deserve to get this, they're not going to do anything about it" (Leslie).

African Americans are given a bad reputation. Of the 33 students, 13 students (39%) expressed that African Americans are given a bad reputation because of portrayals of African Americans in the media. Leslie, a Hispanic, represents those students who focused on African Americans' reputation (Excerpt 12):

Excerpt 12

> Personally because I guess looking at the big picture, it's not always the African American that is dealing the drugs, that is doing the bad things. However, when media gets a hold of it, they always make sure that they point it out. . . . At least I believe that if something happens and the person happens to be African American, it is more socialized than let's say an upscale white individual that did the same crime. They don't get that negative media that African Americans do. (Leslie)

Leslie expressed that the media constantly emphasizes crimes involving African Americans. She added that crimes done by African Americans are publicized more than whites.

Rasheed, an Arab American, supports the excerpt above with another example: "For example, my dad's partner, he doesn't like associating himself with African American because he knows that, it's sad to say, the media's got us feeling that all African Americans are dum-dums" (Rasheed).

African Americans are not family oriented. Of the 33 students, 8 students (24%) expressed

that African Americans are not family oriented. Bill, an African, represents those students who

focused on family orientation (Excerpt 13):

Excerpt 13

> I think that family, unfortunately, is not always seen as the center of African American communities. One because you see lots of single parent homes. Typically those are ran by the mother. And I think those things cause problems whereas in African cultures, you rarely see that. . . . However, I think what's seen on media and what you see more of is single parents typically led by women. And unfortunately they typically have multiple children. (Bill)

Bill expressed that family is not always priority in African American communities which,

consequently, results in "problems" in these communities. While it is rare to see such in African

communities, Bill expressed that single parent households in African American communities are

typically led by women who have many children.

> Henry, an African American, supports the excerpt above with a personal experience:

> I grew up in a single parent home with my dad . . . . I thought for a while I would have to go ahead and do—sell drugs and sell weed and stuff because that's what my friends was doing and stuff. For a time being, I was doing that. Sometimes all what we know is just drugs and weed and other minor ways to sell especially if we didn't be brought up in a family environment home or even with people that show us that we can do more than just drugs and stuff. It's kind of hard for us. . . . We go to gangs because we didn't have that family-like environment and stuff and all. (Henry)

Henry expressed that life was hard for him as a result of growing up in a single parent home. He

admitted that the lack of "a family-like environment" has led him and several others down a path

of selling drugs.

Manner and Behavior

African males are controlling, domineering, and demean women. Of the 33 students, 10

students (30%) emphasized that Africans, specifically males, are controlling and domineering.

African males also demean women. Ana, an Asian Indian, represents those students who focused on racism (Excerpt 14):

Excerpt 14

> The way they [African men] act and talk. They're bossy. You know, I think because of their culture, they seem too dominant. They love to have the last, final say on everything. . . . I think we almost have the same culture. Women have to be submissive, do what bossy men tell them to do. It has a lot to do with the culture. Men from my place are the same way. That's why I am separated now. (Ana)

Ana expressed that African men act and speak in a controlling, "bossy" manner. Their dominative mannerisms are part of their culture hence the reason Ana stated African women must be submissive. Anna attested to this being the culture and added that men from India act similarly to African men. From a woman's perspective, moreover, she admitted that the male dominance over females "can be too much sometimes" hence the reason she has separated from her husband.

> Leslie, a Hispanic, supports the excerpt with an example:

> There is an individual that is African, and I noticed the way this individual treats me. . . . Because I am a female, he views me more as a secretary opposed to an equal at work. . . . That individual will come in and ask me to do secretarial stuff, will ask me to find him supplies, work supplies, whether it's a stapler, whether it's a hole puncher, whether it's pencils, rubber bands. That person will ask me to find it. I'm the messenger. . . . That's just the way that they are and that's the way they perceive me personally. But, yeah, it's not an equal. Although I'm an equal, they don't perceive me as an equal. . . . I did look it up; and reading their cultural norm, it's more of a paternal environment, and I think that's where it stems. . . . Men are the say so. Men are the higher gender, opposed to women. . . . I didn't know that until I really encountered them and the way that they treat me when they see me in my office. (Leslie)

Leslie expressed that her African male coworker treats her like a "messenger" or "secretary" rather than a fellow colleague. By reading materials pertaining to Africans, Leslies concluded that the mannerisms of African men stem from the culture.

> While some may frown on such mannerisms or the culture, Sam, a Caucasian American, praises African men:

I'm not a male chauvinist pig, but somebody has to be the boss. I don't see anything wrong with them [African men] wanting their women to cook and clean all the time. If I'm working busting' my butt 40 to 60 hours a week plus going to school full time, the least my wife could do is cook and clean the house. That's just common sense and being fair and doing your part to make the world a better place. . . . Ha, I wished my wife behaved more like an African! If not a black African then a white African. Our house would be clean, I'd be eating hot, fresh, tasty meals instead of *Tyson* frozen dinners and take-out every single day-night of the week! . . . Someone needs to work and someone needs to take care of the home. It's high time we support their culture over here and bring back the roles of the olden days. The days of *Little House on the Prairie*. (Sam)

Although African men are perceived as controlling or domineering, Sam expressed that someone has to take on the role of boss in the household. Thus, Sam called the roles both parties take on as "fair and doing your part to make the world a better place." Sam confessed that he wished his wife was "African" which, in his mind, would result in his wife successfully completing domestic chores and preparing meals. He also implored Americans to support African culture and "bring back the roles of the olden days."

Africans are better than African Americans. Of the 33 students, 8 students (24%) expressed that Africans are treated better than African Americans. Tierra, an African American, represents those students who focused on Africans and why they are better than African Americans (Excerpt 15):

Excerpt 15

Africans are better. . . . They're better than African Americans or other blacks because they know how to like conduct themselves. . . . They just know how to act right in public—in the public eye I mean. Like they know how to keep their drama behind closed doors. So, of course, everybody will see them as acting better than African Americans. . . . Shoot, if I were from the Motherland [Africa], I'd use that advantage to get ahead which some of them—like the ones here are doing. . . . When people see I act more cultural, they respect me more. (Tierra)

Tierra declared that African immigrants are better than other black ethnic groups because they know how to comport themselves "in the public eye" and keep their issues hidden to the outside world. Tierra expressed that she does not blame African immigrants for using their superior

identity as an advantage. She even admitted that acting "more cultural" thereby embracing Afrocentricity resulted in veneration from others. Similarly, Victor, an African American, elaborates on the above: "I would not mind being perceived as an African because they are respected more" (Victor).

Joe, an African, supports Excerpt 15 by drawing on instances: "I believe they're treated better in general. . . . Before Ebola, I would say better. After this Ebola thing, I'd say no, but in general I would say slightly yes. . . . However, for me and my experience, I've seen more positive advantages than negative drawbacks" (Joe). Joe emphasized that being perceived as an African (or Nigerian) has favored him despite the recent Ebola scare in Nigeria and other African countries.

African Americans are violent and behave inappropriately. Of the 33 students, 16 students (48%) expressed that African Americans behave inappropriately. Michael, an African American, represents those students who focused on African Americans' conduct (Excerpt 16):

Excerpt 16

> Look at the situation in Ferguson. I mean that's sad but to think if those folks would use more thought—the ones out there, the thugs out there, okay? Because then you had the grown folks saying, "You can't tear up our neighborhoods. You can't burn down this, that, the other." But see, when you just criminally captive in the mind. . . . And then there are those that want to break in your house, rob you, take a woman's innocence. You understand what I'm saying? Instead of trying to earn that woman's respect, they just want to snatch it away. Instead of going around helping these seniors, they want to rob them. . . . We [African Americans] bring it—we bring it on ourselves 'cause we won't do the right thing. (Michael)

Michael expressed that African Americans place the negative perception upon themselves because of their poor conduct. Michael voiced that the young "criminally captive" African Americans are breaking into homes, stealing from others, disrespecting women and refusing to help the elderly.

Randy, a Caucasian American, supports the excerpt above by providing an explanation as to why African Americans are violent and behave inappropriately:

I think they're considered violent by others because a lot of them are from the inner city where there is a lot of drug and gang activity. . . . I think that they're either brought into it way too young and don't know otherwise, or they're just there because that's where they live, and they can't get away from it. . . .they're automatically surrounded by it—guns, drugs, violence. Even if they want nothing to do with, it's there. (Randy)

Work Ethic

Africans are hardworking and have good work ethics. Of the 33 students, 30 students

(91%) emphasized that Africans are hardworking. Candice, an African, represents those students

who focused the African immigrants' work ethic (Excerpt 17):

Excerpt 17

"We take our work very seriously because it represents who we are as people. I don't know any African that is lazy unless they have become Americanized" (Candice).

Candice took pride in stating that African immigrants are hardworking. Hard work denotes who

they are. Thus, Candice explains that a lazy African has dropped the former identity to embrace

an "Americanized" identity.

Heather, a Caucasian American, provides an example: "The Africans that I work with, they

work in the back of the house—the kitchen. They are very hardworking individuals. They work

from the time they get there until they're done, and they do like the extra I don't want to do"

(Heather). Heather expressed that her African coworker was very hardworking and did tasks she

would avoid.

African Americans are hardworking. Of the 33 students, 15 students (45%) emphasized

that African Americans are hardworking and have good work ethics. Rasheed, an Arab American,

represents those students who focused on the African Americans' work ethic (Excerpt 18):

Excerpt 18

I've worked with some African Americans that are very, very hard working. Just as hard working as Africans and as anybody else. That's all on the person. And I feel like once you get the opportunity or once you're put on the spot and on the test, you're gonna work

hard regardless. . . . So how could it be that the guy next to me, an African American, isn't equivalent to me when we're on the same production? It makes no sense. (Rasheed)

Rasheed expressed that African Americans are just as hardworking as any other person. Although certain jobs may be frowned upon, Bryan, an African American, supports the above with an example:

> I think it depends on the household setting, and it depends on what they're working for. You can find a drug dealer. If you find an African American drug dealer who's about his business, then no he's not going to be lazy because he has to watch out for law enforcement. He has to make sure that he has his products, that he's getting his money for his products. He has to watch out for competitors and everything. And he's going to do that with—he's not going to do that lazy. If you do that lazy, he's either going to go to jail, get shot, or robbed. (Bryan)

Bryan demonstrated that African Americans are hardworking regardless of the occupation one pursues. Therefore, he adds that even African American drug dealers are hardworking and cannot be lazy especially since they have to "watch out for competitors and everything." Although drug dealing may be frowned upon by society, Bryan exposed that even such a job requires good work ethics.

African Americans have poor work ethics. In contrast to the above perception, 21 of the 33 students (64%) expressed that African Americans are lazy and have poor work ethics. Trina, a Jamaican, represents those students who focused on African Americans' work ethic (Excerpt 19):

Excerpt 19

> Well, I would assume that they are lazy because of my experience with them. They do nothing at all. And if they do something, it's the bare minimum. . . . They don't want to do anything. . . . They just don't want to work. Everybody wants a job, but as soon as they get the job, they stop working. (Trina)

In contrast to some of the university students' perception that African Americans are hardworking, Trina expressed that African Americans are lazy and work as little as possible.

Sade, an African, gave detailed examples to elaborate on the poor worth ethics of African Americans:

> They are lazy. They want to have fun most of the time. . . . There are one or two that just want to go on the pleasure side, have fun, and that is real. . . . "I want to work those few hours and rest." In the winter, "It's too cold. I can't drive out." A lot of flimsy excuses anyway. . . . They live an easy life, easy, easy going, and I need to take time—I need to take vacation. It's always vacation. (Sade)

Value of Education

Africans are educated and value education. Of the 33 students, 20 students (61%) emphasized that Africans are not only educated, they value education. Joe, an African, represents those students who focused on education (Excerpt 20):

Excerpt 20

> In my culture, there's a heavy, heavy emphasis on education. Not that Americans don't have that same emphasis, but in Nigeria where my parents grew up, they had to pay for school. So if they're paying for it, you're going to take it seriously. And even though we don't pay for school here in the states as much, my parents still held that emphasis. . . . And because they weren't happy with the elementary school system, they put us in private school until I got into a high school where I was in an accelerated high school program. . . . After that, college is not an option. It's like 13th grade, you keep going—once again, emphasizing education being a big part of the culture. (Joe)

Joe expressed that African immigrants take education seriously whether education is free or not. It is so embedded in the culture that Joe explained that African immigrant parents still lay emphasis on education even in the United States. Subsequently, he stressed that "college is not an option" for children of African immigrants.

Like Joe, Tierra, an African American, provided another example of the African immigrants' emphasis on education:

> My friend's mom like she didn't play. He was like in a lot of clubs and was real involved in school programs and all that. He played a lot of sports in school, but his mom took him out of everything when he got a C on his progress report. Like it wasn't even a report card! . . . [John Doe's] mom came to school with her Dashiki and went postal! . . . Okay like, not like, not like really postal, but she did slap him up and down the hall in front of like the

class. She spoke her native tongue and cursed the poor boy out . . . She took him out of everything until he brought his grades up. No like she literally made him go to the library instead of lunch. Huh, these Africans don't play. Especially those African moms. Like she really took him out of everything! She didn't care about his sport's scholarship. She wanted her son to get an academic scholarship . . . I guess it worked because he's like so successful and has like a ton of degrees. . . . He got accepted to a lot of big name schools like Harvard. . . . I remember Harvard because the principal made a big deal about it. He got a standing ovation at graduation for getting accepted to so many schools . . . . He ended up going to U of M on a full ride I think. (Tierra)

African Americans are educated and value education. Of the 33 students, 13 students (39%) expressed that African Americans are educated. Randy, a Caucasian American, represents those students who focused on education (Excerpt 21):

Excerpt 21

Because from everyone I've met that's African American, they either already have a degree or trying to get a degree to better themselves. . . . In this school in particular, there's a few that are kind of questionable like with the way they write their papers. I suppose because they're from the inner-city and don't have the same education high school level like we get out in the suburbs. So, from that aspect, it's a little—they're a little behind, but that doesn't mean that—that's why they want to be there. I mean they're here trying to change that. So I wouldn't hold it against them. (Randy)

Randy expressed that the African Americans he knew were either educated or pursing an education. Even so, he admitted that African Americans are a little behind due to the quality of inner-city education they received. Despite the lower quality of education compared to that of the suburbs, Randy stressed that African Americans still value education which is why they are pursuing education to lessen the gap.

Michael, an African American, supports the above with a personal example:

I feel I am up there with you [the researcher] because I have a worldly education. I have seen the other side of the world. I've seen how people live. I've experienced it. I've learned to appreciate where I come from. And it wasn't all in a book. This was actually looking and touching. No, no, no, you know, nothing bad against you guys because you guys did it your way, and I did it mine. So I think I'm educated in that sense because I've been there. . . . I'm part of majority because it was very important for me because without the education, I couldn't have gotten as far as I have. Some of us do go to school because that's how we know we can get ahead. (Michael)

African Americans do not value education. In contrast to the above perception, 11 of the

33 students (33%) expressed that African Americans do not value education. Candice, an African,

represents those students who focused on the African Americans' value of education (Excerpt 22):

Excerpt 22

> What I can explain is that African Americans don't really take school as serious. Some of
> them when they come to class, they are just sleeping. We are all stressed in classes, but at
> least you try and be there. You do a little more if you take the class you are taking. But
> some of them at the beginning of the class, there are so many [African Americans] in class.
> By the end of the day, nobody is there. They disappear. (Candice)

While Candice admitted that all students may find university courses stressful or challenging, she

expressed that African Americans do not put forth much effort as they sleep in class. Candice also

expressed that her class would be full of African American students at the start of class. By the

end of class, however, the African Americans would "disappear."

Cognizance of Racism

Africans deemphasize racism. Of the 33 students, 13 students (39%) emphasized that

African immigrants deemphasize racism and other forms of discrimination in America. Bill, an

African, represents those students who focused on racism (Excerpt 23):

Excerpt 23

> I think they do know that it exists, but I don't think they play into it. I think they come
> from the perspective of I have an opportunity to make a better life for myself, and I want
> to work towards that. And they think less about the tensions because I think they're
> fighting their own battles as well with either trying to learn a new country if they're over
> here for the first time and trying to assimilate into a culture and learn a culture that's often
> times different than their own. . . . You don't look for reasons to cast blame unnecessarily,
> but you work hard and you let your work speak, and you let your work and your work ethic
> speak for you and speak for your culture. (Bill)

Bill pointed out that African immigrants are aware of racism in the United States. Even so, Bill expressed that Africans "don't play into it." Rather, African immigrants focus more on thriving in America with high hopes that their work ethics will "speak" for them (Bill).

Similarly, Ana, an Asian Indian, elaborates on the above:

I think they—I think they experience because of their accent . . . most of the time they brush it off. They really don't care. I don't see them make a big, big deal about it all the time because they expect it anyway. What are you going to do about it? Americans have an accent to us too. (Ana)

African Americans overstress racism. Of the 33 students, 18 students (55%) expressed that African Americans overstress racism. Ana, an Asian Indian, represents those students who focused on racism (Excerpt 24):

Excerpt 24

"For every little thing, they [African Americans] take it to be racism. Everything is like racism, racism, racism. They don't know anything other than racism, and they use that to their advantage" (Ana).

Ana pointed out that African Americans overstress racism and use it to their advantage.

Dorothy, an African American, explained why Africans stress racism: "I think it's more of we're so held back in being oppressed that we can't let it go to move forward. And it's just gonna keep being held on to until that's actually realized that it's not just black people against white people; it's human beings against each other" (Dorothy).

Tierra, an African American, elaborated on why African Americans stress racism:

Look at all these black political figures pretending to make a difference. Like the one with the hair, Sharpton, Jesse Jackson, and all the other fake superheroes. . . . They're like so quick to comment when they know little to nothing about situations. . . . Then it like causes African Americans across the nation to go over the top. (Tierra)

Although Joe, an African, agreed that African Americans pull the race card, he admitted they sometimes have good reasons:

> In my personal opinion, sometimes it's necessary, sometimes it's not. Honestly, I got to take it on a case by case scenario. I can't really think of anything outside of my head besides like the Treyvon Martin case. That was a race card play, and I will agree in that particular case the race card should have been played because of the way the police department handled it. (Joe)

Discussion

The results clearly identified university students' perceptions of black African immigrants and African Americans. Although the results appear to focus on the ill-structured issue itself, the purpose of the study as described at the outset is to use an ill-structured issue such as this for argumentation. Hence, this section will discuss with select examples how the descriptive categories of university students' perceptions as presented in Table 2.1 can be used as arguments for argumentative discourse. The discussion on using university students' perceptions as arguments will be supported by the literature on the perceptions of Africans and African Americans. It is important to note that although several arguments may arise from the data, two examples per descriptive category will be used to illustrate how a perception can be used as an argument.

Image and Identity

"Africans take on both African and African American identities" is an argument that was supported by Joe, a university student. In support of this argument, Joe expressed that he has embraced both identities to his advantage. Based on the foregoing argument, one can argue that many African immigrant children have chosen to take on a multi-ethnic identity thereby acting the part whenever necessary (see Bigelow, 2011; Obiakor & Afoláyan, 2007; Offoh, 2003). According to Amoah (2014), African immigrants expect their children "to behave as Ghanaians, Nigerians, Togolese, or Liberians, among others, but at the same time, expect them to compete and succeed as Americans" (p. 127).

Subsequently, these immigrant children act "African" around Africans and act "American" around Africans Americans even if it means changing the pronunciation of their names, endeavoring to speak with an American accent, referring only to their American citizenship or place of residence in the United States, and/or denying their African heritage altogether (see Langmia & Durham, 2007).

While Joy in this study has also expressed taking on both African and African American identities, she cited evidence that it is not always easy to claim both since Africans may feel one is too American, and African Americans may feel one is too African. Accordingly, one cannot ignore the challenges African immigrants face embracing both identities. Case in point, immigrating to America has resulted in numerous male immigrants taking on domestic responsibilities which they may not have been accustomed to in Africa (Nchinda, 2014). Notwithstanding, African immigrants endeavor to hold on to their African heritage and cultural values (see Hailu & Ku, 2014; Massey et al., 2007) while embracing the American identity.

"African Americans embrace their African identity and heritage" is another argument presented by Bryan and his fellow university students. Bryan expressed that his African American brother embraces his African heritage. Thus, Bryan's example supports the argument that there are African Americans that genuinely embrace the African identity and African heritage (Daniel & Lowe, 2014). Some even prefer the label African American to represent a correlation between their African heritage and the American culture (Anglin & Whaley, 2006). Like Bryan's brother, more African Americans are embracing an Afrocentric worldview (see Asante, 1991).

Disposition and Outlook

While the previous argument establishes that African Americans embrace their African heritage, a possible counterargument presented by Tobi could be that "*African Americans are ill-*

informed about Africa and/or Africans" (Constantine et al., 2005; Traoré & Lukens, 2006). For example, many African Americans are uniformed that Africa is not a country but a continent "with over fifty countries, each having its own governance and cultural customs, with over 1,000 languages and dialects, and over 800 million people (Arthur, 2000; Traoré & Lukens, 2006). This can serve as data to support one's argument on the African Americans' lack of knowledge about Africa.

"*Africans are goal oriented and driven to succeed*" is an argument supported by Benjamin, another university student. Benjamin highlighted that African immigrants are motived, dedicated, and have a "die hard attitude" to succeed and become better. Based on the foregoing argument, one can add that African immigrants are willing to do whatever it takes to succeed even if it means taking on many jobs, working long hours (Shaw-Taylor & Tuch, 2007), and returning to school (Byrd, Brunn-Bevel & Sexton, 2014).

Manner and Behavior

"*African males are controlling, domineering, and demean women*" is an argument Ana, a university student, presented. Leslie supported Ana's argument by providing an example concerning her African male coworker who does not treat her as an equal because she is female. While Ana and Leslie frown upon this perception as it could be degrading to women, a counterargument was presented by Sam, another university student. Sam argued that men have to take charge. He added that Americans, likewise, should take note and follow suit.

Michael, a university student, presented another argument that "*African Americans are violent and behave inappropriately.*" Michael cited the violence in Ferguson which stemmed from a police shooting of an African American to support his claim. He also gave examples of younger generation African Americans stealing, robbing, and disrespecting women. Although Michael

presents a good argument and cites the social example above to support his stance, an opposing argument can be that the media, which is the means in which Michael learned about Ferguson, is partial to African Americans. One can support this argument with a well-known fact that negative perceptions of African Americans in the media have given rise to the stereotypical images of African Americans on welfare, doing drugs, and engaging in crime (Traoré & Lukens, 2006).

Work Ethic

"*Africans are hardworking and have good work ethics*" is an argument that was supported by Heather and majority of the university student participants. Heather expressed that her African coworker is hardworking and willing to do the menial tasks she avoids. This argument can be clarified and supported with the literature concerning elite African immigrants who are known to take on many jobs and work long hours (Shaw-Taylor & Tuch, 2007, p. 261). The above argument can be further supported with the fact that most elite African immigrants have worked in fast food chains, home health services, "and other jobs that would not have remotely crossed their imaginations" (Obiakor & Afoláyan, 2007, p. 268) to sustain and provide for the family (Afoláyan, 2002; Johnson, 2008; Obiakor & Afoláyan, 2007).

