Journal of Practical Nurse Education and Practice

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Journal of Practical Nurse Education in Practice is supported by the Canadian Association of Practical Nurse Educators (CAPNE).
Editor’s Note

It is my pleasure and honour to introduce the new peer reviewed open access *Journal of Practical Nurse Education and Practice* (JPNEP). The journal will have two issues per year and manuscripts are accepted on a rolling basis. JPNEP provides a space where practical nurse educators, practitioners, students, administrators and other interested stakeholders share ideas that help to improve nursing education, professional practice and ultimately patient care. Evidence-based practice is key to nurse education and professional practice. Most of the evidence supporting professional practice is gathered through research and professional experience. JPNEP’s objective is to publish high quality manuscripts written in ways that make the content accessible to a variety of readers.

Manuscripts submitted to JPNEP undergo a double-blind peer review process to ensure the highest quality. JPNEP is intended for educators and health care professionals, as well as students and a non-academic audience. While accessible, all published articles are academically rigorous. JPNEP accepts manuscripts of any length addressing original research, original perspectives, knowledge synthesis studies, case studies, policy analysis, book/thesis reviews or responses to articles previously published. JPNEP can incorporate interactive media (audio, video, and links) into published works. Authors are responsible to ensure that all media are submitted as part of the peer review process.

JPNEP relies on volunteers who dedicate their time to support the journal. My sincere gratitude goes to the editorial board members for all their hard work and dedication toward making this important journal a reality. The editorial board’s diligence has transformed this journal from an abstract thought to a viable high-quality open access peer reviewed journal. The manuscripts are reviewed by a highly qualified team of professionals from various colleges offering practical nurse education. Thank you to our reviewers for all your hard work.

Special appreciation goes to Canadian Association of Practical Nurse Educators (CAPNE) for believing in the journal objectives. CAPNE sponsorship will go a long way in supporting the journal. The generosity of the Curriculum Department at NorQuest College, which sponsored
copy- editing of manuscripts is greatly appreciated. I also want to thank the University of Alberta Library’s for hosting the website, their expert guidance and assistance with the licensing process. Last but not least, I would want to thank NorQuest College’s Faculty of Health and Community Studies dean and associate deans for their support throughout this journey.

In this first issue, we are addressing some important issues in nurse education. Nichole Parker writes about the “Readiness to Learn Self-Care Model for Trauma Survivors”. In learning environments, we often have students who have gone through traumatic experiences. As educators, how do we support such learners and create safe learning environments- Nichole shares some insights on that. In another manuscript, Nichole Parker discusses some best practices for online learning. Her manuscript is timely given the COVID19 pandemic where most learning is online. She reviewed literature that highlights the importance of being emotionally present when teaching online. The third manuscript, Viola Manokore and Doug McRae share their experiences of implementing guerrilla pedagogy in large classes. Guerrilla pedagogy is a cost-effective collaborative approach that can enhance student engagement. We are so pleased to present to you these articles in our first issue and more to come.

To our authors, please keep the manuscripts coming and thank you for your contributions to JPNEP. Your manuscripts contribute to the vision, development, success and sustenance of the JPNEP and we value your submissions. To our readers, we welcome and encourage your engagement. Please feel