Similar to above, "*African Americans are hardworking*" is an argument. Rasheed and some other university students expressed that African Americans are just as hardworking as any group. To support this argument, one can point to literature. According to Shaw-Taylor and Tuch (2007), "many poor blacks work now, and accumulated data on poverty and employment indicate that, given the chance, most would" (p. 5). A counterargument, however, is that "*African Americans have poor work ethics.*" Trina, a university student, expressed that African Americans are lazy and work as little as possible. Hence, Trina can support her argument with literature that affirms

African Americans would rather depend on the government than make an earnest living (see Arthur, 2000; Shaw-Taylor & Tuch, 2007; Traoré & Lukens, 2006).

Value of Education

"*Africans are educated and value education*" is an argument that was supported by Joe, a university student. Joe expressed that African immigrant parents take education very seriously hence the reason it is so embedded in the culture. To support this argument, one can again point to the literature for data to support this position. Byrd, Brunn-Bevel, and Sexton (2014) indicated that parents of African immigrant students are more likely to hold advanced graduate degrees than African Americans. Carrington and Detragiache (as cited in Thomas, 2011) noted that 74 percent of all African immigrants in the United States are highly educated. Shaw-Taylor and Tuch (2007) add that the educational attainment of African immigrants is higher than that of Afro-Caribbeans, African Americans, Caucasian, and Asians (Shaw-Taylor & Tuch, 2007). Several studies (e.g., Alex-Assensoh, 2009; Gordon, 2013) also call attention to the fact that African immigrants are greatly represented in colleges and universities especially in Ivy League schools.

"*African Americans are educated and value education*" is another argument. Along with other university student participants, Randy expressed that the African Americans he knows are either educated or pursing an education. Thus, the argument can be made that African Americans, like any other ethnic or racial group, value education and employment because both are universal necessities to flourish in every and any society (Shaw-Taylor & Tuch, 2007). A possible counterargument, however can be "African Americans do not value education." Candice, a university student, expressed that African Americans do not put forth much effort in class. Accordingly, the argument expressed by Candice, can be supported with literature concerning the lower education attainment rate of African Americans (Shaw-Taylor & Tuch, 2007). One can also

cite literature that exposes the discouragement of African Americans to pursue higher education (see O'Hara, Gibbons, Weng, Gerrard, Ronald & Simons, 2012).

Cognizance of Racism

"*Africans deemphasize racism*" is an argument supported by Bill and other university students. Bill expressed that African immigrants do not play into racism. Although African immigrants are not free from racial difficulties and have experienced racially motivated crimes, one can argue that African immigrants do not allow racism to deter them from their goals (see Obiakor & Grant, 2002). Moreover, it can be argued that race, "does not explain performance" (Arthur, 2000) hence the reason African immigrants deemphasize racism.

The final argument, "*African Americans overstress racism*," is supported by Ana and her fellow university students. Ana expressed that African Americans make a big deal about racism and use it to their advantage. While Ana, Dorothy, and Tierra frowned upon the perception, Joe expressed that African Americans have reasons to overemphasize racism at times. Hirsch and Jack (2012), for example, stated that more African Americans are recognizing racism as the major problem facing African Americans today. Fleming, Lamont, and Welburn's (2012) also support Joe's argument by revealing that more working and middle-class African Americans prefer to address racism rather than downgrade or ignore any appearance of racial discrimination.

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Implications

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The phenomenographic study on university students' perceptions of Africans and African Americans generated two implications: (a) phenomenography can be used to explore and categorize people's perceptions of social phenomena, and (b) phenomenographic descriptive categories can be used as arguments for argumentative discourse.

CHAPTER 3 (Article Two)
THE EFFECTS OF CRITERIA INTRUCTION AND COLLABORATIVE REASONING
ON UNIVERISTY STUDENTS' ARGUMENT-COUNTERARGUMENT DISCOURSE

Abstract

The purpose of this mixed methods study was to investigate the effectiveness of two pedagogical tools (criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning) on university students' argumentation abilities. The study consisted of 23 university students in the experimental group and 17 in the control group. The data, which were collected over the course of 10 weeks, are as follows: pre-tests, mid-tests, post-tests, final term papers, and transcripts of the collaborative reasoning groups. Analyses were done using a rubric, statistical tests, and dialogue types. The findings showed that there was a significant statistical difference between the experimental group and control group. As a result of learning criteria instruction and participating in collaborative reasoning groups, university students in the experimental group had better argument-counterargument integration on the writing assessments than the control group. The study implies the pedagogical tools can be used to develop university students' argumentative discourse.

Key Words: argumentation, criteria instruction, collaborative reasoning, mixed methods

Introduction

Teaching students to participate in argumentation at any educational level helps them make sound decisions and take actions based on evidence and reasoning. Knowing how to argue means that students are able to weigh, synthesize, and refute arguments to arrive at reasoned conclusions (Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007). These elements of argumentation are essential to comprehend and support both well-structured and ill-structured issues (Cho & Jonassen, 2003; Jonassen & Kim, 2010). Regardless of the discipline in question, teaching students how to engage in, critique, and write effective arguments are critical abilities for life success (Johnson & Johnson, 2014; Yeh,

1998). Reformers have emphasized students developing argumentation abilities (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013; National Governors Association [NGA] Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO], 2010). Despite the advocacy for argumentation at the K-12 level, research suggests there is limited focus on this area of teaching which seems to add to the challenges of learning how to argue faced by postsecondary students.

More than any field, science education has responded more extensively to the national appeal on argumentation by conceptualizing what it means for teaching and learning (e.g., Driver, Newton, & Osborne, 2000; Duschl & Osborne, 2002; Gu & Belland, 2015; Osborne, Erduran, & Simon, 2004a). Research in science education, for example, has focused on instructional activities and models to develop students' argumentative discourse in science learning contexts. Science education scholars have also focused on professional development and educational instruction on argumentation for teachers of science. Although numerous studies in science have strengthened the understanding of argumentation specifically in educational contexts, the research contributions conducted in other fields at both the school age and university levels cannot be denied. School based studies include the following: English language arts (ELA) (e.g., Applebee, Langer, Nystrand, & Gamoran, 2003), history (e.g., Goldberg, Schwarz, & Porat, 2008), and math (e.g., Inglis, Mejia-Ramos, & Simpson, 2007; Kollar et al., 2014). University level studies include educational psychology (e.g., Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007) and engineering (e.g., Hoffmann & Borenstein, 2014; Jonassen & Cho, 2011).

Notwithstanding the research on argumentation in the aforementioned fields, students at various educational levels still face considerable challenges when examining and constructing arguments. A major challenge faced by school students is my-side bias which is the act of considering only the side favored by the student (Perkins, Faraday, & Bushey, 1991). In other

words, students typically focus on their own stance in place of offering counterarguments to opposition and rebuttals to strengthen their written arguments (Felton & Herko, 2004). Another challenge middle and high school students commonly face is constructing written arguments identically to oral arguments using conventions of conversation. This may be as a result of the argumentative practices in educational settings being grounded in oral discourse (see Nussbaum & Kardash, 2005). The end result, nonetheless, commonly leads to a one-sided written argument (Felton & Herko, 2004). Since most adolescents are unexperienced in constructing and elaborating on arguments (Felton & Herko, 2004), it should be no surprise that these same students enter the college or university with their writing abilities still underdeveloped.

Postsecondary students, regardless of age, face challenges constructing arguments as well. A common weakness apparent in the persuasive essays of college students, for example, is the lack of counter-argumentation (Jonassen & Kim, 2010; Liu & Stapleton, 2014; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007; Perkins, Farady, & Bushey, 1991; Qin & Karabacak, 2010). This supports the notion that postsecondary students are also likely to exemplify one-sided arguments or defensive tactics of their own view.

Thus, from a teaching and learning perspective, the purpose of this study was to document, narrate, and interpret how the use of criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning helped university students to develop their ability to successfully integrate arguments and counterarguments on an ill-structured issue. The ill-structured issue in this study consisted of black Africans and African Americans. Ill-structured issues "are characterized as having (a) alternative solutions to problems, (b) vaguely defined or unclear goals and constraints, (c) multiple solution paths, and (d) multiple criteria for evaluating solutions" (Jonassen & Kim, 2010, p. 449). Despite

its complexity, ill-structured issues are noteworthy given that the contexts are usually more relatable to the participants involved (Jonassen, 1997; Simon, 1973).

Theoretical Frameworks

Two suitable argumentation frameworks guided this study: Toulmin's (1958) argument pattern (TAP) modified and Walton and Krabbe's (1995) forms of dialogue.

Toulmin's Argument Pattern

TAP consists of the following elements: claim, data, warrants (i.e., rules, policies, or principles), modal qualifiers, backing, and rebuttals. These elements are defined and intertwined with the support of one example concerning the education status of an African immigrant named Kofi which is also illustrated in Figure 1.

Claim is the position statement being argued. If a student declares that Kofi, an African immigrant, is well educated, the student is posing a position statement or making a claim for argumentation. The worth of the claim, however, depends on the merit of information or knowledge presented to support the claim. The evidence supporting the claim should be incontestable thereby ruling out irrelevant information. In order to establish a defensible claim or what Toulmin (1958) calls a conclusion, the arguer must set out to establish.

Data contribute to the evidence in order to support the claim. Continuing with the example above, the student could state as datum to support the claim that 74% of all African immigrants in the United States are highly educated (see Thomas, 2011). Although the datum used to support the aforementioned claim is in numerical form, it is worth mentioning that data can also be categorical. The type of data used as a basis for the claim solely depends on the elements (or variables) surrounding the argument.

Warrants are general rules or principles that link the data and the claim to make the conclusion justifiable. Using the ongoing example, a warrant to link the datum to the claim could be that Kofi was born and raised in Ghana for thirty years prior to moving to the United States.

Modal qualifiers specify the strength given by the warrant. Hence, the modal qualifier for the example being explored is very likely.

Backing comes in the form of clear-cut, factual statements that support the warrant and occasionally data presented in the argument. Using the same example, backing for the warrant could be that Ghana is a country in Africa. Backing for the datum could be that (a) Ghana and Nigeria are the major exporters of educated people to other countries and/or (b) the educational attainment of African immigrants is higher than that of Caucasians and Asians (see Shaw-Taylor & Tuch, 2007).

Rebuttals, also referred to as the "condition of exception" (Toulmin, 1958, p. 101), specify condition in which the warrant would be nullified. Considering the example again, a possible rebuttal could be that Kofi is one of the 26% of African immigrants in America with little to no education.

Figure 3.1

Sample Argument Using Toulmin's (1958) Framework
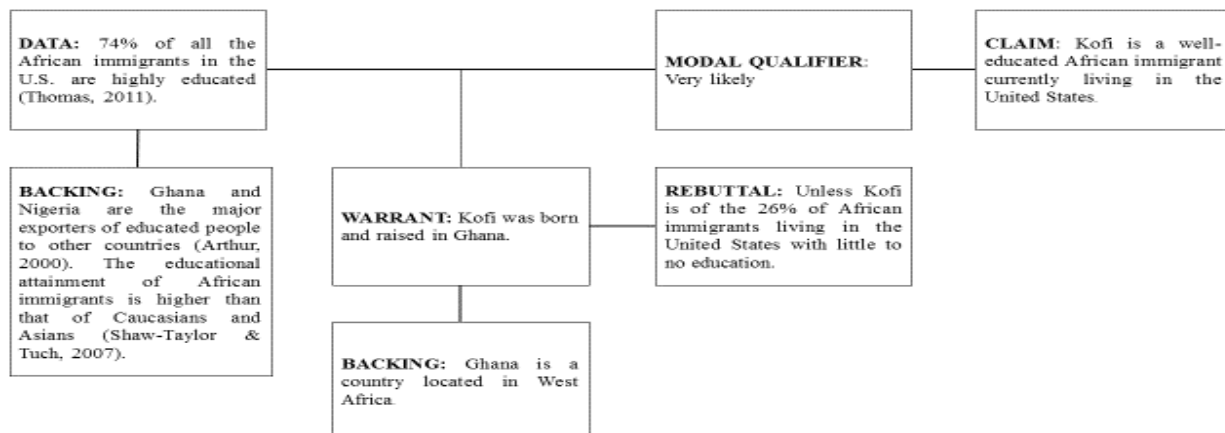
Modifications to Toulmin's Argumentation Pattern

TAP has been used by several scholars to explore the quality of argumentation (Evagorou & Osborne, 2013; Ogan-Bekiroglu & Eskin, 2012). While researchers and educators frequently use TAP to teach, compose, and evaluate rhetorical arguments (Erduran, Simon, & Osborne, 2004; Fulkerson, 1996; Nussbaum, 2011; Tsai & Tsai 2014), numerous researchers (e.g., Plantin, 2005; Sadler & Fowler, 2006; Sampson & Clark, 2008) have noted major flaws in the model. A serious problem mentioned, for example, is the model's failure to consider both sides of an issue (Leitão, 2001; Reznitskaya, Anderson, & Kuo, 2007). The confusion, however, lies in the parallel meanings of a rebuttal in TAP and a counterargument in argumentation. Although TAP does not explicitly mention a counterargument, a rebuttal in TAP is a condition of exception within the established claim (Toulmin, 1958, p. 101). Likewise, a counterargument can be defined as an exception to the rule established by the claim. Consequently, using TAP to analyze arguments presents serious challenges as statements posed by the arguer could likely be classified under more than one element in TAP (see Samson & Clark, 2008).

Toulmin's (1958) framework for argumentation has limitations particularly within social issues such as the ill-structured example used in the present study. Even so, the need for stating a claim in addition to providing data and rebuttals as mentioned in TAP are noteworthy since one cannot persuade if a claim is not made with data to support the claim and rebuttals to express conditions (Stapleton & Wu, 2015). Hence, this study used the claim, data, and rebuttal elements in TAP and added counterargument (a position contrary to the claim put forward) to form a modified version of TAP (henceforth termed modified TAP). Modified TAP was used to analyze university students' pre-tests, mid-tests, post-tests, and final term papers. Figure 2 illustrates the foregoing example using modified TAP:

Figure 3.2

Sample Argument Using a Modified Version of Toulmin's (1958) Argument Pattern

DATA: According to Thomas (2011), 74% of all the African immigrants in the United States are highly educated with Ghana and Nigeria being the major exporters of educated people to the country (Arthur, 2000). In light of the fact that Kofi is a native of Ghana who recently migrated to America, it is very likely that he is one of the highly educated African immigrants living in the United States.

CLAIM: Kofi is a well-educated African immigrant currently living in the United State

REBUTTAL: While it is true that every African immigrant in America is not well educated, majority (74%) of the African immigrant population are highly educated. Moreover, Kofi comes from Ghana which is an African country known for their exporting of educated people to other countries. Hence, it is expected that Kofi, like several other Ghanaian immigrants, is well educated.

COUNTERARGUMENT: Some may insinuate that Kofi is among the 26% of African immigrants in the United who have little to no education.

Walton and Krabbe's Forms of Dialogue

Even as modified TAP calls for specific structure with well-defined elements when writing argumentative essays, argumentation is governed by presumptive reasoning which favors oral arguments pertaining to ill-structured issues. Because real oral dialogue is multifaceted and articulated, it is necessary to elaborate on argumentation as a form of dialogue for which Walton and Krabbe's (1995) classifications of dialogue are worth mentioning. Walton and Krabbe (1995) grouped various forms of dialogue into six major types: persuasion dialogue, negotiation dialogue, inquiry dialogue, deliberation dialogue, information-seeking dialogue, and eristic dialogue. Each type of dialogue has distinct characteristics and different rules participants are committed to follow. The six dialogues are described in detail.

P*ersuasion dialogue* occurs when there is a clash of points of view. The goal of each party involved is to persuade the other to take on their claim. Case in point, if student B disagrees with

student A's claim that the stereotypes of Africans and African Americans are truthful, persuasion dialogue can occur since both will have to convince the other that his or her claim is more credible. This can be done by supporting the claims with data which Toulmin (1958) emphasizes.

The goal of *negotiation dialogue* is to make a deal amongst the parties involved. The aim of the participants is to get what they most desire out of the situation. According to Walton and Krabbe (1995), "Each participant aims to maximize his share of some goods or services which are in short supply" (p. 72). This is done by bargaining and making a settlement agreeable to both parties. While the process may also involve persuasion dialogue and/or inquiry dialogue, it should be noted here that unlike persuasive dialogue, negotiation dialogue does not start from a clash of points of view but rather an "open problem" (Walton & Krabbe, 1995, p. 72). For a working example, if students A and B agree that most of the stereotypes of Africans and African Americans are factual, they could possibly negotiate or thoroughly discuss to what extent the stereotypes are true.

The aim of *inquiry dialogue* is to establish facts in order to prove that a claim is worthy and that no other logical explanation can be derived from the facts. Supposing students A, B, and C are uncertain about the notion that African immigrants are insensible to racism in America. Inquiry dialogue could transpire if the three decide to work together to discover if the claim is worthy.

Deliberation dialogue occurs when there is a dilemma or a need for action. While deliberation dialogue is similar to inquiry dialogue in the sense that it starts from an open problem, "the goal [of deliberation dialogue] is a decision on how to act" (Walton & Krabbe, 1995, p. 73). Every participant tries to come up with the best course of action obtainable. For example, if student A and B conclude that the stereotypes of African Americans are bogus, the dialogue could possibly

shift to deliberation where both parties propose ideas to change the future image of African Americans.

Information-seeking dialogue takes place when one participant desires information from a participant with knowledge. It can also occur when all the participants involved lack but desire information. The goal of information-seeking dialogue is to share and exchange information so the participants can acquire information. For example, if students B and C desire to learn more about the Nigerian Civil War, they may seek to ask student A given that (one) he was born and raised in Nigeria, (two) he majored in history in his native country, and (three) his father served in the Nigerian army in the late 60s.

Eristic dialogue occurs when there is personal conflict and the emotions of the participants get in the way. When this happens, one or more of the participants verbally attack the other with aims to reveal the deeper basis of the conflict. For example, if student A verbally lashes out on student B instead of addressing the argument, eristic dialogue is taking place.

The knowledge and experiences of the participants along with the role(s) the participants take on determine how, what, and when the dialogues unfold. Since real dialogue is more complex and articulated, it is probable that the conversations amongst students in collaborative reasoning groups will take on multiple dialogues. This demonstrates that the dialogue types as categorized by Walton and Krabbe (1995) are neither independent nor unrelated. Instead, the six forms of dialogue are a guide to evaluating real conversations or arguments in which shifts in dialogue are likely to occur. According to Walton (1992), a shift occurs when there is a transition from one dialogue to another. Dialectical shifts can occur abruptly or gradually (Walton, 1992). Because dialectical shifts are bound to take place in real conversations and/or arguments, Walton and

Krabbe (1995) recognized mixed dialogue as another dialogue that occurs when two or more of the six dialogues transpire.

Merging Toulmin's (1958) framework with Walton and Krabbe's (1995) perspective of argumentation could be advantageous when teaching argumentative discourse in a classroom setting. Modified TAP can be used to analyze students' argumentative essays when oral discourse has proceeded it. It can also be used to teach students how to write good argumentative essays independently. Walton and Krabbe's (1995) classifications of dialogue, on the other hand, can be used to examine and interpret students' persuasive dialogues in collaborative reasoning groups on an ill-structure issue. Thus, the intention is that the two approaches combined will help to strengthen students' argumentation abilities specifically in persuasive writing.

Argumentation for Classroom Practice

To understand argument-counterargument integration and its usefulness in educational settings, it is important to analyze how argumentation is perceived and how it has been used in classroom settings. The use of effective argumentation in educational settings has been limited due to the notion that such practices are aggressive, distasteful, and can interfere with the learning process (Andriessen, 2006; Zarefsky, 2005). According to Andriessen (2006), one's negative view on the use of argumentation in educational settings may be due to the aggressive forms of argument displayed in the media (e.g., talk shows, movies, and the political sphere). It is also common for educators and parents to confuse productive argumentation with "destructive quarrels" (Zarefsky, 2005, p. 3) or eristic dialogue as defined by Walton and Krabbe (1995). Aware of the importance of students developing their argumentation abilities and the national appeal to teach argumentation, numerous scholars have encouraged the use of argumentation in classroom settings. Two forms of

argumentation that have been used and tested in formal education settings (Jonassen & Kim, 2010) are rhetorical arguments and dialectical arguments.

A rhetorical argument, also known as monological argument, is the most common form of argumentation used in educational settings when the learning goal involves persuasion. Rhetorical arguments can be oral or in written form. Involving dialogue between an arguer and an audience (Jonassen & Cho, 2011), the goal of a rhetorical argument is to persuade an audience to take on the arguer's point of view regardless of the positions held by the audience. The arguer examines how to make his or her stance more credible and productive in order to convince others. A rhetorical argument is considered effective when it gains the approval of the intended audience (Jonassen & Kim, 2010, p. 443). Because the arguer is left alone to consider counterarguments and rebuttals without any cues from the other side, rhetorical arguments—be it oral or written—can be a challenge for students. Without counterarguments to their argument by the opposing parties, students face great difficulty presenting reasonable rebuttals and counterarguments on top of producing compelling evidence (Kuhn, 1991). Students may have the impression that opposing views or counterarguments are not as important in rhetoric argumentation (Reznitskaya et al., 2007, p. 453). Thus, the end result is usually a less effective argument as other alternatives are not addressed or confronted.

A dialectical argument, also known as a dialogical or multi-voiced argument, is different from a rhetorical argument given that it "represents a dialogue between proponents of alternative claims" with the intention to "resolve differences of opinions" (Jonassen & Kim, 2010, p. 444). Unlike rhetorical argumentation where the participant has to come up with the argument and counterargument, dialectical argumentation usually takes on a verbal format which gives participants the opportunity to be presented with counterarguments to their argument by opposing

parties (i.e., persuasive dialogue). Irrespective of dialectal arguments being perceived as combative, the parties involved maintain their positions while remaining open to influences to reach a particular conclusion (Zarefsky, 2005). Ultimately, multiple views are addressed by the participant(s) with counterarguments presented. The argument either concludes with (a) the arguer convincing the opponent that his or her claim is better or (b) the arguer and the opponent reasoning together about multiple claims.

Dialectal arguments are advantageous in educational settings given that the process can occur within the individual as well as in groups. Dialectical argumentation should also be recommended when the learning goal requires that students resolve differences in opinion. Two forms of dialectal arguments used in educational settings are pragma-dialectics (see van Eemeren & Grootendorst, 1992) and argumentation schemes for presumptive reasoning (see Walton, 1996; Walton & Krabbe, 1995). Pragma-dialectics model is a discourse activity used to resolve differences of opinion amongst students (Jonassen & Kim, 2010, p. 444). During critical discussions, students are expected to present their claims (confrontation stage), acknowledge their role in the argument to resolve differences in assertions (opening stage), defend their claims and make counterarguments (argumentation stage), and determine who wins or loses the argument (concluding stage) (van Eemeren & Grootendorst 1992; van Eemeren, Grootendorst, & Henkemans, 1996; Jonassen & Kim, 2010). Presumptive arguments, however, are based on plausibility which means that the conclusion of the argument is tentative to further analysis and discussion (Walton, 1996). Regardless of the form of dialectical argument used in educational settings, making counterarguments is just as critical as presenting arguments (Jonassen & Kim, 2010).

Even when students participate in rhetorical or dialectical arguments in classroom settings, a key component to arguing well is the use of counterarguments. Counterarguments are opposing views or positions to the arguer's propositions. There are three ways students can integrate arguments with counterarguments: (one) refutation strategy wherein the final argument addresses the argument as well as the counterargument, (two) synthesizing where the final conclusion compromises between the argument and counterargument, and (three) weighing which occurs when both sides are weighed concurrently and the argument is made that evidence on one side is stronger than the other or the solution exceeds the disadvantages (Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007). Nussbaum and Kardash (2005) add that "many normative models of good thinking involve the ability to consider and evaluate alternative viewpoints" (p. 157). Most arguments invariably have multiple views resulting in an overwhelming number of counterarguments, so partaking in rhetorical and dialectical arguments requires that students address the counterarguments alongside their arguments. The ability to address both the argument and the counterargument orally or in written form is known as argument-counterargument integration.

Teaching Argumentation

Argument-counterargument integration is complex especially when there are multiple views. It takes time for students to develop their ability to construct good arguments hence the reason argumentation at multiple grade levels is essential. Researchers and educators alike are examining strategies that can positively influence students' argumentative discourse. By developing as well as improving curricular and instructional activities designed to help students better integrate arguments and counterarguments, the goal is that students enhance their argumentation abilities and problem-solving performances. Two strategies that have been

recommended and/or tested by researchers to develop students' argumentative discourse are the implementation of specific criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning.

Specific Criteria Instruction

As an intervention to help students better integrate arguments and counterarguments, students can be given criteria instruction or goals that define the qualities of a good argument. For the sake of this study, the qualities of a good argument were taken from modified TAP. Accordingly, the criteria instruction is as follows: (a) a *claim* or position, (b) *data* or supporting details used to develop claim, (c) *rebuttals* (with or without data) and (d) *counterarguments* (with or without data). The use of criteria instruction can improve students' argumentative performance and writing (Ferretti, MacArthur, & Dowdy, 2000).

While providing criteria instruction can encourage students to examine various sides of the argument and plan more effectively, the advantages of criteria instruction as an intervention in pre-posttest studies are still unknown. Take Nussbaum and Schraw's (2007) study as an example. The results of the study found that university students with directions had better argument-counterargument integration compared to those who did not receive directions or treatment. Even so, it is difficult to determine whether or not the university students in the experimental group were better writers from the onset since the students' writing abilities were never assessed prior to the intervention. The results of Nussbaum and Schraw's (2007) study would not be under such scrutiny had the participants been tested before and after the implementation. With this in mind, it is essential to have pre-posttests of students' argumentative writing abilities in order to gain a holistic understanding of the efficacy of criteria instruction in the teaching of argumentative writing.

In Liu and Stapleton's (2014) study, nonetheless, a pretest-posttest design was used to clarify the effects of implementing criteria instruction. University students in the experimental

group received criteria instruction on argumentative writing while the control group received the "typical classroom instruction" (Liu & Stapleton, 2014, p. 121). The results of the study found that university students in the experimental group had improved rubric scores owing to the learning of criteria instruction for argumentation. Although a pretest-posttest design was used, it was determined that the criteria instruction intervention was not isolated as specified in the study. This is apparent in the third step as students were involved in group activities. University students in the experimental group had to:

> [S]tate their positions to group members and produce as many arguments, counterarguments and rebuttals as possible. Since individual students held varied, or opposing views towards a controversial topic, group members worked together to generate their own data, counterarguments and rebuttals. (Liu & Stapleton, 2014, p. 121)

The previous quote supports the view that university students took part in another intervention known as collaborative reasoning. Not only did students in Liu and Stapleton's (2014) study participate in group activities for a number of weeks, they were also involved in another intervention commonly known as peer learning (or teaching). To clarify, a university student from each group had to report claims, data, counterarguments and rebuttals to the class (Liu & Stapleton, 2014, p. 121). Thus, students were teaching students, and students were learning from other students. Provided that the instruction in the control group was strictly teacher led, there is a possibility that peer interaction could have also influenced students' scores in the experimental group.

It is important to note that one is not against using multiple interventions to teach argumentation as the above-mentioned interventions are commendable in their own right. Candidly speaking, the teacher (and researchers) involved in Liu and Stapleton's (2014) study should be highly commended for using the aforementioned interventions (i.e., collaborative reasoning groups and peer learning) to support the university students' learning of criteria

instruction for argumentation. All the same, it cannot be negated that other interventions together with the criteria instruction may have significantly influenced the scores of students in the experimental group. If the post-test was issued immediately after teaching the criteria instruction and not at the end of the course, there is a possibility that the results of the study could have been different. A middle assessment taken immediately after the implementation of criteria instruction could have also rectified the errors found in the Liu and Stapleton's (2014) study. Taking these things into consideration, each intervention in this study was tested independently as much as possible. Still, a key point to consider is that Liu and Stapleton's (2014) study support the notion that the use of criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning groups can help university students improve in their abilities to integrate both arguments and counterarguments.

Collaborative Reasoning for Argumentation

When arguing orally, students are expected to (a) participate and deliberate together thus providing reasons for their position(s), (b) listen to as well as evaluate other participants' positions, (c) state counterclaims, and (d) offer rebuttals when and if necessary. The outcome is that students are able to delve deeper into the argument thereby examining various sides of the issue and allowing for argument-counterargument integration (see Keefer, Zeitz, & Resnick, 2000; Reznitskaya et al., 2001). An approach that can help students delve deeper by increasing student engagement, emphasizing peer-to-peer learning, and stimulating creativity is collaborative reasoning (Hoffmann & Borenstein, 2014). Collaborative reasoning is an educational approach developed by researchers from the Center for the Study of Reading at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (Reznitskaya et al., 2009).

Though collaborative reasoning (or learning) and cooperative learning are sometimes used interchangeably since both involve students actively participating in small group activities, it

should be clarified that the two are not the same. Cooperative learning is (a) more structured in nature by way of "individual accountability" (Smith, Sheppard, Johnson, & Johnson, 2005, p. 2), (b) places the educator at the center of authority (see Robinson, 1990), and (c) rewards or recognizes students mainly on the group's performance (Slavin, 1980). On the contrary, collaborative reasoning (or learning) is (a) collective as students come together to address the learning task or phenomenon in question; (b) reciprocal since students (and educator) learn from each other, (c) supportive in which students articulate their ideas with the goal of reaching collective understanding that was not gain prior to the learning task; (d) cumulative as students build on (and modify) their ideas and the ideas of others; and (e) purposeful wherein the intentions of the dialogical activity are clearly defined (see Alexander, 2005; Osborne, Simon, Christodoulou, Howell-Richardson, & Richardson, 2013, p. 2).

In relation to argumentation, collaborative reasoning is defined by Nussbaum (2008) "as a social process in which individuals work together to construct and critique arguments" (p. 348). Osborne et al. (2013) define collaborative reasoning in argumentation as "dialectic between construction and critique" (p. 2). Both definitions are different from a debate wherein participants are required to take a stance and persuade the audience. Building on the definitions above, the purpose of collaborative reasoning in argumentation is for students to acquire a deeper conceptual learning of phenomena to improve their argument-counterargument integration abilities.

A number of studies conducted have shown that students who participated in collaborative reasoning for argumentative purposes had a better grasp of argument-counterargument integration than those who did not (e.g., Dong, Anderson, Kim, & Li, 2008; Kuhn & Udell, 2003; Reznitskaya et al., 2007). Including the aforementioned studies, extensive research on the use of collaborative reasoning has been done at the school age level. Although research studies on online collaborative

reasoning have been done at the university level (e.g., Limbu & Markauskaite, 2015; Mcalister, Ravenscroft, & Scanlon, 2004), no study to date has examined, tracked, or detailed how face to face collaborative reasoning can influence university student' argumentative writing abilities. This present study examined the types of dialogue that evolved when first-year university students participated in collaborative reasoning groups for argumentative purposes.

Purpose of Study

With the knowledge that students have the tendency to rule out or exclude counterarguments especially when writing argumentative texts (Nussbaum & Kardash, 2005), it is critical that educators and researchers come up with new curricular and instructional techniques, strategies, and methods that will help students organize their thinking, evaluate various sides of the issue, and make written arguments logically stronger (Voss & Van Dyke, 2001). To improve argument-counterargument integration, it is recommended that students receive specific criteria instruction (Jonassen & Kim, 2010; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007) and take part in collaborative reasoning groups (Kuhn & Udell, 2003; Reznitskaya et al., 2001). It is also suggested that ill-structured issues be brought into play to help students engage in effective argumentation (Jonassen, 1997).

The overarching goal of this study was to engage university students in writing persuasive essays on an ill-structured issue concerning black African immigrants and African Americans. It was anticipated that the interventions would positively influence university students' abilities to argue persuasively. The claims used for developing university students' argumentative discourse pertained to the literature review and university students' pre-instructional statements of African immigrants and African Americans (in review). The following questions guide this study:

1. How do university students' argument-counterargument integration abilities in writing change over the course of a semester as a result of the interventions?

2. What types of dialogue occur within the collaborative reasoning groups?

To answer the first question, modified TAP was applied to university students' pre-tests, mid-tests, post-tests, and final term papers whereas Walton and Krabbe's (1995) forms of dialogue were used to examine and interpret the dialogues that occurred within each collaborative reasoning group.

Significance of the Study

This study is significant for two primary reasons. First, this study contributes to the literature on effective argumentation strategies that English educators can implement to improve students' argumentative writing abilities. This is significant given that there are not many studies on argument-counterargument integration in English language arts (ELA) and very few studies (if any) in English at the postsecondary level. Since English binds all disciplines, the findings in this study on argument-counterargument integration will help and extend to other fields.

Secondly, this study examines pedagogical tools that can improve university students' abilities to construct individual arguments. Postsecondary is a crucial time to learn and use argumentation especially since "organizing text as arguments is central to a number of writing genres, including academic, business, expository, and persuasive writing" (Nussbaum & Kardash, 2005, p. 157). Argumentation also contributes to deeper conceptual learning (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 1999). The pedagogical tools explored can specifically be used in various educational settings and disciplines to help prepare university students for the worlds of school and work where argumentative discourse is the norm and argumentation abilities are essential.

Methodology

Setting

The participants in the study attended Sunshine University located in a metropolitan area. Amid a culturally diverse student body, the university served a growing number of undergraduates as a result of two prevailing science programs. The university also served a growing population of beginning and transfer students due to the growing demand in medical fields specifically in the United States.

Course Description

Composition I is a composition course designed to help students achieve competency in academic writing by focusing primarily on essay development. Beginning with an informal writing assignment, students learn to recognize essential components of an essay in order to write and communicate effectively. From the informal essay, university students progress to research and persuasive essay forms. Intensive writing instruction, word study, and critical reading skills are emphasized in the course with the goal that students learn the general processes of communicating through writing. University students are also required to read multicultural texts.

Participants

In the fall semester of 2014, 40 English composition students from two intact classes were asked to participate in the study. Because the university had experienced an increase in adults returning to school to pursue new careers, the average freshman was no longer the typical eighteen-year-old. The age range of the participants varied from 19 to 55. Twenty-three English composition students were in the experimental group that participated in the interventions. Seventeen students from one intact class were in the control group that received normal instruction in argumentative writing. In other words, the control group did not receive instruction on argument-counterargument integration.

Data Collection

A 10-week intervention was applied to the research group of two natural classes of which one was experimental and one was control. A pre-test was issued to all participants at the beginning of the study after which the experimental group received criteria instruction. After the experimental group received the first intervention, all university student participants in the experimental and control groups were given the mid-test. Subsequently, the experimental group participated in collaborative reasoning group meetings on the ill-structured topic before the post-test was issued to all university student participants. At the end of the study, all university student participants composed and submitted a final term paper. During the 10-week time period, the control group received typical instruction which focused on essay format (intro, body, and conclusion), the writer's stance (claim), and providing evidence (data).

The university student participants were provided with an information sheet summarizing literature based and university students' claims of black Africans and African Americans as well as a testing booklet. University student participants were then given one hour to write an essay expressing their view(s) on the following question: Are the perceptions of Africans and African Americans truthful or stereotypical? All the assessments (pre-test, mid-test, and post-test) were identical. The final term paper was based on the aforementioned prompt. Summary of the instructional activities and data collection are summarized in the table below (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1

Instructional and Research Activities Schedule

Date	Instructor and/or Research Activity	Time Frame	Data Collected
Week 1	Review Information Sheet (Appendix A) Pre-test	15 minutes (opt.) 1 hour	Pre-tests
Week 2	Criteria Instruction (Session 1) Led by Researcher	90 minutes	

Week 3	Criteria Instruction (Session 2) Led by Researcher	90 minutes	
Week 4	Mid-test	1 hour	Mid-tests
Week 5	Collaborative Reasoning Groups (1)	90 minutes	Audio Recordings of Group Discussions Observation Notes
Week 6	Collaborative Reasoning Groups (2)	90 minutes	Audio Recordings of Group Discussions Observation Notes
Week 7	Collaborative Reasoning Groups (3)	90 minutes	Audio Recordings of Group Discussions Observation Notes
Week 8	Collaborative Reasoning Groups (4)	90 minutes	Audio Recordings of Group Discussions Observation Notes
Week 9	Post-test	1 hour	Post-tests
Week 10	Submit Final Term Paper	2-3 hours	Final Term Papers

Data Analysis

The use of a mixed methods design (Creswell, 2009) was appropriate to clarify how criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning can influence students' abilities to integrate arguments and counterarguments. Because two different interventions were implemented, each strategy was analyzed differently and individually before summarizing the results of the study. The methods of analyzing the group discussions as well as the pre-tests, mid-tests, post-tests, and final term papers are clearly defined below.

Modified Toulmin's Argument Pattern (TAP)

Modified TAP was used as the categories for coding to analyze the control and experimental students' pre-tests, mid-tests, post-tests, and the final term papers. The following elements were identified: claim, data, counterargument, and rebuttal. Once the modified TAP

categories were identified, the foregoing assessments were examined again to rate the success of argument-counterargument integration using a modified version of Nussbaum and Schraw's (2007) 4-point rubric as describe below:

1 point   No Integrated Argument-Counterargument. Student only discusses one side of the issue or does not attempt to make a claim. There are no counterarguments or rebuttals.

2 points Partially Integrated Argument-Counterargument. Student's claim is evident but may be unclear or confusing. Reasons to support claim (data) are mentioned but may be irrelevant, confusing, and/or distracting. Possible reasons against the claim (counterarguments) may be mentioned but not discussed.

3 points Well Integrated Argument-Counterargument. Student makes claim with some relevant reasons and/or examples to support the claim (data). While counterarguments are mentioned, student fails to rebuttal and/or reaffirm stance.

4 points Excellent Integrated Argument-Counterargument. Student makes a claim and supports it with clear reasons and/or examples (data). Reasons against the student's claim (counterarguments) are discussed with possible explanations and/or rebuttals.

The process of analyzing the pre-tests, mid-tests, post-tests and final term papers is discussed below:

The perception that Africans are goal-orient [*sic*] and educated is truthful. This is not a stereotype no matter how you look at it. The first question that should be asked is what percentage of Africans does live in America and can that percentage be used to judge them. If it can be used, then the perception is true. Unlike the African American, the African

expresses a willingness to take advantage of the many opportunities that exist in America. They have a desire to go to school, work, become successful, ect. [*sic*] There is always the argument that Africans are not educated because they start at the lowest college level in America. It must be mentioned here that based on the requirements of the American education system it is wiser for any immigrant to start over, not just Africans. The fact that these Africans are already educated and they have that innate drive to succeed makes the perception true. (Adam)

Claim: "The perception that Africans are goal-orient [*sic*] and educated is truthful" (Adam).

Data: "Unlike the African American, the African expresses a willingness to take advantage of the many opportunities that exist in America. They have a desire to go to school, work, become successful, ect. [*sic*]" (Adam).

Counterargument: "There is always the argument that Africans are not educated because they start at the lowest college level in America" (Adam).

Rebuttal: It must be mentioned here that based on the requirements of the American education system it is wiser for any immigrant to start over, not just Africans. . . . African immigrants in America are from the educated middle class of their countries. The fact that these Africans are already educated and they have that innate drive to succeed makes the perception true. (Adam)

Analysis of Collaborative Reasoning

The transcripts of collaborative reasoning discussions in which the university students in the experimental group took part were analyzed using Walton and Krabbe's (1995) classifications of dialogue as the theoretical coding categories. The theoretical coding categories were persuasion dialogue, negotiation dialogue, inquiry dialogue, deliberation dialogue, information-seeking dialogue, and eristic dialogue. Collaborative reasoning group dialogues were highlighted and classified under the focal color the category represented.

Because one's readiness and confidence can influence what and how dialogues develop or transpire, university students were also identified as aggressive, assertive, middle, or passive based

on the in-class observations of university students in collaborative reasoning groups, audio recordings, and transcripts. The categories are briefly described below:

Aggressive. The university student excessively exerts his or her claim, feelings, and/or opinions whilst discounting the claims, feeling, and opinions of others within the group. The university student uses one or more of the following tactics to dominate the discussion: (a) humiliation, (b) a demeaning, demanding, or overbearing voice, (c) frequent interruptions, (d) domination/control, and/or (e) intimidation. The student favors monologues than dialogues.

Assertive. The student appears confident and willing to discuss the ill-structured issue with others. The university student is able to stand behind and/or express his or her claim in a positive, effective manner as well as provide data, counterarguments, and rebuttals when necessary. The university student may respect or acknowledge the ideas, opinions, or claims of other students in the group.

Middle. The student is confident and willing to discuss the ill-structured issue for the most part. Though sporadically, the student may become passive, reluctant or overly laidback during one or more of the group discussions. The student participates just enough to be noticed or recognized as an active participant in the discussions.

Passive: The student is reluctant, overly laidback, or just unwilling to participate in the group discussion. The student does one or more of the following for extended periods during the discussion: (a) avoids conflict, (b) fails to express his or her claim, feelings, and/or opinions, (c) speaks softly or contritely, and/or (d) refuses to respond, comment, or even speak.

The Validity and Reliability of the Study

Based on the validity criteria, the validity was established by following the evaluative criteria of Lincoln and Guba (1985). A whole term was spent with the university students in the

study to examine the effects of implementing criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning to improve students' written argumentation. Students' interactions in collaborative reasoning were also observed. These satisfied the requirements of prolonged engagement and persistent observation. The data were systematically collected and analyzed which again contributes to the validity of the study.

Inter-rater reliability of the control group and experimental group participants' pre-, mid-, post-tests, and final term papers were performed by two external experts independently using the modified TAP coding system followed by the modified version of Nussbaum and Schraw's (2007) 4-point rubric. Inter-rater reliability of the collaborative reasoning transcripts was also performed by the same two external experts after they received clear and concise instructions on Walton and Krabbe's (1995) classifications of dialogue. The experts met from time to time to discuss the results, resolve disagreements, and discuss discrepancies in analyses. The experts reached 98% agreement on the rubric scores of students' writing assessments, and 93% agreement on the types of dialogues that transpired in the collaborative reasoning groups.

Results

The results section consist of two major sections: Significance of the Bundle of Argumentation Pedagogy and Collaborative Reasoning: Students' Communication Styles.

Significance of the Bundle of Argumentation Pedagogy

The objective of this particular comparison was to analyze the writing rubric scores between the control group and the experimental group. More specifically, the interest was in comparing if a significant difference existed between each of the tested scores (pre-tests, mid-tests, post-tests, and final term papers) between the control group and the experimental group. The appropriate test used to perform this comparison is the Mann-Whitney U test which is a

nonparametric version of the independent t-test between subjects. On the pretest, the Mann-Whitney U test indicated that the experimental group (Mdn = 19.48) was statistically equivalent to the control group (Mdn = 21.88), U = 172 p = 0.53, r = -0.118. On the mid-test, the Mann-Whitney U test indicated that the experimental group (Mdn = 24.41) was significantly greater than the control group (Mdn = 15.21), U = 1.05.5, p = 0.013, r = -0.414. On the post-test, the Mann-Whitney U test indicated that the experimental group (Mdn = 23.87) was significantly greater than the control group (Mdn = 15.94), U = 118 p = 0.034, r = -0.354. On the final term paper, the Mann-Whitney U test indicated that the experimental group (Mdn = 24.80) was significantly greater than the control group (Mdn = 14.68), U = 96.5, p = 0.006, r = -0.464. Tables 3.2 and 3.3 summarize the results below:

Table 3.2

Mean Ranks of All Tests for the Control and Experimental Groups

	Control Group	Experimental Group
Pre-test	21.88	19.48
Mid-test	15.21	24.41
Post-test	15.94	23.87
Final Term Paper	14.68	24.80

Table 3.3

Analysis of Writing Score Comparisons

Comparison Groups	Pre-test	Mid-test	Post-test	Final Term Paper
P Value	0.533	0.013	0.034	0.006
Z Value	-0.747	-2.620	-2.238	-2.936
M-W U	172	105.5	118	96.5
Conclusion	Accept H_0	Reject H_0	Reject H_0	Reject H_0
Significance Difference?	No	Yes	Yes	Yes

Note: Cutoff p value for rejecting H_0 is $\alpha = 0.05$

Figure 3.3 below shows the interaction between the control group and the experimental group:
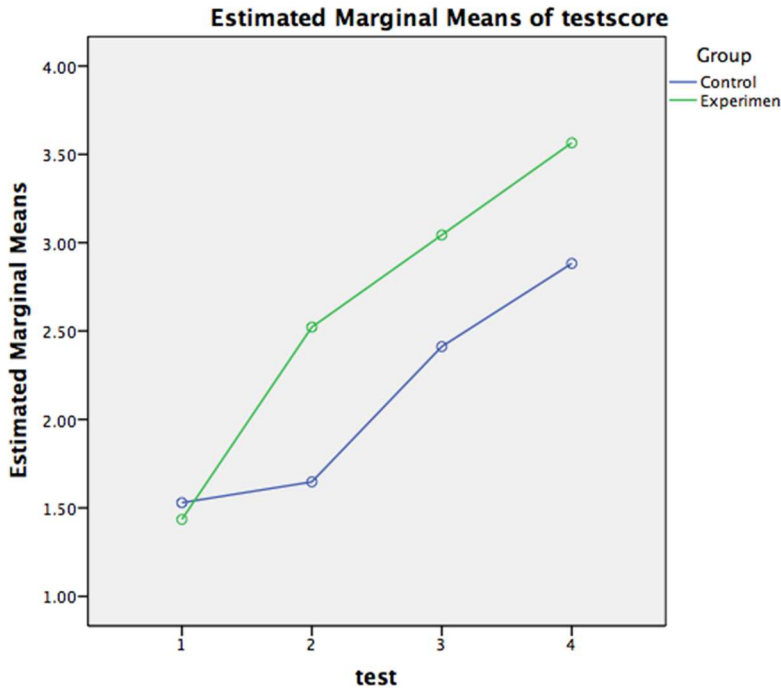
Figure 3.3. Profile plot of the interaction between the control group and the experimental group.

As the profile plot illustrates, the only interaction effect between both the control group and the experimental group occurred at the first test (pre-test) where the test scores were proven not to be significantly different.

The Friedman's test was ran to analyze the writing rubric scores within the control group. The interest was in observing if a significant difference exists between groups as university students progressed through the course. The results obtained from the test showed that the model is significant, chi-square (X^2) = 43.144, p < 0.000. Based upon the significance observed from the Friedman's test, a post-hoc was ran using the Wilcoxon *T* test for nonparametric paired samples with the Bonferroni correction below a 0.0083. The Wilcoxon *T* test was used to determine if each test group differed from the other. This test was used as a nonparametric analog to the paired student *t* test. The results of the Wilcoxon *T* test post-hoc were all significant except one as shown in Table 3.4:

Table 3.4

Post-hoc Results to Determine the Effectiveness of
Normal Instruction on Argumentation

Comparison Groups	z	p
Pre to Mid	$z = -1.00$	$p = .317$
Pre to Post	$z = -3.638$	$p < .001*$
Pre to Final	$z = -3.758$	$p < .001*$
Mid to Post	$z = -3.606$	$p < .001*$
Mid to Final	$z = -3.827$	$p < .001*$
Post to Final	$z = -2.828$	$p = .005*$

Note. *Bonferroni cut off corrected alpha equals 0.0083.

To test the overall effects of all the interventions in the experimental group from the pre-test to the final term paper, the Friedman's test for nonparametric repeated measures was conducted. The Friedman's test was used to test differences between groups because the dependent variable being measured is ordinal. The results obtained from the test showed that the model is significant, chi-square $(X^2) = 48.45$, $p < .001$. Based on the significance observed from the Friedman's test, the researcher ran a post-hoc using the Wilcoxon T test for nonparametric paired samples with the Bonferroni correction below a 0.0083. The Wilcoxon T test was used to determine if each test group differed from the other. This test was used as a nonparametric analog to the paired student t test. The results of the Wilcoxon T test post-hoc were all significant except one as shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5

Post-hoc Results to Determine the Effectiveness of
Criteria Instruction and Collaborative *Group Meetings*

Comparison Groups	z	p
Pre to Mid	$z = -3.54$	$p = .000398*$
Pre to Post	$z = -3.99$	$p = .000067*$
Pre to Final	$z = -3.54$	$p = .000036*$
Mid to Post	$z = -2.39$	$p = .017$
Mid to Term	$z = -3.62$	$p = .00029*$
Post to Term	$z = -2.97$	$p = .003*$

Note. *Bonferroni cut off corrected alpha equals 0.0083.

Collaborative Reasoning: Students' Communication Styles

Mixed dialogue (two or more different dialogues) occurred in each of the five groups. Altogether, there were 245 dialogue shifts that transpired in the five collaborative reasoning groups over the course of four weeks. Out of the 245 discussions or dialogue shifts that transpired, 83 (34%) were persuasive dialogues, 76 (31%) were inquiry dialogues, 44 (18%) were informative dialogues, 30 (12%) were negotiation dialogues, 10 (4%) were deliberation dialogues, and 2 (1%) were eristic dialogues. The summary of the results is provided in the Table 3.6:

Table 3.6

Number and Percentage of Dialogue Shifts by Dialogue Type and Collaborative Reasoning Group

Nature of Dialogues	Collaborative reasoning groups					Total
	1	2	3	4	5	
Persuasion	16 (26%)	20 (45%)	10 (19%)	26 (43%)	11 (42%)	83 (34%)
Inquiry	26 (42%)	14 (32%)	16 (31%)	14 (23%)	6 (23%)	76 (31%)
Negotiation	8 (13%)	6 (14%)	10 (19%)	6 (10%)		30 (12%)
Information	12 (19%)	2 (5%)	9 (17%)	12 (20%)	9 (35%)	44 (18%)
Deliberation		2 (5%)	7 (13%)	1 (2%)		10 (4%)
Eristic				2 (3%)		2 (1%)
Sub-total	62	44	52	61	26	245

Each dialogue represented is Table 3.6 is supported with excerpts extracted from collaborative reasoning groups.

Persuasion Dialogue

Excerpt 1 below is an example of persuasion dialogue within a collaborative reasoning group. The persuasion dialogue focused on the issue of identity:

Excerpt 1

1.1 Hannah: If your roots are from a different country, there will always be that other

part of your history and your heritage where you came from. Like you're

African. That's where your ancestors are from—Africa. Like just because

you live in America doesn't mean that you're not African anymore. It just means you're African American.

1.2 Patsy: No, that's not true.

1.3 Yolanda: I have a Chinese friend. She doesn't call herself Chinese American, and her people are from China. She was born here. Her parents were born in China.

1.4 Patsy: But her parents don't say, "I'm Chinese American."

1.5 Hannah: They say they're Chinese.

1.6 Yolanda: Right, but they're in America.

1.8 Hannah: Right. Does she consider herself American?

1.9 Yolanda: She considers herself Chinese because her parents teach her the stuff they grew up on, but they don't go around saying, "We're Chinese American." They say Chinese.

1.10 Hannah: My point exactly. She's Chinese or Asian American. You're black or African American.

1.11 Ethan: I think it goes off where you were born. If you were born in like St. Louis, Missouri, then you're American; but if you were born in Nigeria then you became an American citizen, then you're African American.

1.13 Patsy: I don't think there should have to be a title. Let me decide what I want to be called. I'm American not African or African American.

Students had conflicting views on how individuals in America should be identified. Excerpt 1 exemplifies four persuasions. (one) Hannah expressed that a person should be identified by one's origin as well as the adopted country (African + American = African American) (1.1). Hannah emphasized that "just because you live in America doesn't mean that you're not African

anymore. It just means you're African American" (1.1). (two) Yolanda, on the other hand, expressed that a person can be identified solely by the country of origin (Chinese) (1.3; 1.9). Despite Yolanda's claim, Hannah maintained her stance and reminded Yolanda that she is also identified by both her country of origin (black) and her adopted country or place of birth (1.10). While Hannah mentioned Yolanda was black, this term pertains to anyone with African ancestry. (three) Ethan then expressed that one's identity is based on the place of birth as well as citizenship (1.12). Ethan explained that "if you were born in Nigeria then you became an American citizen, then you're African American" (1.12). (four) Despite the claims presented by Hannah, Yolanda, and Ethan, Patsy expressed that one's identity can be anything a person chooses (1.13).

Inquiry Dialogue

Excerpt 2 is an example of inquiry dialogue within a collaborative reasoning group. The inquiry dialogue examined if the perception of Africans Americans as lazy is worthy:

Excerpt 2

2.1 Porsha:	Lazy or not lazy? It's hard to say. I've seen some that are and some that's not. I'm kind of like in between. African Americans compared with other Americans—white, Mexican, Arab—they could be a little lazier. I don't— I'm kind of in between. I'm leaning more towards African Americans being lazy. No offense.
2.2 Rochelle:	African Americans are hardworking people. Look at it like this. You can't conclude I'm lazy cuz you saw another black person be lazy. Anybody can be lazy not just African Americans. Africans, white, everybody can be lazy. It don't matter.

2.3 Porsha: I do have some African American friends that are very hardworking. They work, go to school, and a do couple of stuff. That's like a handful of friends. If I go by who I know, I would say hardworking. If I go by what I see sometimes and hear, then like I'm going to have to say they're lazy. We can't get real specific and say one is and one isn't, or sometimes is and sometimes isn't. We have to generalize African Americans and choose one. We have to prove which is right and which is wrong. Majority rules.

2.4 Steve: Then I think the claim "African Americans are lazy" is just plain wrong. I don't think it's right to compare. Immigrants have to work harder because they are new to America. And the great thing about America is you come here for a better life. This is a country where you can use that education to lead a more full lifestyle and provide for your family and not have to worry about crime and other things as much as other places in the world. Americans don't worry about that because we are already here.

2.5 Rochelle: That's true. A lot of Africans doing the nasty jobs I don't wanna do. Shoot, I don't wanna clean toilets. I can't be no janitor and be cleaning up poop and blood. Does that make me lazy cuz I don't wanna do it? No, not to me in my opinion. A lot of Africans take on the jobs everybody else don't wanna do. So calling me—calling African Americans lazy is wrong. I may not do it the way Africans do, but I worked hard to get mine.

2.6 Porsha: I'm not lazy because I won't to do a certain job. I won't do that, but I can do other jobs better than most. Okay. This makes more sense now. Okay, I see what you're saying. Like this claim is wrong. Okay, it makes sense now.

Excerpt 2 represents an inquiry dialogue although evidence, whether true or not, comes from personal evidence and presumptive reasoning. The goal of university students in this case was to prove which claim is right and which claim is wrong. It is evident that inquiry dialogue transpired as students in the group worked together to disprove the claim that Africans are lazy. Both Steve and Rochelle were able to provide logical explanations and examples to help Porsha prove "African Americans are hardworking" and disprove "African Americans are lazy and have poor work ethics" (2.2; 2.4-2.5). Porsha was indecisive and needed evidence to prove or disprove the claims hence the reason evidence was provided by Steve and Rochelle.

Negotiation Dialogue

Excerpt 3 is an example of negotiation dialogue within a collaborative reasoning group. The negotiation dialogue pertained to the perception of Africans stealing American resources:

Excerpt 3

3.1 Rita: I don't believe that the Africans are stealing our resources. I don't like how that is worded. I feel that when they are coming over to America, they need it probably more than you know the Americans use it—than the Americans need. They are coming over here from, you know, Africa—a different country. And they don't have as much. They would need our resources more than Americans would need it to be truthful. You can't call it stealing if something is up in the air for grabs. That's what I believe.

3.2 Taylor: Saying it like "stealing our resources" is kind of harsh but it is what it is. I know, but what about when they go to the hospital and don't pay the medical bill? That's stealing. The hospital can't deny them because it's against the law, but they don't want to pay for the doctor's service. Being on

government aid when you just got to America, that's again stealing our resources. How do you describe it if—what do you call it when somebody takes what belongs—takes your resources? Stealing is what it is. That's one less resource for Americans to use if they need to.

3.3 Frank: Stealing means you're taking what's not yours. We're the melting bowl. Melting pot, salad bowl, mosaic, kaleidoscope—America is a mix of God knows what! Christopher Columbus came to America and found people already here. That means white people were stealing resources. The Indians [Native Americans] can point to everyone living here and claim we are stealing their resources.

3.4 Rita: I've never saw African Americans treat Africans as if they're stealing resources because, I mean, Africans come over here for the opportunity that they need similar to other immigrants. They come over here to use our resources. I don't think that there's not enough to go around. I think that if African Americans are feeling that way then maybe they should just take advantage of the resources we have and stop pointing blame of who else is using them and they're not. Africans are not stealing our resources; they're taking advantage of the resources.

3.5 Taylor: You're saying taking advantage, but African Americans would say stealing because they feel their stuff is being taken. We know what it is, but from their perspective, it will be stealing resources.

3.6 Frank: You're saying the same thing. The view of the person matters how they see this claim. You [Rita] believe Africans are taking advantage like they are

supposed to. You [Taylor] think Africans are stealing because that's one less opportunity for African Americans.

3.7 Taylor: I don't get it.

3.8 Rita: He's saying I'm right, and you're right depending on which perspective you're looking at.

3.9 Taylor   I can live with that.

Rita expressed that African immigrants are not stealing (3.1) but taking "advantage of the resources" in America (3.4). Taylor, on the other hand, declared that Africans are stealing resources thereby lessening opportunities for African Americans (3.2; 3.5). After listening to both sides, Frank admitted that both Rita and Taylor are actually "saying the same thing" although from different perspectives (3.6). Therefore, the excerpt above is negotiation dialogue given that there was an initial conflict of interest between two of the participants, Rita and Taylor. Frank now brought about a settlement that was agreeable to the parties involved (3.6; 3.8-3.9). Rita and Taylor agreed that both claims (Africans are taking advantage of America's resources, and Africans are stealing America's resources.) are acceptable (3.12-3.13).

Information-Seeking Dialogue

Excerpt 4 is an example of information-seeking dialogue about the identity of color:

Excerpt 4

4.1 Yolanda: I hate when people try to call me something other than black.

4.2 Hannah: You're black, aren't you?

4.3 Yolanda: Yeah. People think I look yellow.

4.4 Porsha: I've been called yellow too.

4.5 Ethan: Do you like being perceived as yellow?

4.6 Yolanda:	No.
4.7 Hannah:	So what do you think—what color do you think you are?
4.8 Yolanda:	I think I'm a lighter shade of black.
4.9 Hannah:	You don't like being called yellow, but that's a lighter shade of black. Don't some blacks prefer to be called yellow or light skin?
4.10 Yolanda:	That's if they're yellow. I don't think I'm yellow. I think I'm a lighter shade of black.
4.11 Ethan:	This white boy is so confused right now. [*Students laugh.*] I thought you're black, and black was black. I never knew there was a difference. I thought if you were mixed, you would be categorized as black. Obama is mixed and is perceived to be black. I never heard of blacks being called yellow. Mixed but not yellow.
4.12 Hannah:	I've always been under the impression that the lighter you were, the more advantages for African Americans.
4.13 Yolanda:	I went to school in Anycity, so there were a lot of dark skinned people. There wasn't really light skinned people so I was the odd one out. I was bullied a lot in middle and elementary school. That's why I like being called black.
4.14 Ethan:	Now you are black, but you were a light—you are lighter. You were put down. You like being light? You preferred to be dark or—
4.15 Yolanda:	Yeah.
4.16 Porsha:	I can feel where you're coming from.
4.17 Hannah:	Wow, that's surprising. So how about today? How do you feel about being light skinned? Do you embrace it?
4.18 Yolanda:	I don't really think I care now, but I really prefer to be called black.

Yolanda confessed to her group members that she does not like to be called anything other than black (4.1). Hannah found Yolanda's confession shocking and proceeded to inquire about her racial identity (4.2). Yolanda then explained that she has been called yellow (4.4) and does not like the term since she is not yellow but a lighter shade of black (4.10). Unaware of such descriptions (i.e., yellow and light skin), Ethan admitted to having little knowledge in terms of how blacks are described racially (4.11). Hannah also expressed some confusion as it has been embedded in many

that "the lighter you were, the more advantages for African Americans" (4.12). Ultimately, both Ethan and Hannah voiced out hoping that Yolanda would elaborate on or correct their initial perceptions. The excerpt above is an example of information-seeking dialogue because Ethan and Hannah sought to learn more about Yolanda's experience to broaden their own understanding and acquire new information.

Deliberation Dialogue

Excerpt 5 is an example of deliberation dialogue that transpired in one of the collaborative reasoning groups. The university students deliberated on African Americans pulling the race card:

Excerpt 5

5.1 Porsha	It's not all African Americans, but I—I have to agree. African Americans do bring up racism when remarks are made about African Americans or like blacks in general. A white person could say the same exact thing an African American is saying and be labeled as a racist because he or she is not African American.
5.2 Rochelle	African Americans call it racism cuz it be true most times. I won't lie cuz I do it.
5.3 Steve:	That's the key word: most not all. Some of them out there aren't racist.
5.4 Rochelle:	What they say be true whether they white or a black. We [African Americans] had to learn to defend ourselves cuz we've been talked about forever.
5.5 Steve:	If the statement is true, focus on what's important—the statement not the person making the statement.
5.6 Porsha:	I agree. One has to put race aside to realize what the person is trying to say.

5.7 Rochelle: Yeah, I gotta focus on the words not skin color.

5.8 Chris: I don't think race should be a primary factor.

5.9 Porsha: Look, I'm white; you're black. You and I agree on a lot of perceptions.

5.10 Rochelle: That's true. I'm taking baby steps, yall, cuz I've been through some stuff.

5.11 Steve   Hey, we'll take baby steps! [*Students laugh.*]

In Excerpt 5, Rochelle admitted to using the race card specifically against Caucasians even when she agreed with the comments articulated by Caucasians concerning African Americans (5.2; 5.4). Rochelle also confessed that she is quick to "defend" her race because African Americans have "been talked about forever" (5.4). Steve, Chris, and Porsha acknowledged Rochelle's dilemma and tried to come up with the best course of action. Steve, for example, advised Rochelle to "focus on what's important—the statement not the person making the statement" (5.5) while Porsha added that Rochelle "put race aside to realize what the person is trying to say" (5.6). Rochelle embraced the suggestions mentioned and declared that she is "taking baby steps" (5.10) in the right direction by endeavoring to place less emphasis on race.

Eristic Dialogue

Excerpt 6 is an example of eristic dialogue that transpired in a collaborative reasoning group as a result of one university student verbally attacking another university student:

Excerpt 6

6.1 Tina: Next up for discussion is "Africans are goal oriented."

6.2 John: I believe Africans coming to the United States may be a little more motivated than African Americans because they might be afraid of losing their green card and getting deported whereas African Americans are born

here. They're not really afraid of that so that might give them [African immigrants] a little more motivation.

6.3 Tina: Which number are you on? [*pointing to paper*] We're right here.

6.4 John: I know. I was explaining why Africans are goal oriented. They have to be because they risk losing their green card and getting deported from the United States.

6.5 Tina: I never heard that before.

6.6 Sarah: That's not true, [John].

6.7 Crystal: [*laughs*] You cannot lose a green card just for being lazy, and that is a fact not an idea I pulled out of a hat.

6.8 John: Actually, if you are lazy and you don't study for your test to whatever it's called—get your citizenship I think—you actually can lose your green card. I actually witnessed my teacher doing that the other day you know. So laziness could affect it.

6.9 Crystal: You're confusing the concepts. Citizenship is different from residency. You cannot lose residency because of being lazy. And then people who have been living here forever are not applying for citizenship. That does not mean they will be deported because their lazy. Are you understanding?

6.10 John: I don't know that aspect of immigration—the one you're talking about. I'm referring to immigration here in the United States.

6.11 Crystal: And that's why you have said what you have said [*laughs*]. I suggest you keep silent on immigration because you know nothing about the experience

or the process. You should leave this discussion for the knowledgeable ones

in the group.

6.12 John: Whoa! You're hitting below the belt.

6.13 Crystal: I guess you weren't confused that time [*laughs*].

6.14 John: Okay, I'm done.

6.15 Sarah: [*whispers*] Where is he going?

6:16 Tina: [John], she was joking around.

6.17 Crystal: He's okay. He'll come back.

6.18 Sarah   [*whispers*] He's upset. I'll go get him. Keep going.

During the collaborative group discussion, John expressed that Africans are more goal

oriented than African Americans because they have to worry about "losing their green card and

getting deported from the United States" (6.2). At first, John's comment confused Tina who

proceeded to question if John was viewing the correct sheet or claim (6.3). After John reiterated

his stance (6.4), it was clear to all in the group that John was not well-informed about immigration.

Sarah did not express her stance on the matter but respectfully told John that his insight on

immigration was incorrect (6.6). Crystal, on the other hand, laughed profusely before explaining

to John that one "cannot lose a green card just for being lazy" (6.7). The dialogue between Crystal

and John was initially persuasive in nature (6.7-6.9) as there was a conflict in opinions and both

were trying to convince the other. The dialogue soon turn eristic after John admitted that he was

not familiar with the "aspect of immigration" to which Crystal was referring (6.10). Rather than

stay on the topic of immigration or continue dialogue on the goal orientation of Africans, Tina

verbally attacked John and not the argument. Not only did Crystal suggest that John "keep silent

on matters of immigration," she boldly stated that John knows "nothing" and should "leave this

discussion for the knowledgeable ones in the group" (6.11). From listening to the audio recording of this collaborative group discussion, moreover, it was noted that Tina used a belittling tone while speaking to John (6.11; 6.13). John articulated to Crystal that her comments were going too far or "below the belt" (6.12) only to receive another sarcastic reply from Crystal (6.13). John expressed that he was "done" (6.14) and proceeded to leave the room.

The excerpt above is noteworthy as it reveals how eristic dialogue can hinder other effective types of dialogue. While John soon returned after eristic dialogue transpired, he was quiet for the most part and was labeled as having a passive communication style as a result. It is apparent that John was initially willing to participate in the collaborative reasoning group discussion (6.1-6.4). After Crystal attacked John and not the argument, however, John was unwilling to communicate and add more to the discussion.

Discussion

The objective was to find if criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning could promote argument-counterargument integration in university students' persuasive writing. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses were conducted. With respect to the quantitative analyses, the Mann-Whitney U test indicated that the pre-test scores of both the control and experimental groups were the same thereby confirming that the experimental group and the control group started from the same baseline of student scores. Over the course of the intervention, the mid-test, post-test, and final term paper scores of the control group and the experimental group were significantly different in that the experimental group was higher because of the interventions (criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning). While the control group's scores did increase overtime as it naturally should if students are learning in an English class, the experimental group's scores increased at a

faster rate. Hence, the experimental group was able to maintain higher scores strictly because of the criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning interventions.

With respect to the quantitative analyses of the experimental group, all but one of the post-hoc tests were significant. The results support the hypothesis that the implementation of criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning were successful from (one) the pre-test to the mid-test and (two) the post-test to the final term paper, a cumulative assignment. Although the mid-test to the post-test group was not significant, two reasons can be cited: (one) the study sample of $N = 23$ was slightly underpowered, and (two) some students maintained the same rubric scores even though more effort was put forth in constructing effective arguments. This was clearly evident as university students in the experimental group succeeded in providing or attempting to establish more claims, data, counterarguments and rebuttals to construct sound arguments.

Provided that 21 out of 23 (91%) university students in the experimental group earned higher rubric scores on the mid-test after the implementation of criteria instruction in the experimental group, it is evident that this method can help students to better construct effective persuasive essays. After participating in collaborative reasoning groups, 10 out of 23 (43%) university students in the experimental group earned higher rubric scores on the post-test while 6 out of 23 (26%) maintained the highest rubric score of 4. On the final term paper, 10 out of 23 (43%) university students in the experimental group earned higher rubric scores while 9 out of 23 (39%) maintained the highest rubric score of 4. Hence, the significance in the experimental group participants' scores is as a result of learning criteria instruction which communicates the elements of argumentation and participating in collaborative reasoning where university students practiced and developed their argumentation abilities.

The pedagogical tools to teach argumentation (criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning) were not tested independently. Even so, this does not disqualify the results or the significance of the study as both implementations combined helped to improve university students' abilities to construct effective written arguments. The study would have been strengthened if the interventions were tested independently to rule out alternate explanations of the results. Testing the interventions independently would have made it possible to identify if one intervention had greater impact than the other or possibly no impact at all. Research done by Ferretti et al. (2000) as well as Nussbaum and Schraw (2007) disprove the latter as criteria instruction has been found to improve students' persuasive writing abilities. The later has also been disproven as researchers (e.g., Dong, Anderson, Kim, & Li, 2008; Kuhn & Udell, 2003; Reznitskaya et al., 2007 Dong, Anderson, Kim, & Li, 2008; Kuhn & Udell, 2003; Reznitskaya et al., 2007) have found collaborative reasoning useful in helping university students develop their argumentation abilities.

While the experimental group sample (N = 23) was slightly underpowered, it is worth mentioning that the average class size for an English course is 25. A smaller class was favored in the end as it allowed for more in-depth observations of university students individually, in groups, and in class. It was also observed that the class size provided university students more opportunities to ask questions and develop good rapports with classmates, the English composition professor, and the researcher. With smaller classrooms, moreover, it was observed that the university students were more comfortable in addressing the ill-structured issue pertaining to black African immigrants and African Americans. Though increasing the experimental sample size (N = 35) will help one derive at accurate conclusion, both interventions still proved favorable in teaching students argument-counterargument integration.

With respect to the qualitative analysis, the dialogues that transpired in the collaborative reasoning groups took on multiple facets that varied slightly from group to group. Overall, the prevailing dialogue used to discuss the ill-structured pertaining to black African immigrants and African Americans was persuasion dialogue (34%) with inquiry dialogue following close behind (31%). Notwithstanding, university students used negotiation dialogue, inquiry dialogue, deliberation dialogue as well as information-seeking dialogue to derive at persuasion dialogue. From the transcriptions of the collaborative reasoning group discussions in addition to detailed observations of the university students' involvement in collaborative reasoning groups, it was apparent that using collaborative reasoning as a pedagogical tool afforded university students the opportunity to be presented with counterarguments to their argument by opposing parties (e.g., persuasive dialogue). It also provided university students with the opportunity to develop evidence to prove their claims (data) and/or disprove the claims of opposing parties (rebuttals) (e.g., inquiry dialogue). Thus, such dialogues may have aided students in developing the elements in modified TAP to construct sound arguments. Despite the differences in communication styles between students in each group, majority of the students were actively involved as 74% were described as assertive or middle.

While constructive dialogues emerged in collaborative reasoning groups for the most part, eristic dialogue did transpire. The eristic dialogue previously described (Excerpt 6) is noteworthy as it reveals how eristic dialogue can hinder other effective dialogue types. Prior to the eristic dialogue occurrence, John was categorized as *assertive* because he took part in collaborative reasoning and contributed at length to the meaningful group discussions that transpired. After Crystal verbally attacked him as opposed to addressing the argument, however, John was

categorized as *passive* as he was quiet for the most part and no longer willing to add to the discussion.

Taking into consideration the aforementioned occurrence, it is critical that educators teach students the difference between eristic and persuasion dialogues to avoid hindering not only students' learning but freedom of speech especially in the classroom. John's reaction makes it clear that eristic dialogue should be avoided as much as possible for meaningful argumentative discourse to take place amongst students in collaborative reasoning groups.

Although the effects of using an ill-structured issue to teach argument-counterargument integration is not the focus of the study, the results shed light on the types of discussions or dialogues that can evolve when ill-structured issues are utilized in educational settings. To ensure that dialogues are meaningful to the learning experiences, educators are still expected to monitor the discussions (or dialogues) in collaborative reasoning groups. Monitoring or observing, however, does not mean the educator should contribute to the discussions or interject needlessly. Even if guidance from the educator is requested, it is important that the educator gives students as much independence as possible for effective results.

This study presented a new method of assessing group discussions by using Walton and Krabbe's (1995) dialogue types as an analytic tool to clearly interpret university students' development of reasoning. As an analytical tool, Walton and Krabbe's (1995) dialogues can help researchers and educators monitor and assess students' verbal responses in collaborative reasoning groups. It can also help researchers better understand what dialogues (or strategies) are commonly used by students to derive at persuasion dialogue. Even though the effectiveness of this implementation was not defined by the number of dialogues that transpired in collaborative reasoning groups but, rather, students' improvement from the mid-test to the post-test and later the

final term paper, it was observed that different types of dialogues developed in collaborative reasoning groups over the course of four weeks. Mixed dialogues amongst the university students in collaborative reasoning groups also transpired to derive at persuasion dialogue.

This study also revealed that the use of collaborative reasoning groups can promote meaningful learning and bring about high-level argumentative discourse as university students redeveloped their claims and counterarguments from dialogues that transpired amongst group members. Participation also resulted in students elaborating, refining, analyzing, evaluating, and creating personal ideas on the ill-structured issue. Hence, collaborative reasoning helped the university students develop and integrate arguments and counterarguments as the information learned was transmitted to their written arguments.

Future Research

For future research purposes, researchers should conduct a similar argumentative study with the four groups: a control group, an experimental group that the receives the criteria instruction intervention only, an experimental group that receives the collaborative reasoning intervention only, and an experimental group that receives both interventions thereby paralleling the present study. Although this study had a control group, testing the interventions independently would have made it possible to identify if one intervention had greater impact than the other. Testing the interventions separately will also help researchers to better understand the impact each intervention (criteria instruction and collaborative) has on university students' learning of argumentation.

Since the study sample was slightly underpowered, future studies should reexamine the effects of criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning using a larger sample size. The power for the control group is 0.47 which means that the probability of correctly rejecting the null hypothesis

(coming to the correct conclusion) is 0.47, and the power of the experimental group is 0.61. To reach a power of 0.80, a sufficient sample size would have (at least) 35 in the control group and 35 in the experimental group for a total of 70 participants.

For future qualitative research, researchers can analyze extensively the dialogue types that transpire in order for students to arrive at persuasion dialogue. Walton and Krabbe (1995) have established that mixed dialogue can occur even when the goal is persuasion. Notwithstanding, future research can develop this study by paying closer attention to the dialogues prominently used by university students to develop or derive at persuasion dialogue. Furthermore, assessing arguments in this way can possibly help researchers and educators guide students on how to avoid negative dialogues (i.e., eristic dialogue) in order to maintain constructive, meaningful dialogues on ill-structured issues.

CHAPTER 4 (Article Three)
DEVELOPING ARGUMENT-COUNTERARGUMENT DISCOURSE ABILITIES:
A CASE STUDY OF TWO FIRST-YEAR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Abstract

It is has been acknowledged that postsecondary students still face considerable challenges integrating arguments and counterarguments specifically in written arguments. This case study described and documented two first-year university students' (beginning arguer and intermediate arguer) experiences learning criteria instruction and participating in collaborative reasoning groups to develop argument-counterargument integration skills in persuasive essay writing. Research data were collected for ten consecutive weeks through pre-, mid-, and post-tests, a final term paper, personal interviews, audio recordings, and student observations. The case study university students were tested before and after each implementation to elaborate on the effectiveness of criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning. Analysis of the data showed that the use of criteria instruction and participation in collaborative reasoning groups resulted in better integration of arguments and counterarguments in addition to more counterarguments and rebuttals by the case study university students on the final term paper. Despite differences in the university students' argumentative abilities at the beginning of the study, both participants could be described as advanced arguers by Week 10. This study informs educators and researchers on the efficacy of both implementations to teach students argumentation, learning independence, and 21st century skills. This study also advances on Walton & Krabbe's (1995) dialogue types as an analytic tool to examine, interpret, and monitor students' discussions in collaborative reasoning groups.

Key Words: case study, argumentation, criteria instruction, collaborative reasoning

Introduction

Regardless of the educational level, students can be empowered to build sound arguments when they are giving opportunities to engage in rhetorical and dialectical argumentation in the classroom (Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007). When students are allotted opportunities to deliberate, synthesize, and rebuttal to arrive at reasonable conclusions, they are able to develop essential argumentation skills to understand well-structured and ill-structured issues frequently encountered in everyday life (Cho & Jonassen, 2003; Jonassen & Kim, 2010, Kay & Greenhill, 2011). Recognizing the importance of developing students' argumentative abilities, educators and researchers alike have emphasized the need to develop such skills in primary and secondary students (National Center for Education Statistics, 2013; National Governors Association [NGA] Center for Best Practices, Council of Chief State School Officers [CCSSO], 2010) as well as postsecondary students (Hoffmann & Borenstein, 2014; Jonassen & Cho, 2011; Kollar et al., 2014; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007).

Despite the research on argumentation and the curricular emphasis in classroom settings, students at all educational levels still face considerable challenges examining and constructing arguments. A major challenge faced by school-age students (Ferretti, Lewis & Andrews-Weckerly, 2009) and postsecondary students (Jonassen & Kim, 2010; Liu & Stapleton, 2014) is my-side bias (Perkins, Faraday, & Bushey, 1991)—the act of taking into account only the side favored by the student. My-side bias results in the student failing to present counterarguments to preferred claims in addition to rebuttals to strengthen those claims (Felton & Herko, 2004). While it can be expected that school-age students are still learning to develop these skills for higher education and adult life, several researchers (Jonassen & Kim, 2010; Liu & Stapleton, 2014; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007; Perkins, Farady, & Bushey, 1991; Qin & Karabacak, 2010) have communicated that the persuasive essays of college students also lack counterarguments thereby demonstrating one-side arguments

or my-side bias. Based on the status of research knowledge on the teaching and learning of argumentation, two implementations that have been advocated to develop students' abilities in argument-counterargument integration on ill-structured issues are criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning.

The purpose of this study was to document, narrate, and interpret the experiences of two first-year university students' (a beginner arguer and an intermediate arguer) learning of criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning to develop argument-counterargument integration on an ill-structured issue. The ill-structured issue used to develop university students' argumentation abilities related to the perception of black African immigrants and African Americans. The university students were examined for a period of 10 weeks through detailed qualitative data collection. This case study was done to extensively understand and detail first-year university students' experiences in learning argumentation in hopes to discover new ways researchers can develop curricular and instructional activities to improve students' argumentative discourse. An English course at the university level was a justified context to track students' learning of argument-counterargument integration since it is expected that university students come prepared to use their argumentative abilities in the perspective discipline.

Classroom Studies on Instructional Strategies of Argumentation

Rhetorical and dialectical arguments have be utilized and tested in formal educational settings to develop students' argument-counterargument integration abilities (Jonassen & Kim, 2010). To help students argue rhetorically or dialectically, criteria instruction (Liu & Stapleton, 2014; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007) and collaborative reasoning (Reznitskaya, Anderson, & Kuo, 2007; Hoffmann & Borenstein, 2014; Dong, Anderson, Kim, & Li, 2008) are two effective teaching and learning strategies that have been implemented in recent studies.

Several researchers (e.g., Ferretti, MacArthur, & Dowdy, 2000; Nussbaum & Kardash, 2005; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007; Reznitskaya, Anderson, & Kuo, 2007) have established that criteria (or specific goal) instruction can help students develop oral and/or written arguments. Ferretti et al. (2000) and Reznitskaya et al. (2007) have contributed greatly to the literature on argumentation and the usefulness of criteria instruction specifically in elementary classroom settings. Aware of the gap between primary and postsecondary, Nussbaum and Kardash (2005) replicated Ferretti et al.'s (2000) study with university students and found specific goals (or criteria instruction) useful in helping students generate more counterarguments and rebuttals. Nussbaum and Schraw (2007) also tested the use of criteria instruction at the postsecondary level and found that university students with directions had better argument-counterargument integration than university students without directions. While both university studies have established that criteria instruction can help students improve their argument-counterargument integration abilities, the extent is difficult to determine since a pre-posttest design was not used in ether study. Moreover, it cannot be ruled out that the undergraduate students had knowledge of argument-counterargument integration prior to the implementation of criteria instruction.

Although Liu and Stapleton (2014) used a pre-posttest design to clarify the effects of criteria instruction, it was determined that the intervention was not isolated as indicated in the study. It was apparent after close examination that the experimental students not only learned criteria instruction but participated in collaborative reasoning groups. Seeing as students in the experimental group also "worked together to generate their own data, counterarguments and rebuttals" (Liu & Stapleton, 2014, p. 121), it is difficult to determine whether the increase in students' rubric scores was solely as a result of learning criteria instruction. In light of the gaps in research, the university students in this study were evaluated on their argument-counterargument

integration abilities before and after the implementation of criteria instruction to establish a holistic understanding of the efficacy of criteria instruction in teaching students argument-counterargument integration.

While the above-mentioned studies have established criteria instruction as an effective tool in the learning of argumentation, it has been determined that collaborative reasoning is also effective in helping students understand argument-counterargument integration (Cabrera et. al, 2002; Dong, Anderson, Kim, & Li, 2008; Kuhn & Udell, 2003; Reznitskaya, Anderson, & Kuo, 2007). Nevertheless, no study to date has examined, tracked, or detailed how participating in collaborative reasoning groups can improve students' argument-counterargument integration skills specifically in argumentative writing. Cabrera et al. (2002) indicated that participating in collaborative reasoning could positively influence college students' outcomes, but none of the 2,050 participants actually took part in a collaborative reasoning activity. The results of the study are also questionable given that the methodology lacked pertinent information necessary for researchers to duplicate the study. In acknowledgement of the gaps previously stated, this study used a pre-test, mid-test, and post-test design to clarify the effects of criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning on case study university students' learning of argument-counterargument integration.

Theoretical Frameworks

Toulmin's Argument Pattern (TAP) (Toulmin, 1958) and Walton and Krabbe's (1995) dialogue types guided this study on developing university students' argumentation abilities through the integration of arguments and counterarguments in collaborative reasoning groups and essay writing. A key limitation of TAP is also discussed.

Toulmin's Argument Pattern as a Teaching Tool and Analytical Framework

TAP consists of the following elements: claim, data, warrants, modal qualifiers, backing, and rebuttal. Used by scholars to establish the quality of a sound argument (Evagorou & Osborne, 2013; Ogan-Bekiroglu & Eskin, 2012), both researchers and educators have used TAP as a guide to teaching and evaluating rhetorical argumentation (Erduran, Simon, & Osborne, 2004; Fulkerson, 1996; Nussbaum, 2011; Tsai & Tsai 2014). Several studies (e.g., Plantin, 2005; Sadler & Fowler, 2006; Sampson & Clark, 2008), however, have expressed major flaws in TAP. For a working example, TAP is monologic and not dialogic (see Leitaˇo, 2001; Reznitskaya, Anderson, & Kuo, 2007). In other words, TAP recognizes the argument but fails to take into consideration the counterargument. While the rebuttal in TAP is described as a condition of exception, it is important to note that the condition of exception is within the established claim which still presents TAP as a one-sided argument.

One can misunderstand a rebuttal in TAP as a counterargument because both are defined alike. A rebuttal in TAP and a counterargument are both defined as a condition of exception. A rebuttal in TAP is actually a condition of exception within the established claim whereas a counterargument is an exception to the rule established by the claim. The counterargument (or condition of exception) thus establishes doubt about the claim or makes the claim invalid because alternative data, warrants, modal qualifiers, and rebuttals have been presented.

Despite the flaws in TAP, it cannot be overlooked as some elements are vital to the development of argument-counterargument integration (Stapleton & Wu, 2015). With this in mind, this study used the claim, data, and rebuttal elements in TAP and added counterargument to form a modified version of TAP. As an intervention to help students better integrate arguments and counterarguments, students were given criteria instruction that defined the qualities of a good argument. In this study, the qualities of a good argument were taken from modified TAP (as termed

henceforth). Accordingly, the criteria instruction included students having (a) a *claim* or position, (b) *data* or supporting details used to develop claim, (c) *rebuttals* (with or without data) and (d) *counterarguments* (with or without data). The criteria instruction based on modified TAP was used as an analytical framework to assess the pre-tests, mid-tests, post-tests, and final term papers.

Types of Dialogue in Oral Argumentation

Even when students are knowledgeable of the criteria instruction for argumentation, collaborative reasoning presents opportunities for students to procure a deeper understanding of the ill-structured issue in order to advance their argument-counterargument integration abilities (Keefer, Zeitz, & Resnick, 2000; Reznitskya et al., 2001). Because collaborative reasoning is collective, reciprocal, supportive, cumulative, and purposeful (Osborne et al., 2013), it is expected that students will deliberate on the ill-structured issue, present claims with evidence to support, listen to and evaluate differing views, present counterarguments, and give rebuttals to strengthen stance. As students examine the ill-structured issue and develop their arguments and counterarguments, it is also likely that the conversations that transpire amongst students in collaborative reasoning groups will take on multiple dialogues.

For these reasons, Walton and Krabbe's (1995) dialogue types were used as an analytical framework to assess the case study university students' dialectical arguments in collaborative reasoning groups. The authors grouped oral dialogue into six distinctive types: persuasion dialogue, negotiation dialogue, inquiry dialogue, deliberation dialogue, information-seeking dialogue, and eristic dialogue. Walton and Krabbe (1995) acknowledged mixed dialogue as another dialogue, but is was not presented in the analytical framework since mixed dialogue automatically occurs when two or more dialogues transpire. Since ill-structured issues are multifaceted, moreover, dialectical shifts from one dialogue to another (Walton, 1992) are bound

to occur. Therefore, mixed dialogue can be expected when students participate in collaborative reasoning groups.

Merging modified TAP with Walton and Krabbe's (1995) perspective of argumentation is advantageous. Modified TAP can be used to (one) teach students how to write good argumentative essays and (two) analyze students' argumentative essays. Walton and Krabbe's (1995) classifications of dialogue, on the other hand, can be used to examine and interpret university students' dialogues in collaborative reasoning groups. The intention was that the two approaches combined would help to strengthen university students' argument-counterargument integration abilities specifically in persuasive writing.

Purpose of Study

With the knowledge that students have the tendency to rule out or exclude counterarguments especially when writing argumentative texts (Nussbaum & Kardash, 2005), the case study closely examined and observed the argumentation experiences of two university students at different argumentation developments (a beginning arguer and an intermediate arguer). The goal of the study was to qualitatively capture two university students' understanding of argumentation-counterargument integration in the context of learning about criteria instruction and engaging in collaborative reasoning. Based on this goal, the following question guided this study:

1. How do (a) learning the criteria instruction and (b) participating in collaborative reasoning groups help two university students at different argumentative writing levels develop their argument-counterargument integration abilities over the course of 10 weeks?

Significance of the Study

This study is significant given that it has identified how two representative university students conceptually grew in their understanding of argumentation. Understanding students'

interpretations of argumentation helped to clarify if the strategies (criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning) implemented are effective in teaching argumentation. The results of this case study, learning about argumentation from the students' point of view, may very well influence future curricular and instructional designs on argumentation.

Methodology

Design

This study took a case study research approach because of issues students face learning argumentation. Yin (2009) describes a case study as an opportunity to collect data specifically in natural settings of the participants. Thus, the case study method allows the researcher to look at all other aspects, issues, and real challenges impinged on the participants (see Creswell, 2014; Yin, 2009). The case study is a bounded system consisting of a process of two individuals developing their argumentation abilities. The two university student participants represented a class of university students learning argumentation. The case study took extensive forms of dating comprising of assessment records, interviews, and researcher observations.

Setting

The university students in the study attended Sunshine University located in the Midwestern part of the United States. Amid a culturally diverse student body, the university served a growing number of undergraduates as a result of two prevailing science programs: nursing and physical therapy. The university also served a growing population of beginning and transfer students.

Course Description

Composition I is a composition course designed to help students achieve competency in postsecondary writing by focusing primarily on essay development. Beginning with an informal

writing assignment, university students learn to recognize essential components of an essay in order to write and communicate effectively. From the informal essay, university students progress to research and persuasive essay forms. Intensive writing instruction, word study, and critical reading skills are emphasized in the course with the goal that students learn the general processes of communicating through writing. University students are also required to read multicultural texts.

Participants

In the fall term of 2014, two of the 23 university students formed the case study. Based on their rubric scores on the pretest, these two students were classified as a beginning arguer (scored a 1) and an intermediate arguer (scored a 2). The advance arguer (scored a 4) was omitted despite major advancements after learning criteria instruction and participating in collaborative reasoning. Respectively, Ava, the beginner arguer, represented 60%, and Frank, the intermediate arguer, represented 35% of the university student population. The two represented university students were willing to take part in the study, available for interviewing outside of class time, and able to communicate well.

Background of Ava

Ava was a female Asian immigrant in her early 20s. She arrived to the United States three years ago speaking very little English. As an English as a second language (ESL) learner, Ava had to complete a number of English language learning classes before enrolling at Sunshine university. Joining the U.S. Army Reserve also helped her to become more proficient in communicating in English. Ava personally admitted that though she still finds learning a new language challenging, she was better at reading in English. She expressed that she struggled with speaking and writing in English since she was only compelled to communicate in English at school and occasionally at

work. She frequently surrounded herself with Asians in the community who shared similar immigrant experiences or spoke the same native language. Ava also lived with her parents who could only speak their native language. At the time of study, Ava was a freshman at Sunshine University intending to major in health science enroute to nursing. Composition I was Ava's first English course at the postsecondary level.

Ava represents the many immigrants from Asia that are pursing or upgrading their education in the United States. Ava was willing to take part in the study because she desired additional support learning how to develop and improve her writing abilities. Because the researcher established a good rapport with the university students in the course, Ava confided that she felt comfortable talking with me. She later explained that she also had a personal goal to pass the reading and writing requirements to apply to the nursing program.

Background of Frank

Frank is a Caucasian male in his mid-20s. He was born and raised in a Midwest state. Frank began his postsecondary education at a community college in the same state. After two semesters, he transferred to Sunshine University. Frank had successfully passed two remedial English courses at the community college before taking Composition I at Sunshine University. Although he already passed Composition I with a grade of C, Frank retook the course with hopes that he would earn a grade of A and maintain his high grade point average. At the time of study, Frank was still a freshman at the university intending to major in criminal justice.

Franks represents the average American that is returning to school as an adult learner. Frank was willing to take part in the study because he desired a deeper understanding of the writing process. He admitted that he was ill-prepared to take Composition I the first time because he was unacquainted with the writing experiences and expectations of the university. Frank was convinced

that he would excel the second time around if his writing experiences were explored by him and assessed by the researcher.

Instructional Activities

Instructional activities consisted of two interventions: criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning. Criteria instruction in this study are detailed, comprehensive goals that define the qualities of a good argument. The qualities of a good argument were taken from modified TAP. Accordingly, the criteria instruction included students having (a) a *claim* or position being argued, (b) *data* or supporting evidence used to support the claim, (c) *rebuttal* or condition of exception within the established claim (with or without data) and (d) *counterargument* or a position contrary to the claim put forward.

Collaborative reasoning is an educational approach developed by researchers from the Center for the Study of Reading at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign (Reznitskaya et al., 2009). In relation to argumentation, collaborative reasoning is defined by Nussbaum (2008) "as a social process in which individuals work together to construct and critique arguments" (p. 348). Osborne, Simon, Christodoulou, Howell-Richardson, and Richardson (2013) define collaborative reasoning in argumentation as a "dialectic between construction and critique" (p. 2). Building on the definitions above, the purpose of collaborative reasoning in argumentation is for students to acquire a deeper conceptual learning of the phenomena to improve their argument-counterargument integration abilities.

Data Collection

Data were collected in four ways from the case study university students. The rubric scores from the pre-test, mid-test, and post-test constituted one part of the data for the two case study students (see rubric below in the Data Analysis section). The rubric scores of the final term paper

constituted the second component of data (see rubric below in the Data Analysis section). The collaborative reasoning transcripts constituted the third part of data. The interviews with the case study students constituted the fourth component of data. Each case study participant was interviewed individually for approximately 45 minutes on their knowledge of argumentation at the end of the foregoing assessments. The interview questions consisted of one or more of the following open-ended questions based on their writing:

1. What is your understanding of argumentation?

2. What makes a sound argument?

3. How does argumentation differ from other forms of writing and speaking?

4. How has your writing changed as a result of learning the criteria instruction for argumentation?

5. How has your writing changed as a result of meeting in collaboration groups?

Additional second-order questions based on the analyses of the final term papers were also asked at this time. The final interviews with the representative students concluded when the students' conceptualizations of argumentation were satisfactorily explored and the research questions were answered.

The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim. Case study students' participation in small collaborative reasoning groups of four or five were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim. Summary of the instructional activities and data collection are summarized in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

Instructional and Research Activities Schedule

Date	Instructional and/or Research Activity	Time Frame	Data Collected
Week 1	Review Information Sheet (Handout) Pre-test Case Study Interviews (2)	15 minutes (opt.) 1 hour 1 hour each (2 hrs. total)	Pre-tests Interviews (2)
Week 2	Criteria Instruction (Session 1) Led by Researcher	90 minutes	
Week 3	Criteria Instruction (Session 2) Led by Researcher	90 minutes	
Week 4	Mid-test Case Study Interviews (2)	1 hour 1 hour each (2 hrs. total)	Mid-tests Interviews (2)
Week 5	Collaborative Reasoning Groups (1)	90 minutes	Audio Recordings of Group Discussions Observation Notes
Week 6	Collaborative Reasoning Groups (2)	90 minutes	Audio Recordings of Group Discussions Observation Notes
Week 7	Collaborative Reasoning Groups (3)	90 minutes	Audio Recordings of Group Discussions Observation Notes
Week 8	Collaborative Reasoning Groups (4)	90 minutes	Audio Recordings of Group Discussions Observation Notes
Week 9	Post-test Case Study Interviews (2)	1 hour 2-3 hours 1 hour each (2 hrs. total)	Post-tests Interviews (2)
Week 10	Submit Final Term Assessment Case Study Interviews (2)	2-3 hours 1 hour each (2 hrs. total)	Term Papers Interviews (2)

Data Analysis

According to Creswell (2014), data analysis for a case study includes but is not limited to: creating and organizing files for data, reading through texts, describing the case and its context, presenting in-depth pictures of the cases using narratives, using direct interpretation, and developing naturalistic generalizations of what was learned by the participants (pp. 190-191). Based on Creswell's (2014) foregoing analytics, each case study university student's data was organized in separate electronic folders. Texts consisting of the students' pre-test, mid-test, post-test, final term paper, and interview transcripts were read thoroughly. After several readings, the best illustrative examples were selected for presentation in the results section. The background of each participant in the case study was then described to provide a context. For the reader to better understand the dialogue excerpts between the researcher and the case study participants, modified TAP elements were inserted. An in-depth picture of the university students' written argumentation and collaborative reasoning abilities was garnered from assessment records, interviews, and observations which made it possible to develop naturalistic generalizations of what was learned by the university students in the case study.

Modified Toulmin's Argument Pattern (TAP)

To analyze the case study participants' pre-tests, mid-tests, post-tests, and final term papers**,** modified TAP consisting of *claims*, *data*, *counterarguments*, and *rebuttals* was used as the categories for coding. Once the modified TAP categories were identified, the foregoing assessments were examined again to rate the success of argument-counterargument integration using a modified version of Nussbaum and Schraw's (2007) 4-point rubric as describe below:

1 point   No Integrated Argument-Counterargument. Student only discusses one side of the issue or does not attempt to make a claim. There are no counterarguments or rebuttals.

2 points   Partially Integrated Argument-Counterargument. Student's claim is evident but may be unclear or confusing. Reasons to support claim (data) are mentioned but may be irrelevant, confusing, and/or distracting. Possible reasons against the claim (counterarguments) may be mentioned but not discussed.

3 points   Well Integrated Argument-Counterargument. Student makes claim with some relevant reasons and/or examples to support the claim (data). While counterarguments are mentioned, student fails to rebuttal and/or reaffirm stance.

4 points   Excellent Integrated Argument-Counterargument. Student makes a claim and supports it with clear reasons and/or examples (data). Reasons against the student's claim (counterarguments) are discussed with possible explanations and/or rebuttals.

Collaborative Reasoning

The transcripts of collaborative reasoning discussions in which the case study participants took part were analyzed using Walton and Krabbe's (1995) classifications of dialogue as the theoretical coding categories. The theoretical coding (Ebenezer & Fraser, 2001) categories were persuasion dialogue, negotiation dialogue, inquiry dialogue, deliberation dialogue, information-seeking dialogue, and eristic dialogue. Each case study participant's dialogues were highlighted and grouped under the focal color the category represented.

The Validity and Reliability of the Study

Member checking was used to ensure the accuracy of the information acquired from the case study university participants. During each personal interview, the researcher (a) restated or summarized information to the case study participant and/or (b) questioned the participant to confirm answers and determine the accuracy of the researcher's interpretation. Member checking served to minimize incorrect interpretation of data.

Inter-rater reliability of the case study participants' pre-tests, mid-tests, post-tests, and final term papers was performed by two external experts independently using the modified TAP coding system followed by the modified version of Nussbaum and Schraw's (2007) 4-point rubric. Respectively, inter-rater reliability of the collaborative reasoning transcripts was also performed by the same two external experts after they received clear and concise instructions on Walton and Krabbe's (1995) classifications of dialogue. The experts met from time to time to discuss the results, resolve disagreements, and discuss discrepancies in analyses. The experts reached 98% agreement on the rubric scores of students' writing assessments, and 93% agreement on the types of dialogues that transpired in the collaborative reasoning groups.

Results

Portrait of Ava's Argumentation Abilities

When Ava met with the researcher after taking the pre-test, she was eager to relay her experience as well as her concerns. Ava earned a rubric score of 1 based on her pre-test writing. A selected passage from Ava' pre-test is presented and analyzed below (See Figure 4.1):

> When we look at a black person, the first thing click in our mind is bad, negative thinking. Why is that? When people look at a black person either black African or African American they judge them the same because they look at them the same way even though they different. . . . Not all black people are bad, some people are good. . . . Why they do racism to black people in America? In my experience, I worked at county jail and I process new inmates most of them from good families.

Figure 4.1

Ava's Pre-Test

DATA: When we look at a black person, the first think [*sic*] click in our mind is bad, negative thinking. . . . When people look at a black person either black African or African American they judge them the same because they look at them the same way even thou [*sic*] they different. . . . Not all black people are bad, some people are good. . . . I worked at county jail and I process new inmates most of them from good families.

CLAIM

REBUTTAL

COUNTERARGUMENT

Ava's pre-test revealed there was no integrated argument-counterargument for the reason that there was no attempt to make a claim. Although one can conclude that data was presented since experiences can be considered data, no claim was derived from the data. There was obviously no evidence of a counterargument and/or rebuttal. Ava's response appears to lean more towards the claim that the perceptions of both groups are stereotypical, but it is evident that Ava wrote general remarks about both groups and supported these remarks with a personal work experience.

In the first interview after the pre-test, Ava was asked about the use of counterarguments in argumentative writing. Excerpt 1 is Ava's interview with the researcher (R now represents researcher):

Excerpt 1

1.1 R: Ava, what do you think argumentation is?

1.2 Ava: Argumentation is when you trying to prove a point whether it's right or talking to somebody. . . . When we're speaking, you show emotion and you can see the other person's like feelings. . . .

1.3 R: Do you think argumentation is different when a person speaks then when he or she writes?

1.4 Ava: Different. Writing—it's just you can't really see what the other person

you're trying to say.

Base on Excerpt 1, it is apparent that Ava comprehended that the goal of argumentation is

"to prove a point" (1.2). She made distinctions between oral argumentation and writing

argumentation when she expressed that one "can see the other person's feelings" (1.2) in oral

dialogue but cannot view the other person's expressions in written dialogue (1.4). In other words,

Ava concluded that one is oblivious to the other person's thinking in written argumentation.

After learning criteria instruction for two weeks, Ava took the mid-test and earned a rubric

score of 2. A selected passage from Ava's mid-test is presented and analyzed below (Figure 4.2):

> I would say most perception of Africans are stereotypical because some of the
> claims are contrary to what they really are. From what I know, Africans are
> hardworkers [*sic*] who does so much labor but are getting under minimum wage.
> They strive to finish school and become educated so that they can get out of poverty.
> They also have good ethics. African Americans, on the other hand, are born and
> raised in America. They do not know what it is like to be poor and have no power
> or control over the government. They don't embrace the culture and history where
> they come from. That is why most perceptions of African Americans are true. (Ava)

Figure 4.2

Ava's Mid-Test

DATA: From what I know, Africans are hardworkers [*sic*] who does so much labor but are getting under minimum wage. They strive to finish school and become educated so that they can get out of poverty. They also have good ethics. African Americans, on the other hand, are born and raised in America. They do not know what it is like to be poor and have no power or control over the government. They don't embrace the culture and history where they come from.

CLAIM: I would say most perception of Africans are stereotypical because some of the claims are contrary to what they really are. . . . That is why most perceptions of African Americans are true.

REBUTTAL

COUNTERARGUMENT

Ava's integrated argument-counterargument on the mid-test was determined to be partial.

She provided claims that the perceptions of Africans are stereotypical while the perceptions of

African Americans are truthful. She supported her claims with data. There was no counterargument or rebuttal detected though Ava's rubric score did improve from the pre-test to the mid-test. Excerpt 2 reveals Ava's understanding of argument-counterargument integration after learning the criteria instruction:

Excerpt 2

2.1 R:	Ava, you have taken the mid-test. Now I would like to know your understanding of argumentation.
2.2 Ava:	You gotta have a thesis [claim] then you have to explain what they are and give specific details [data]. You're gonna have to make a counterargument. . . . Criteria instruction help me because you're gonna have to make a counterargument whether you agreeing with what was said or not.
2.3 R:	What is a counterargument, Ava?
2.4 Ava:	When you—it's like an oppose to the other person is saying.
2.5 R:	What was your claim?
2.6 Ava:	African—Africans are stereotyped.
2.7 R:	And what was your counterargument to this claim? Can you remember?
2.8 Ava:	My counterargument? [*pauses*] It's different because African Americans is true perception. . . .Oh my god, I mess up! I know it because I study. . . . I didn't write contrary to.
2.9 R:	You didn't write contrary to what?
2.10 Ava:	The thesis [claim]. Against Africans, against Americans—African Americans.

After learning criteria instruction, it was apparent that Ava understood the importance of stating a claim and supporting the claim with data (2.2). While she could also define counterarguments as a result of learning the criteria instruction (2.4), she was not consciously aware of how to integrate her argument with counterarguments. For example, Ava identified her claim about African Americans (2.8) as the counterargument to her claim about Africans (2.6). It was during the interview that Ava realized on her own that she did not state a counterargument to her argument on the mid-test after all (2.8).

For four consecutive weeks, Ava participated in collaborative reasoning groups with four other students. 44 dialogue shifts emerged over the course of four weeks wherein persuasion (45%), inquiry (32%), negotiation (14%), information-seeking (5%) and deliberation (5%) dialogues transpired. Excerpt 3 reveals Ava's nature of her participation in the collaborative reasoning group:

Excerpt 3

3.1 Rochelle: I believe they [Africans] uncivilized. Well some of them are uncivilized. They don't know how to what is it—communicate with others. They feel that they are better than us cuz I don't know.

3.2 Porsha: I think that African Americans do believe that all Africans are underdeveloped, unculturized [*sic*] and uncivilized. I've seen African Americans treat Africans maliciously because they come from Africa. They think Africans are not used to having any type of structured environment— that they all come from the bush. I think that's pretty accurate information.

3.3 Steve: From my point of view, I would agree that, yeah, they do think Africans are underdeveloped and uncivilized mainly due to the fact that things are so

different in Africa than they are here. Ah, and maybe uncultured as well because they are not familiar with the way things work in America. Hopefully these perceptions will change as time goes on and Africans become more use to the way of life in America, but I think it's an accurate assessment from my point of view.

3.4 Rochelle: [Ava], you ain't said nothing! I know your hand must be hurting cuz you been writing for a minute. Say something! What you think?

3.5 Ava: I oppose what you [Rochelle] say because Africans—they smart, they focus. They think—very hardworking. They not—they're not underdeveloped, uncultured, uncivilized because they study America—everything—you, me, school, work. They learn—learning everything. Africans—they advance more than you think.

After observing Ava for four weeks, her communication in the collaborative reasoning group can be described as passive because she was sometimes reluctant to participate in dialogues with the other students. She also did one of the following: failed to express her claim, feelings, and/or opinions; spoke softly or contritely; and refused to respond or comment to collaborative group members responses. Ava, however, did respond to questions when asked and appeared to listen very intently to the responses of others. Ava was also observed jotting down notes in another language occasionally

Using Walton and Krabbe's (1995) classifications of dialogue, Excerpt 3 is an example of persuasion dialogue in which Ava participated. Persuasion dialogue transpires when there is a clash of points of view, and the goal of the participants involved is to persuade the other to take on their claim. It is evident that persuasion dialogue took place as Ava defended a contradictory

claim to her group members' views (see 3.1-3.3; 3.5). While it took convincing from another student (Rochelle) for Ava to take part in the dialogue, it is evident from Exerpt 3 that Ava's contribution to the discussion was meaningful, and students were able to hear an alternative view..

After discussing the ill-structured issue in her collaborative reasoning group, Ava took the post-test. A selected passage from Ava's post-test is presented and analyzed below (Figure 4.3):

> I would say that the perceptions of Africans are stereotypical. The perceptions of African Americans are truthful. From what I know, most Africans are well educated, hardworkers [sic] and have fought hard to get their freedom. On the other hand, African Americans are sluggish, flunking in school, and always commit crimes. . . . African Americans are well known for committing crimes. The news only say bad things about African Americans At least from where I live. Living near [Anycity] has made me think this is true. I have seen a lot of law-breaking and disturbance in the news. . . . African Americans are always seen doing wrong things and getting arrested for misconducts. Most of them have gone to jail quite a few times and they seem to not care much about it because as soon as they get out, they would always do the same thing over again. Some students said the perception is a stereotype of African Americans. My group said African Americans do not commit all crimes. . . . White and Mexican commit crimes. (Ava)

Figure 4.3

Ava's Post-Test

DATA: From what I know, most Africans are well educated, hardworkers [sic] and have fought hard to get their freedom. On the other hand, African Americans are sluggish, flunking in school, and always commit crimes. . . . African Americans are well known for committing crimes. At least from where I live. Living near [city deleted] has made me think this is true. I have seen a lot of law-breaking and disturbance in the news. . . . African Americans are always seen doing wrong things and getting arrested for misconducts. Most of them have gone to jail quite a few times and they seem to not care much about it because as soon as they get out, they would always do the same thing over again.

REBUTTAL

CLAIM: I would say that the perceptions of Africans are stereotypical. The perceptions of African Americans are truthful.

COUNTERARGUMENT: Some students said the perception is a stereotype of African Americans (counterargument). My group said African Americans do not commit all crimes.

Ava earned a rubric score of 3 on the post-test. Ava supported her claim with data and provided a counterargument against her claim. However, Ava did not present a rebuttal to disprove the counterargument. Excerpt 4 clarifies why Ava failed to include a rebuttal on the post-test:

Excerpt 4

4.1 R: Ava, did you present a rebuttal after stating a counterargument on the post-test?

4.2 Ava: I was gonna because you're trying to prove your point. I prove my point. I—I write an oppose because not everything is right like a counterargument.

4.3 R: You wrote a counterargument. Did you give a rebuttal?

4.4 Ava: I have my thesis [claim]. I oppose what the other person is saying.

4.5 R: What do you suppose should follow, Ava? Let's take a look at your essay. [*pointing to post-test*] Did you present a rebuttal here?

4.6: Ava: No because I think my thesis is right. The counterargument is right too. I didn't know something contrary to the—the counterargument because my thesis true, my counterargument true.

It is evident that Ava understood the criteria needed to compose a good argument. While she is now proficient in stating claims, supporting the claims with data, and presenting counterarguments (4.4), Ava was unaware of how to rebuttal or disprove the opposing argument when the counterargument was determined to be correct or acceptable (4.6). Because there are no clear-cut answers when discussing ill-structured issues, it came as no surprise that Ava found both her claim and the counterargument acceptable.

The subsequent week, Ava submitted a four-page final term paper on the same essay question presented on the pre-, mid-, and post-tests: Are most perceptions of black African

immigrants and African Americans truthful or stereotypical? The selected passage from Ava's

final term paper is presented and analyzed below (Figure 4.4):

> Whether the perceptions of Africans and African Americans are stereotypical or truthful, they will always be controversial to the public. I would say that the perceptions of Africans are stereotypical while the perceptions of African Americans are truthful. . . . In my knowledge, most Africans are well educated and hard workers. From my observation, most of them are finished with their studies and have great careers in their fields, which also make them seem to be very sophisticated and knowledgeable of many things. To clarify what I had meant by the perceptions of Africans being stereotypical, some claims are opposed to what they really are. For instance, people perceived Africans as illiterate because they cannot afford schooling due to lack of sufficient money. This is true. . . . In Africa, laziness is never encouraged. Most Africans are farmers and fishermen, but there are also other professions such as medicine men, priests, and potters. Whatever their profession may be, it is essential for them to be employed in something and work hard for it. Thus, they are known to possess multiple wives and bear many children to help them in farms and other work, making their family prosper. More work related values such as human decency, upright behavior toward other people, honesty, and justice are common in an African cultural heritage (Ava).

Figure 4.4
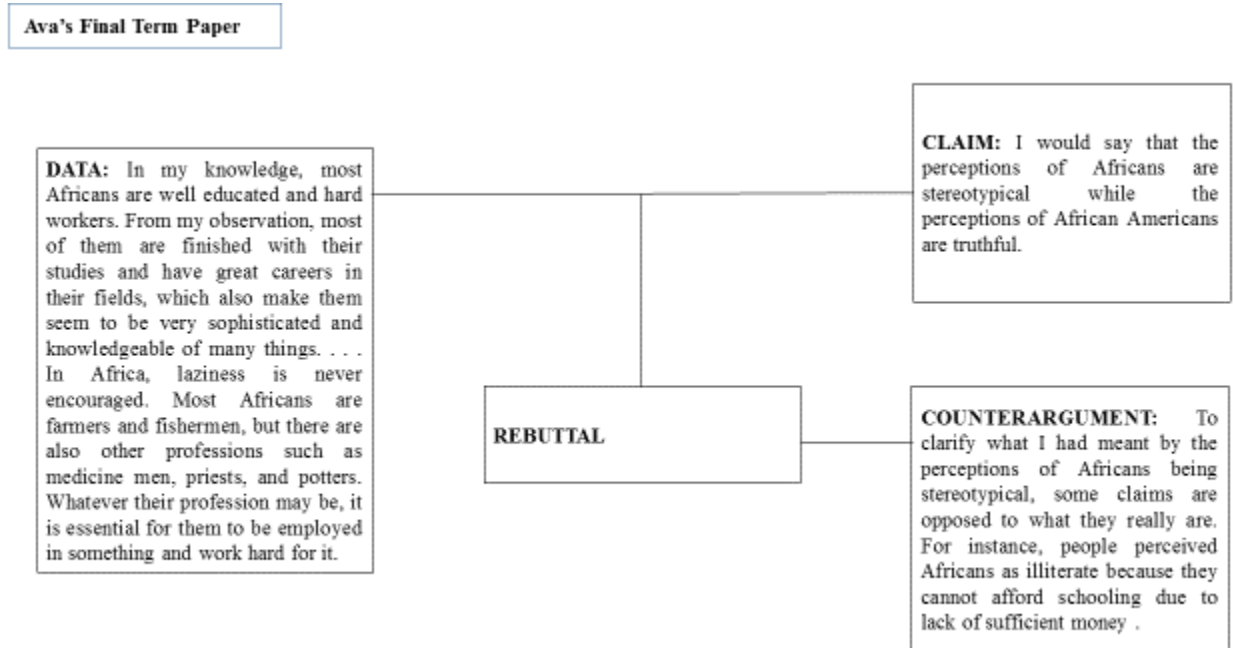
Ava earned a rubric score of 3 on the final term paper. Although Ava presented claims and data in

addition to a counterargument, she did not present a rebuttal to the counterargument once again.

Excerpt 5 is a follow-up interview to find out more about Ava's understanding of rebuttals:

Excerpt 5

5.1 R:	Did you present rebuttals in your final term paper?
5.2 Ava:	I'm trying to prove a point. I wrote my thesis [claim], my counterarguments. . . . Facts contrary to the—the counterargument.
5.3 R:	Okay. Can you define rebuttal for me?
5.4 Ava:	Facts—something contrary to the—the counterargument. I study.
5.5 R:	You explained it well. Let's review your term paper. [*reading*] ". . . people perceived Africans as illiterate because they cannot afford schooling due to lack of sufficient money." Then you write, "This is true." Where is your rebuttal to this counterargument?
5.6 Ava:	I didn't know something contrary to.

Parallel to the post-test, Ava had challenges presenting a rebuttal to the counterargument perceived as truthful or acceptable (5.6). As previously mentioned, this is often the case when the topic is ill-structured and there are multiple sides to the issue. Ava understood the importance or value of presenting rebuttals but struggled with rebutting acceptable counterarguments.

Summary

Despite challenges with presenting rebuttals, Ava's rubric score increased from a 1 on the pre-test to a 3 on the final term paper. Based on the modified version of Nussbaum and Schraw's (2007) 4-point rubric, Ava went from being a beginner arguer to an advanced arguer in a span of ten weeks.

Before the criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning interventions, Ava's interview revealed that she was knowledgeable about stating a claim and proving one's point (1.2). The

interview also revealed that Ava was under the impression that the expressions of other participants (or counterarguments) were not presented in written arguments (1.4). These discoveries would not have been possible by examining the pre-test alone as Ava did not state a claim but presented general data.

The interview following the learning of criteria instruction aided the researcher in understanding that Ava was now educated on the use of counterarguments (2.3-2.4) but faced challenges integrating the argument with the counterargument (2.5-2.10). Again, this discovery would not have been possible by examining the mid-test only given that Ava did not present a counterargument to the argument (or claims) presented.

On the post-test, Ava successfully presented a counterargument to her argument but failed to rebuttal the counterargument. By interviewing Ava after the post-test, it was evident that she was knowledgeable about how to integrate the argument with the counterargument but faced great difficulty finding rebuttals to acceptable or valid counterarguments (4.6). Ava faced this same challenge on the final term paper (5.6). This discovery was made possible as a result of interviewing Ava.

Because of the in-depth interviews, it became apparent that criteria instruction was beneficial in helping Ava to learn the importance of stating a claim, supporting the claim with data, presenting a counterargument, and rebutting the counterargument. Participating in collaborative reasoning groups helped Ava to acquire new ideas and hear differing views on the ill-structure issue. Although Ava did not attain the highest rubric score of 4, it was clear from the interview sessions and the results of the pre-test, mid-test, post-test, and the final term paper that Ava comprehended the components (claim, datum, counterargument, and rebuttal) that make an argument sound. Even so, Ava still needs to practice presenting rebuttals to acceptable or valid

counterarguments even if the undertaking is more challenging when the argument pertains to an ill-structured issue

Portrait of Frank

Frank earned a rubric score of 2 based on his pre-test writing. A selected passage from Franks' pre-test is presented and analyzed below (Figure 4.5):

> Stereotypes are developed. For this reason, most perceptions of Africans and/or African Americans are stereotypical, not truthful. . . . African Americans value education. Every day I attend school, I share classes with African Americans. They pay the same tuition I do and work hard to achieve good grades. I am taught by African Americans who have achieved Masters Degrees or higher and devote every day to educating our communities. I know this perception to be true. . . . People could disagree for whatever reason because perceptions are a choice for the most part (Frank).

Figure 4.5
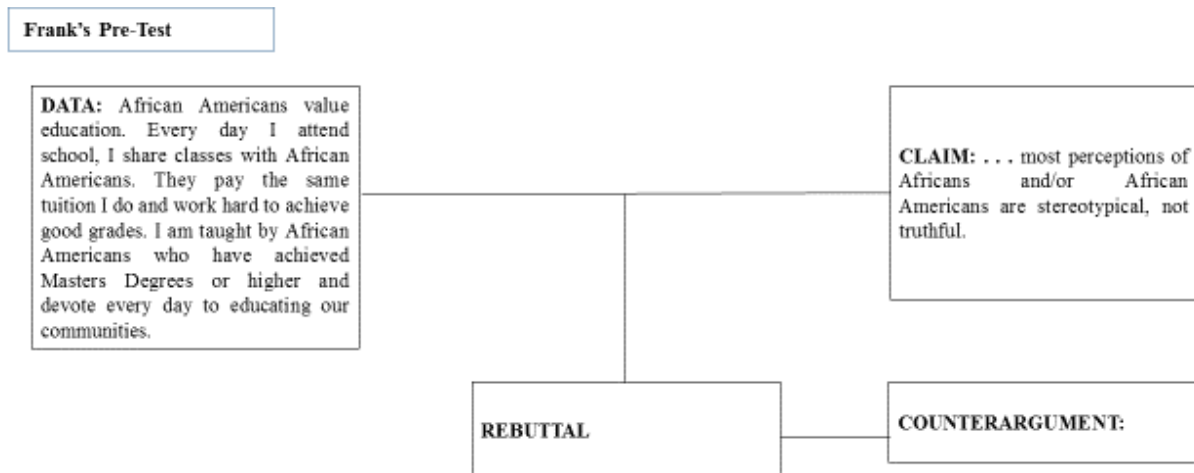
Frank had a clear claim that was supported by data. Although possible reasons against the claim are not mentioned, he does make the reader aware that there are people that could "disagree" with his claim. In the first interview after the pre-test, Frank was asked about his understanding of argumentation. Excerpt 6 is Frank's interview with the researcher:

Excerpt 6

6.1 R: Frank, what is your understanding of argumentation?

6.2 Frank: Argumentation is more like an opinion in a way using actual facts to back you up. . . . You have to have valid facts and back up your arguments with facts whether you like the facts. . . . Even if you don't want to use the facts, facts are still important.

From the interview, it was discovered that Frank's intention was not to include a counterargument but to present the facts whether it favored his claim or not (6.2). Frank was knowledgeable of presenting "an opinion" or claim and supporting the claim with "facts" or data (6.2). His emphasis on "using actual facts" (6.2) reveals that Frank values reliability and openness in argumentation even if the facts are exceptions to the arguer's claim. Although Frank has already taken and passed Composition I, it became apparent during the interview that Frank was uninformed about presenting counterarguments and rebuttal in addition to the claim and data in rhetorical argumentation.

After learning criteria instruction for two weeks, Frank took the mid-test and earned a rubric score of 3. A selected passage from Frank's mid-test is presented and analyzed below (Figure 4.6):

> The perceptions of African and African Americans are stereotypical. . . . I mean look at all the successful Africans and African Americans. Most did not become successful because they sold drugs, stole goods, or were a part of a renowned gang. President Obama is a good example of an African American that does not fit the negative stereotype. . . . People hear and see things on TV and the news that makes them think everyone of that kind is the same. These perceptions are saying that they are all ghetto or classless. . . . What ludicrisness [*sic*]! There's no point of restating the facts and wasting paper when truth defeats. (Frank)

Figure 4.6

Frank's Mid-Test

DATA: I mean look at all the successful Africans and African Americans. Most did not become successful because they sold drugs, stole goods, or were a part of a renowned gang. President Obama is a good example of an African American that does not fit the negative stereotype.		**CLAIM:** The perceptions of African and African Americans are stereotypical.
	REBUTTAL	**COUNTERARGUMENT:** People hear and see things on TV and the news that makes them think everyone of that kind is the same. These perceptions are saying that they are all ghetto or classless

Frank's mid-test was noted as having a well-integrated argument-counterargument given that his claim was supported by data and a counterargument was presented. Although a counterargument was identified, Frank failed to present a rebuttal. Case in point, Frank called the claims against his argument "ludicrous" but failed to rebuttal or disprove the counterargument. Excerpt 7 reveals Frank's understanding of argument-counterargument integration after learning the criteria instruction:

Excerpt 7

7.1 R: How has your writing changed as a result of learning the criteria instruction for argumentation?

7.2 Frank: It's easier to write. It helps you to understand the point you are trying to make better. You're learning yourself while you're doing it, you know.

7.3 R: How is it easier to write?

7.4 Frank: You have the structure. Now all you need is the information and plug everything else in. . . .

7.5 R:	What makes a sound argument, Frank? A good argument rather.
7.6 Frank:	Your stance and sticking with that. You need your claim and you need your argument—like information [data]. You need your counter—counter claim [counterargument], and then you need your conclusion, right?
7.7 R:	Okay. Is that all or would you like to add? Anything else?
7.8 Frank:	Your rebuttal. It's like more repetitious. You're repeating what you've already said.
7.9 R:	I know you spoke about stating your stance [claim] and providing counter claims [counterargument]. What was your rebuttal to your counter claim or counterargument on the mid-test? Do you remember?
7.10 Frank	I didn't see the point of writing a rebuttal. I would be repeating what I had already said. Like—I was saying the same thing over and over again. I already repeated the same points in my thesis, my body paragraphs and again in my conclusion. I had writer's block because I didn't know what else to say without repeating that the media sucks. . . .
7.11 R	Is it acceptable or inacceptable—unacceptable for your claim to be identical or say parallel to your rebuttal?
7.12 Frank	I don't think it matters as long as you have a rebuttal. A rebuttal is definitely needed. . . . I was going to refute the claim. . . . I had nothing else to say without sounding repetitious.

Frank understood the importance of including a rebuttal (7.12). Despite his understanding of argument-counterargument integration, Frank admitted to purposely omitting rebuttals on the mid-test (7.10, 7.12) because he did not want to appear "repetitious" (7.12).

For four consecutive weeks, Frank participated in a collaborative reasoning group with three other students. 52 dialogue shifts emerged over the course of four weeks wherein persuasion (19%), inquiry (31%), negotiation (19%), information-seeking (17%) and deliberation (13%) dialogues transpired. Excerpt 8 reveals Frank's nature of his participation in the collaborative reasoning group:

Excerpt 8

8.1 Rita: The next claim is Africans are stealing our resources. Stealing our resources? I don't like how that is worded.

8.2 Taylor: Saying it like "stealing our resources" is kind of harsh, but it is what it is. You use stealing to describe a criminal—somebody robbing somebody and taking something that don't belong to them.

8.3 Rita: I don't believe that the Africans are stealing our resources. I feel that when they are coming over to America, they need it probably more than the Americans need. They are coming over here from you know Africa, a different country. And they don't have as much. They would need our resources more than Americans would need it to be truthful. You can't call it stealing if something is up in the air for grabs. That's what I believe.

8.4 Taylor: I know, but what about when they go to the hospital and don't pay the medical bill? That's stealing. The hospital can't deny them because it's against the law, but they don't want to pay for the doctor's service. Being on government aid when you just got to America, that's again stealing our resources. How do you describe it if—what do you call it when somebody

takes what belongs—takes your resources? Stealing is what it is. That's one less resource for Americans to use if they need to.

8.5 Frank: Stealing means you're taking what's not yours. We're the melting bowl.

8.6 Taylor: You mean the melting pot.

8.7 Frank: My bad. Melting pot, salad bowl, mosaic, kaleidoscope—America is a mix of God knows what! Christopher Columbus came to America and found people already here. That means white people were stealing resources. The Indians [Native Americans] can point to everyone living here and claim we are stealing their resources.

8.8 Rita: I've never saw African Americans treat Africans as if they're stealing resources because, I mean, Africans come over here for the opportunity that they need similar to other immigrants. They come over here to use our resources. I don't think that there's not enough to go around. I think that if African Americans are feeling that way then maybe they should just take advantage of the resources we have and stop pointing blame of who else is using them and they're not. Africans are not stealing our resources; they're taking advantage of the resources.

8.9 Taylor: You're saying taking advantage, but African Americans would say stealing because they feel their stuff is being taken. We know what it is, but from their perspective, it will be stealing resources.

8.10 Frank: You're saying the same thing. The view of the person matters how they see this claim. You [Rita] believe Africans are taking advantage like they are

supposed to. You [Taylor] think Africans are stealing because that's one less opportunity for African Americans.

8.11 Rita: [Frank] is saying I'm right, and you're right depending on which perspective you're looking at.

8.12 Taylor: Agreed.

After observing Frank for four weeks, his communication in the collaborative reasoning group can be described as an assertive because he appeared confident and willing to discuss the ill-structured issue with his group members. More specifically, Frank was able to stand behind and/or express his claims in a positive, effective manner as well as provide data, counterarguments, and rebuttals when necessary.

Using Walton and Krabbe's (1995) classifications of dialogue, Excerpt 8 is an example of negotiation dialogue in which Frank participated. Negotiation dialogue occurs when there is a need to arrive at a common agreement for the benefit of all parties involved. The aim of the participants in negotiation dialogue is to get what they most desire out of the situation by coming to an agreement. This process may also involve persuasion dialogue and/or inquiry dialogue. It is important to note that unlike persuasion dialogue, negotiation dialogue does not start from a clash of points of view but rather an "open problem" (Walton & Krabbe, 1995, p. 72). Using the excerpt above, Rita expressed that African immigrants are not stealing (8.3) but taking advantage of the "resources" in America (8.8) while Taylor declared that Africans are stealing resources thereby lessening opportunities for African Americans (8.4; 8.9). After listening to both sides, Frank admits that both Rita and Taylor are actually "saying the same thing" although from different perspectives (8.8). Excerpt 8 is negotiation dialogue given that there was an initial conflict of interest between two of the participants, Rita and Taylor. Frank now brought about a settlement

that was agreeable to the parties involved (8.10). Not only did Frank contribute to the discussions

that developed, the excerpt shows that he also respected and acknowledged the ideas, opinions,

and/or claims of other students within the group.

After participating in a collaborative reasoning group for four weeks, Frank took the post-

test. A selected passage from Frank's post-test is presented and analyzed below (Figure 4.7):

> The perceptions of Africans and African Americans are typically stereotypical because the
> media stereotypes against them and people make up in their mind to resist any change in
> their thoughts. . . . The view that Africans and African Americans are criminals is just
> stereotypical not truthful. The media focuses more on Black Americans committing crimes
> in various types of media. The media will focus on them committing crimes in the ghettos,
> or if a Black American becomes victim to a crime committed by a different race then they
> will surface crimes committed by the victim to maintain the position Black Americans are
> violent. . . . Crime is an individual act. It has nothing to do with anyone's race, creed or
> religion. . . . Some will argue that it is true Black Americans are criminals because the
> media can only report or talk about things that actully [*sic*] happen. It is nearly impossible
> to disprove this "fact" when most of the research studies I personally looked over support
> the counterargument. (Frank)

Figure 4.7

Frank's Post-Test

DATA: The media focuses more on Black Americans committing crimes in various types of media. The media will focus on them committing crimes in the ghettos, or if a Black American becomes victim to a crime committed by a different race then they will surface crimes committed by the victim to maintain the position Black Americans are violent. . . . Crime is an individual act. It has nothing to do with anyone's race, creed or religion.

CLAIM: The perceptions of Africans and African Americans are typically stereotypical because the media stereotypes against them and people make up in their mind to resist any change in their thoughts. . . . The view that Africans and African Americans are criminals is just stereotypical not truthful.

REBUTTAL

COUNTERARGUMENT: People hear and see things on TV and the news that makes them think everyone of that kind is the same. These perceptions are saying that they are all ghetto or classless.

Similar to the mid-test, Frank earned a rubric score of 3 on the post-test. Frank's post-test

was documented as having a well-integrated argument-counterargument given that his claim was

supported by data and a counterargument was presented. Once again, Frank did not present a

rebuttal to the counterargument. From the post-test passage above, it is likely that Frank sought to present a rebuttal but faced challenges as he wrote "most of the researched studies I personally looked over supported the counterargument." Excerpt 9 clarifies why Frank failed to include a rebuttal on the post-test:

Excerpt 9

9.1 R: Frank, what is your understanding of argumentation now?

9.2 Frank: It is a debate, usually a disagreement between two people or more. One person trying to convince the other. You have to conclude an argument with an idea, fact or not. . . .

9.3 R: How do you think your writing changed—if it has changed—as a result of participating in collaborative reasoning groups?

9.4 Frank: It gave me more ideas and perspectives to put in my paper. I got some ideas from my group members. I heard a few ideas from one or two to help support my argument and the counterarguments. . . . I found some research to disprove the stereotypes about Africans and immigration stuff. . . . I did not find a lot of stuff against the stereotypes of African Americans. . . . The articles I found supported my counterarguments. . . . It was easier to write about Africans and refute the stereotypes [counterarguments], but I couldn't find stuff on black Americans. . . . I would've wrote my essay on Africans mostly but the ill-structured issue was about both.

From the interview with Frank, one can definitely rule out lack of understanding as it was apparent that Frank understood the criteria needed to integrate arguments and counterarguments which includes rebutting. Frank also found the collaborative reasoning discussions beneficial as

he acquired ideas from group members (9.2). With these in mind, it is evident that the challenge Frank faced was finding data or "stuff" to rebuttal or refute the counterargument (9.4). This explanation came as no surprise to the researcher as ill-structured issues can present challenges and limitations.

Frank elaborated more on his writing experience in Excerpt 10:

Excerpt 10

10.1 R:	You mentioned that the articles you found supported the counterarguments. Very interesting.
10.2 Frank:	I was at a crossroad because sometimes you find out that with a rebuttal it gets more emotional than argumentative. But doing this, I've learned how to better use rebuttals.
10.3 R:	How have you learned to use rebuttals?
10.4 Frank:	I understand you have to look at both sides and open up your variety of, you know, facts. You can't just be one sided. You have to look at both sides. Then your argument will be better. . . . By looking at both sides, you realize which side is easier to argue.
10.5 R:	Which side was easier to argue in your opinion?
10.6 Frank:	It's easier to argue that the perceptions of African Americans are true because the stuff I found supported this—my counterarguments. . . . I chose the difficult side because I wanted to build up my skills. . . . You're not a good arguer until you're able to argue any point. . . . I would have gotten a higher score if I would have said the perceptions were true.
10.7 R:	Why do you feel your argument can be better by looking at both sides?

10.8 Frank: Because you can counteract whatever they say and like just think of better ways to explain yourself by having understanding of both sides. Argumentation is more of going back and forth and making a point. . . . I learned how to better refute the counterarguments from my group members.

Frank expressed that he could have easily earned the highest rubric score if only he had presented a claim that was easier to defend. While he could have successfully integrated the argument-counterargument by choosing the claim he felt was easier to argue, Frank admitted that he purposefully "chose the difficult side" to build up his "skills" in writing (10.6). Hence, Frank was personally aware of his challenge to present a rebuttal to an acceptable counterargument.

Aware of his challenge, Frank was determined to improve on the final term paper. The subsequent week, Frank submitted a six-page final term paper on the same essay question presented on the pre-, mid-, and post-tests: Are the perceptions of black African immigrantss and African Americans truthful or stereotypical? The selected passage from Frank's final term paper is presented and analyzed below (Figure 4.8):

> There is no doubt that majority of the perceptions about Africans and African Americans are stereotypes. . . . Africans are civilized. . . . It also doesn't' help matters that African immigrants also have their own host of stereotypes to deal with. In particular, the very mentioning of Africa will bring to mind the images of mud huts, folks hunting with spears and no indoor plumbing for miles. There is also, perhaps, the images that come from the Congo and Somalia of war torn lands and bandit kings that make perceptions of Africa as a backward, uncivilized, deprived continent true. These are not true perceptions but silly stereotypes. All one has to do is consider how many modern cities are on the continent to dismiss the idea that Africa is completely uncivilized. Places like Libreville, Gabon; Nairobi, Kenya; Cairo, Egypt; and Johannesburg, South Africa could be considered modern enough to give more "civilized" areas of the world a run for their money.

Figure 4.8

Frank's Final Term Paper

DATA: Places like Libreville, Gabon; Nairobi, Kenya; Cairo, Egypt; and Johannesburg, South Africa could be considered modern enough to give more "civilized" areas of the world a run for their money.

CLAIM: There is no doubt that majority of the perceptions about Africans and African Americans are stereotypes. . . . Africans are civilized.

COUNTERARGUMENT: There is also, perhaps, the images that come from the Congo and Somalia of war torn lands and bandit kings that make perceptions of Africa as a backward, uncivilized, deprived continent true.

REBUTTAL: These are not true perceptions but silly stereotypes. All one has to do is consider how many modern cities are on the continent to dismiss the idea that Africa is completely uncivilized.

Frank earned a rubric score of 4 on the final term paper. His integrated argument-counterargument was excellent. Similar to previous assessments (pre-, mid-, and post-tests), Frank presented claims and data. On the final term paper, however, Frank also presented his counterargument and rebuttal alongside data. This is acceptable given that there are three ways to integrate arguments with counterarguments: (a) refutation strategy wherein the final argument addresses the argument as well as the counterargument, (b) synthesizing where the final conclusion compromises between the argument and counterargument, and (c) weighing which occurs when both sides are weighed concurrently and the argument is made that evidence on one side is stronger than the other or the solution exceeds the disadvantages (Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007). It was clear that Frank used data to weigh his argument against the counterargument. This is why some of the content in the counterargument box and the rebuttal box can also pass for data (see Figure 4.8).

During the final interview with Frank at the end of the term, Excerpt 11 reveals Frank's understanding argument-integration:

Excerpt 11

11.1 R: Now, Frank, what is your understanding of argumentation?

11.2 Frank: Thesis statement is somewhat like your claim. Your thesis statement should
                 include what your body paragraphs are going to be about and state your
                 opinion. You try to make someone believe what you believe by using
                 supporting facts with credible sources—sensible. Your claim is answering
                 the question. . . . You know, elaborate on your thesis statement with data
                 and stuff, and give opposing point of view [counterargument] and reason
                 why it should be your way or whatever [rebuttal]. Conclusion—restate your
                 thesis and smooth it all out.

11.3 R: How has your argumentation changed as a result of learning the criteria
                 instruction and working in collaborative reasoning groups?

11.4 Frank: I would say a great deal for a couple of reasons. My writing used to lack
                 counterarguments. Now I use them to strengthen my argument and
                 rebuttals. . . . I've learned that it takes work to make someone believe what
                 you believe. You have to use more than facts like other types of data to
                 support your thesis (claim) and persuade a group of people with different
                 views. Sometimes, facts are not enough but personal experiences,
                 reasonable comparisons, relating them to real things in the world, other
                 factors when you are dealing with these ill-structured topics. . . . I mean I
                 practically knew nothing before. Very minimum. So all of this is giving me
                 an idea how to do it. My writing is organized.

It is evident from the interview that Frank is knowledgeable of the importance of presenting a claim, data, counterargument, and rebuttal in order to achieve argument-counterargument integration (11.2). Frank was highly aware of the importance of presenting a counterargument "to strengthen" his argument and rebuttal (11.4). He also expressed that other forms of data (i.e., personal experiences, reasonable comparisons, and realistic examples or scenarios) are just as important as presenting facts when "dealing with these ill-structured topics" (11.4). Frank admitted that he found the criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning interventions helpful as he expressed that he "knew nothing before. Very minimum" (11.4).

Summary

Frank's rubric score increased from a 2 on the pre-test to a 4 on the final term paper. Based on the modified version of Nussbaum and Schraw's (2007) 4-point rubric, Frank went from being an intermediate arguer to an advanced arguer in the course of ten weeks.

Frank's interview before the interventions revealed that Frank knew the importance of stating a claim and supporting the claim with data or what he called "facts" (6.2). This conclusion was supported by the results of the pre-test as Frank stated a claim with data to support. The interview following the learning of criteria instruction aided the researcher in understanding that Frank was now proficient in modified TAP (7.6; 7.8; 7.10; 7.12). This discovery would not have been possible by examining the mid-test alone since Frank presented a claim, data, and a counterargument but no rebuttal on the mid-test.

Frank admitted to learning more ideas from his collaborative reasoning group members to support his claims (9.4) but failed once again to present rebuttals on the post-test. From the interview following the post-test, it was evident that Frank wanted to present a rebuttal but faced challenges finding information to refute his counterargument (9.4). Even so, Frank expressed that

he could have earned the highest rubric score effortlessly had he chosen to defend an "easier" claim (10.6).

By the final term paper, Frank earned the highest rubric score of 4 which demonstrates he achieved argument-counterargument integration. It is apparent from the increase in the rubric score from the pre-test to the term paper that Frank benefited from the two interventions. Not only did Frank expressed that his writing was more organized (11.4), this experience has helped him to appreciate other kinds of data to support arguments other than "facts" (11.4).

Discussion

The case study university students comprehended what argumentative writing entails regardless of their initial argumentation levels (beginning and intermediate). Based on the case study of Ava and Frank, criteria instruction not only helped these university students develop argument-counterargument integration in argumentative writing, Ava and Frank were able to reference important elements (i.e., claim, data, counterargument, and rebuttal) used in argumentative discourse. It was evident from the study that the case study university students referred to the components of argumentation more frequently as the study progressed. Hence, when students and educator are knowledgeable of the components commonly used in argumentation discourse, a "common working language" (Chin & Osborne, 2010, p. 903) is created thereby enabling the communication from educator to student, student to educator, and/or student to student. Similar to research studies that examined the effectiveness of criteria instruction (i.e., Liu and Stapleton, 2014; Nussbaum and Schraw, 2007), this study provided ample evidence that criteria instruction can improve university students' ability to integrate arguments and counterarguments as both the beginning arguer (Ava) and intermediate arguer (Frank) earned higher rubric scores from the pre-test to the mid-test.

Participating in collaborative reasoning groups can also help students logically explore complex issues (Dong, Anderson, Kim, & Li, 2008; Kay & Greenhill, 2011). Because the case study university participants worked collaboratively with other university students representing different races, cultures, religions, and/or language learning experiences, it was anticipated that the case study university students would learn or pick up new ideas from the other. Given that an ill-structured issue pertaining to black African immigrants and African Americans was used as the topic for discussion and there were no spelled out goals, multiple views and interpretations were expected. Even so, the researcher was able to examine, interpret, and monitor students' discussions in collaborative reasoning groups as a result of using Walton & Krabbe's (1995) dialogue types as an analytic tool.

When there are multiple views on an issue, it is possible for students to become emotional or even defensive as in the real world. Consequently, the use of collaborative reasoning groups in an educational environment provides a safe (educator monitored) outlet where students can express their views while learning (or practicing) to respect the views of others. Participating in collaborative reasoning groups also provided opportunities for the beginning arguer (Ava) and intermediate arguer (Frank) to obtain new ideas, progress arguments, and develop counterarguments from group members. Similar to research studies that examined the effects of collaborative reasoning groups (i.e., Dong, Anderson, Kim, & Li, 2008; Kuhn & Udell, 2003; Reznitskaya, Anderson, & Kuo, 2007) both case study university participants resulted in a better grasp of argument-counterargument integration. To sum up these findings, the beginning arguer (Ava) and intermediate arguer (Frank) could be defined as advanced arguers as a result of learning the criteria instruction and participating in collaborative reasoning groups.

Implications

Most studies have used Toulmin's argument pattern (TAP) to map students' oral and written arguments at both the school-aged (e.g., Erduran, Simon, & Osborne, 2004; Evagorou & Osborne, 2013) and postsecondary levels (e.g., Becker et al., 2013; Tsai & Tsais, 2014). Concurrently, both school-aged (Stapleton & Wu, 2015) and postsecondary researchers (e.g., Liu & Stapleton, 2014; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007) have used a modified version of Toulmin's (1958) Argument Pattern (TAP) to teach argument-counterargument integration which the former lacked. While other postsecondary researchers (e.g., Nussbaum & Kardash, 2005) have adopted argument categories (e.g., final claim, supporting claim, and reservation) from other notable researchers (i.e., Inch and Warnick, 2002), similar elements to modified Toulmin's argument pattern can still be found. The aforementioned studies made use of ill-structured issues pertaining to drug abuse (Stapleton & Wu, 2015), television violence (Nussbaum & Kardash, 2005; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007), urbanization **(**Lui & Stapleton, 2014), and the preservation of cultural practices (Lui & Stapleton, 2014). Similarly, this case study used a socio-cultural issue that is controversial yet situated in the students' context to develop university students' argumentation abilities. The case study university students learned criteria instruction to improve their argumentative discourse through careful thinking, writing, and speaking on the social cultural issue.

Based on the researchers who used criteria instruction (Ferretti, MacArthur, & Dowdy, 2000; Lui & Stapleton, 2014; Nussbaum & Kardash, 2005; Nussbaum & Schraw, 2007; Reznitskaya, Anderson, & Kuo, 2007) and collaborative reasoning (Dong, Anderson, Kim, & Li, 2008; Kuhn & Udell, 2003; Reznitskaya, Anderson, & Kuo, 2007), this study utilized both interventions to support the case study university students' in-depth learning of argumentation on the ill-structured issue. As the case study developed over time through interviewing and other methods, it came to the researcher's awareness that criteria instruction helped to establish a

"common working language" (Chin & Osborne, 2010, p. 903) between educator and student and student to student. It was noted that as the case study students developed their understanding of argumentation, the use of the components of argument structure became more clearly evident.

Even after the interventions were utilized, it was discovered that analyzing the writing assessments and papers were not sufficient to fully comprehend university students' knowledge and understanding of argumentation. It was also apparent as a result of tracking the case study university students' learning that they stumbled upon presenting rebuttals against established facts. For a working example, Frank admitted that he found it challenging to rebuttal counterarguments supported by widely acclaimed facts. Based on the foregoing findings of this case study, the implications are on (a) teaching and learning argument-counterargument integration and (b) future research on argument-counterargument integration.

In terms of teaching and learning, it is critical for educators that teach English composition to use criteria based instruction and collaborative reasoning amongst students to develop a common working language for developing students' argumentation abilities. Even after the interventions were utilized, it was discovered that analyzing the writing assessment and papers was not sufficient to fully comprehend students' knowledge and understanding of argumentation.

Given the finding in which writing assessments were insufficient in discovering the case study's university students understanding of argumentation, it is essential that educators meet with students independently from time to time to monitor students' learning of argumentation. While it is common for educators to identify errors to students and write extensive comments on papers, feedback in the form of writing conferences should involve the educator presenting open-ended questions pertaining to the writing experiences of each student. This allows for the educator to suggest feedback even as students discover their own mistakes and progress in thinking

independently. While providing feedback to students during writing conferences, it may be necessary to highlight the role of rebuttals in spite of established or factual counterarguments.

For future research in argumentation, many case studies should be conducted to develop a substantive theory of teaching and learning of argumentation. It is suggested that future researchers use this particular case study as a platform to develop similar case studies at the university level. Based on this case study, it will also be beneficial to replicate this study with more English as a second language learners, academically challenged students, and/or returning adult learners.

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSION OF THE STUDY

Introduction

This study consists of a trilogy of articles. Chapter 5 represents a summary of each article in a visual format namely Vee-Diagram (Novak & Gowin, 1984). Each research question will be answered accordingly.

Summary of Article One

Figure 5.1

Vee-Diagram of Article One

Focus Questions

1. What are the qualitatively different ways university students perceive black Africans and African Americans?

2. Can these perceived variations be translated into arguments?

Conceptual

Theory
Variation Theory of Learning
Phenomenography

Key Ideas
Phenomenography is a qualitatively different way of thinking about a phenomenon. (See below.)

Concepts
Phenomenography
Descriptive Categories
Experiential Variation
Finite Dimensions
Outcome Space

Event
University students' perceptions of black Africans and African Americans

Methodological

Value Claim
University students' perceptions can be translated into claims that can be argued.

Knowledge Claims
University students' perceptions can be grouped into distinctive categories. These variations can be translated into arguments.

Records
Records Section (See below.)

Transformation of Data
Table 5.1 (See below.)

Key Ideas

- Phenomenography is an interpretative research approach.

- Phenomenography identifies and describes the qualitatively, distinct ways of experiencing.

- Individuals' experiences are sorted into categories of description.

- Descriptive categories are those that emerge from the data.

- The descriptive categories finite dimensions of variation.

- Descriptive categories constitute the outcome space.

Records

University students had 24 qualitatively distinctive ways of perceiving black African immigrants and African Americans. 10 perceptions pertained specifically to black Africans and 14 pertained to African Americans. These common perceptions were grouped into descriptive categories: Image and Identity, Disposition and Outlook, Manner and Behavior, Work Ethic, Value of Education, and Cognizance of Racism.

Transformation of Data

Table 5.1

Perceptions of Black Africans and African Americans

No.	Descriptive Categories	Black Africans	%	African Americans	%
1	Image and Identity	Africans maintain their African identity.	56%	African Americans deny their African heritage.	33%
		Africans take on both African and African American identities.	36%	African Americans embrace their African identity and heritage.	18%
		Africans drop their African identity and embrace an American identity.	21%	African Americans identity themselves in terms of complexion.	21%
2	Disposition and Outlook	Africans are goal oriented and driven to succeed.	58%	African Americans are ill-informed about African and/or Africans.	58%
		Africans are family and community oriented.	30%	African Americans are good at sports.	15%
				African Americans are inferior.	21%
				African Americans are given a bad reputation.	39%
				African Americans are not family oriented.	24%
3	Manner and Behavior	African males are controlling, domineering, and demean women.	30%	African Americans are violent and behave inappropriately.	48%
		Africans are better than African Americans.	24%		

4	Work Ethics	Africans are hardworking and have good work ethics.	91%	African Americans are hardworking.	45%
				African Americans have poor work ethics.	64%
5	Value of Education	Africans are educated and value education.	61%	African Americans are educated and value education.	39%
				African Americans do not value education.	33%
6	Cognizance of Racism	Africans deemphasize racism.	39%	African Americans overstress racism.	55%

Research Question One

What are the qualitatively different ways university students perceive black African immigrants and African Americans?

University students had 23 qualitatively distinctive ways of perceiving black Africans and African Americans. Ten perceptions pertained specifically to black Africans and 13 pertained to African Americans. These common perceptions were grouped into descriptive categories: Image and Identity, Disposition and Outlook, Manner and Behavior, Work Ethic, Value of Education, and Cognizance of Racism.

In terms of "Image and Identity," the three perceptions of black Africans as described by university students were Africans maintain their African identity, Africans take on both African and African American identities, and Africans drop their African identity and embrace an American identity. The three "Image and Identity" perceptions of African Americans by the university students were African Americans deny their African heritage, African Americans embrace their African identity and heritage, and African Americans identity themselves in terms of complexion.

In regards to "Disposition and Outlook," university students had two perceptions of black Africans which were Africans are goal oriented and driven to succeed in addition to Africans are

family and community oriented. The five "Disposition and Outlook" perceptions of African Americans presented by the university students were Africans are ill-informed about African and/or Africans, African Americans are good at sports, African Americans are inferior, African Americans are given a bad reputation, and African Americans are not family oriented.

Pertaining to "Manner and Behavior," the two perceptions of black Africans as described by university students were African males are controlling, domineering, and demean women in addition to Africans are better than African Americans. The only perception in the "Manner and Behavior" descriptive category that pertained to African Americans was that African Americans are violent and behave inappropriately.

Concerning "Work Ethic," Africans are hardworking and have good work ethics was the only perception about black Africans presented by the university students. The two "Work Ethic" perceptions of African Americans were that African Americans are hardworking and African Americans have poor work ethics.

With regard to "Value of Education," university students had one perception of black Africans which was Africans are educated and value education. Two "Value of Education" perceptions of African Americans presented by the university students were African Americans are educated and value education as well as African Americans do not value education.

In terms of "Cognizance of Racism," university students had one perception of black Africans which was that Africans deemphasize racism. University students also had one perception of African Americans which was that African Americans overstress racism.

Research Question Two

Can these perceived variations be translated into arguments?

University students' perceived variations of black African immigrants and African Americans can be translated into arguments since persuasive dialogue can evolve when there are differences or variations in perceptions of phenomena. From the number and/or the percentage of university students that supported each claim, it is evident that not all university students supported every perception presented in the outcome space. For example, 15 (45%) university students expressed that African Americans are hardworking while 21 (64%) university students expressed that African Americans have poor work ethics. Since the two perceptions conflict, the perceptions can be translated into arguments. Hence, 15 university students would have to persuade the others that African Americans are hardworking while 21 university students would have to persuade that African Americans have poor work ethics.

Summary of Article Two

Figure 5.2

Vee-Diagram of Article Two

Focus Questions

Conceptual

Theory
Modified Toulmin's (1958) Argument Pattern
Walton and Krabbe's (1995) Dialogue Types

1. How do university students' argument-counterargument integration abilities in writing change over the course of a semester as a result of the interventions?
2. What types of dialogue occur within the collaborative reasoning groups?

Methodological

Value Claim
Criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning can improve students' abilities to construct arguments.

Key Ideas
Modified TAP consists of: claim, data, counterargument and rebuttal. Walton and Krabbe's (1995) dialogue types are as follows: persuasion, negotiation, inquiry, deliberation, information-seeking, and eristic. (See below.)

Knowledge Claims
Criteria instruction taught students the elements of argumentative discourse. Collaborative reasoning helped students to logically explore complex issues to develop arguments.

Concepts
Claim, data, counterargument, and rebuttal Persuasion dialogue, inquiry dialogue, negotiation dialogue, information-seeking dialogue, deliberation dialogue, and eristic dialogue.

Event
University students learning argument-counterargument integration writing abilities.

Records
Records Section (See below.)

Transformation of Data
Tables 5.2-5.4 (See below.)

Key Ideas

- A claim is the position statement being argued.

- Data contribute to the evidence in order to support the claim.

- A counterargument is a position contrary to the claim put forward.

- A rebuttal is a condition of exception within the established claim.

- Persuasion dialogue happens when there is a conflict of opinions between the participants involved.

- Inquiry dialogue is another classification that occurs when participants need evidence to prove or disprove a hypothesis or the phenomenon in question.

- Negotiation dialogue occurs when there is a conflict of interest between the participants.

- Information-seeking dialogue takes place when participants desire information.

- Deliberation dialogue happens when the situation involves a dilemma or practical choice.

- Eristic dialogue occurs when there is personal conflict.

- Mixed dialogue results when two or more of the aforementioned dialogues transpire.

Records

The quantitative findings showed there was no significant statistical difference between the experimental and the control groups at the start of the study as indicated by the Mann-Whitney U test. In regards to the mid-test, post-test, and final term paper, however, the findings showed a significant statistical difference between the experimental group and control group. Thus, students in the experimental group exhibited better argument-counterargument integration on the writing assessments than the control group as a result of learning criteria instruction and participating in collaborative reasoning groups.

A qualitative analysis of students' discussions in collaborative reasoning groups revealed that mixed dialogue transpired. University students used various forms of dialogue to participate in argumentative discourse. Still, the prevailing dialogue overall was persuasion dialogue. The results support the hypothesis that the implementation of criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning can help university students improve their argument-counterargument integration abilities.

Transformation of Data

Table 5.2

Analysis of Writing Score Comparisons

Comparison Groups	Pre-test	Mid-test	Post-test	Final Term Paper
P Value	0.533	0.013	0.034	0.006
Z Value	-0.747	-2.620	-2.238	-2.936
M-W U	172	105.5	118	96.5
Conclusion	Accept H_0	Reject H_0	Reject H_0	Reject H_0
Significance Difference?	No	Yes	Yes	Yes

Note: Cutoff p value for rejecting H_0 is $\alpha = 0.05$.

Table 5.3

Post-hoc Results to Determine the Effectiveness of Normal Instruction on Argumentation

Comparison Groups	*z*	*p*
Pre to Mid	$z = -1.00$	$p = .317$
Pre to Post	$z = -3.638$	$p < .001*$
Pre to Final	$z = -3.758$	$p < .001*$
Mid to Post	$z = -3.606$	$p < .001*$
Mid to Final	$z = -3.827$	$p < .001*$
Post to Final	$z = -2.828$	$p = .005*$

Note. *Bonferroni cut off corrected alpha equals 0.0083.

Table 5.4

Number and Percentage of Dialogue Shifts by Dialogue Type and Collaborative Reasoning Group

Nature of Dialogues	Collaborative reasoning groups					Total
	1	2	3	4	5	
Persuasion	16 (26%)	20 (45%)	10 (19%)	26 (43%)	11 (42%)	83 (34%)

Inquiry	26 (42%)	14 (32%)	16 (31%)	14 (23%)	6 (23%)	76 (31%)
Negotiation	8 (13%)	6 (14%)	10 (19%)	6 (10%)		30 (12%)
Information	12 (19%)	2 (5%)	9 (17%)	12 (20%)	9 (35%)	44 (18%)
Deliberation		2 (5%)	7 (13%)	1 (2%)		10 (4%)
Eristic				2 (3%)		2 (1%)
Sub-total	62	44	52	61	26	245

Research Question One

How do university students' argument-counterargument integration abilities in writing change over the course of a semester as a result of the interventions?

At the beginning of the study, there was no significant statistical difference between the control group and the experimental group. After learning criteria instruction, however, there was a significant statistical difference between both groups as 91% of the university students in the experimental group earned higher rubric scores. After learning criteria instruction, the significant statistical difference between the experimental group and the control group only increased. After submitting the final term paper, there was still a significant statistical difference between the experimental group and the control group which means the rubric scores of university students in the experimental group increased at a faster rate than those in the control group. The increase in the university students' rubric scores over time is on account of learning criteria instruction which clearly conveyed the elements of argumentation necessary to write sound argumentative essays. University students in the experimental group were also able to develop, refine, analyze and evaluate these elements of argumentation by participating in constructive dialogues in collaborative reasoning groups. Consequently, university students in the experimental group presented more data forms, counterarguments, and rebuttals to their arguments.
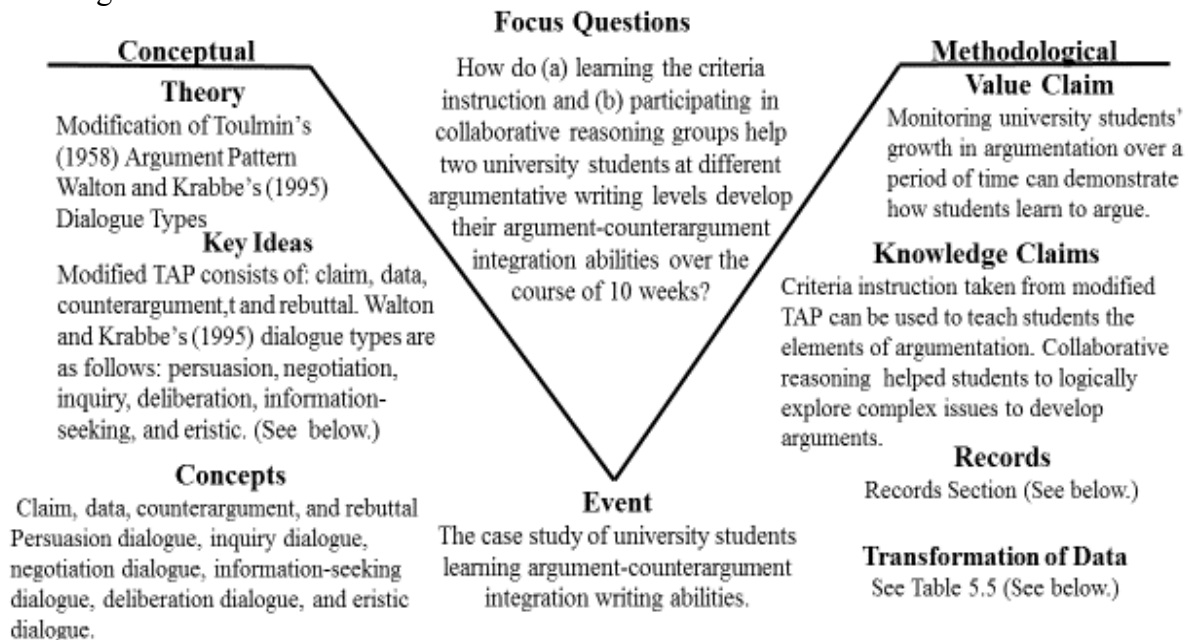
Research Question Two

What types of dialogue occurred within the collaborative reasoning groups?

Mixed dialogue transpired in all five collaborative reasoning groups. The dialogues that took place in the first collaborative reasoning group were persuasion, inquiry, negotiation and information-seeking. The dialogues that transpired in the second and third collaborative reasoning groups were persuasion, inquiry, negotiation, information-seeking, and deliberation. In the fourth collaborative reasoning group, persuasion, inquiry, negotiation, information-seeking, deliberation, and eristic dialogues developed. Group four was the only group where eristic dialogue transpired and was counteractive to university students' learning of argumentation. In the fifth collaborative reasoning group, only persuasion, inquiry, and information dialogues emerged. Despite mixed dialogue developing within each group, persuasion was still the leading dialogue utilized by university students in collaborative reasoning groups. Inquiry dialogue was second followed by information-seeking dialogue. Although the goal was persuasion, the results of the study show that different dialogues can be used to develop argumentative discourse.

Summary of Article Three

Figure 5.3

Vee-Diagram of Article Three

Focus Questions

How do (a) learning the criteria instruction and (b) participating in collaborative reasoning groups help two university students at different argumentative writing levels develop their argument-counterargument integration abilities over the course of 10 weeks?

Conceptual

Theory

Modification of Toulmin's (1958) Argument Pattern Walton and Krabbe's (1995) Dialogue Types

Key Ideas

Modified TAP consists of: claim, data, counterargument,t and rebuttal. Walton and Krabbe's (1995) dialogue types are as follows: persuasion, negotiation, inquiry, deliberation, information-seeking, and eristic. (See below.)

Concepts

Claim, data, counterargument, and rebuttal Persuasion dialogue, inquiry dialogue, negotiation dialogue, information-seeking dialogue, deliberation dialogue, and eristic dialogue.

Event

The case study of university students learning argument-counterargument integration writing abilities.

Methodological

Value Claim

Monitoring university students' growth in argumentation over a period of time can demonstrate how students learn to argue.

Knowledge Claims

Criteria instruction taken from modified TAP can be used to teach students the elements of argumentation. Collaborative reasoning helped students to logically explore complex issues to develop arguments.

Records

Records Section (See below.)

Transformation of Data

See Table 5.5 (See below.)

Key Ideas

- A claim is the position statement being argued.

- Data contribute to the evidence in order to support the claim.

- A counterargument is a position contrary to the claim put forward.

- A rebuttal is a condition of exception within the established claim.

- Persuasion dialogue happens when there is a conflict of opinions between the participants involved.

- Inquiry dialogue is another classification that occurs when participants need evidence to prove or disprove a hypothesis or the phenomenon in question.

- Negotiation dialogue occurs when there is a conflict of interest between the participants.

- Information-seeking dialogue takes place when participants desire information.

- Deliberation dialogue happens when the situation involves a dilemma or practical choice.

- Eristic dialogue occurs when there is personal conflict.

- Mixed dialogue results when two or more of the aforementioned dialogues transpires.

Records

Ava earned a rubric score of 1 on the pre-test and was categorized as a beginning arguer when the study commenced. After learning criteria instruction, Ava earned a rubric score of 2 on the mid-test. After participating in a collaborative reasoning group for four consecutive weeks, Ava earned a rubric score of 3 on the post-test. Subsequently, Ava earned a rubric score of 3 on the final term paper and was categorized as an advance arguer by the end of the study.

Frank earned a rubric score of 2 on the pre-test and was categorized as an intermediate arguer when the study commenced. After learning criteria instruction, Frank earned a rubric score of 3 on the mid-test. After participating in a collaborative reasoning group for four consecutive

weeks, Frank earned a rubric score of 3 on the post-test. Subsequently, Frank earned a rubric score

of 4 on the final term paper and was categorized as an advanced arguer by the end of the study.

Transformation of Data

Table 5.5

University Students' Rubric Scores and Argument Levels

Case Study Student	Pre-test Rubric Score	Argument Level	Mid-test Rubric Score	Argument Level	Post-test Rubric Score	Argument Level	Final Term Paper Rubric Score	Argument Level
Ava	1	Beginner	2	Intermediate	3	Advance	3	Advance
Frank	2	Intermediate	3	Advance	3	Advance	4	Advance

Research Question One

How do (a) learning the criteria instruction and (b) participating in collaborative reasoning

groups help two university students at different argumentative writing levels develop their

argument-counterargument integration abilities over the course of 10 weeks?

The learning of criteria instruction and participating in collaborative reasoning groups

helped the case study university students, Ava and Frank, improve their argument-

counterargument integration writing abilities. More specifically, the learning of criteria instruction

helped the case study university students construct arguments using the key elements specified in

modified TAP. Moreover, collaborative reasoning allotted the case study university students the

opportunity to discuss and explore the ill-structured issue pertaining to black Africans and African

Americans with other university students in groups. Consequently, the case study university

students were able to acquire information as well as develop their arguments and

counterarguments. At the beginning of the study, Ava was defined as a beginning arguer, and

Frank was defined as an intermediate arguer. By the end of the study, nonetheless, both Ava and

Frank could be defined as advanced arguers.

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ABSTRACT

DEVELOPING UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE DISCOURSE: AN ILL-STRUCTURED ISSUE PERTAINING TO BLACK AFRICAN IMMIGRANTS AND AFRICAN AMERICANS

by

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May 2016

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The overarching goal of this three-article five-chapter dissertation was to develop university students' argument-counterargument integration abilities in persuasive essay writing on an ill-structured issue pertaining to black African immigrants and African Americans. Article One consisted of using phenomenography as a research approach to identify the qualitatively different ways university students perceive black African immigrants and African Americans. The university participants had 24 perceptions in which 10 pertained to black African immigrants and 14 to African Americans. The perceptions were grouped into six descriptive categories. The variations in perceptions were then used as statements for argumentation. The study implies that university students' perceptions can be translated into arguments or claims to teach argumentation. Article Two is a mixed methods study that examined the effectiveness of criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning on university students' argumentation abilities. The study consisted of 23 participants in the experimental group and 17 in the control. The following data were collected over the course of 10 weeks: participants' pre-tests, mid-tests, post-tests, and final term papers; audio recordings of the collaborative reasoning group discussions; and observation notes. Analyses were done using a rubric, statistical tests, and dialogue types. The Mann-Whitney U test indicated

that while there was no significant statistical difference between the experimental group and control group at the start of study (pre-test), there was a significant statistical difference between the groups on the mid-test, post-test, and final term paper. The findings indicate that the experimental group exhibited better argument-counterargument integration on the writing assessments as a result of learning the criteria instruction and participating in collaborative reasoning. A qualitative analysis revealed that mixed dialogue transpired in each collaborative reasoning group. The study implies that criteria instruction and collaborative reasoning can be used to develop university students' argumentative discourse. Article Three is a case study that documented two first-year university students' experiences in the learning of argument-counterargument integration in persuasive essay writing. Learning the criteria instruction for argumentation and participating in collaborative reasoning groups helped the case study university students (one) construct arguments using key elements specified in modified TAP, (two) discuss and explore the ill-structured issue with other university students, and (three) acquire information to develop their arguments and counterarguments. The study implies that educators meet with university students independently and recurrently to monitor students' learning since paper analyzing is not enough to comprehend students' knowledge and understanding of argumentation.

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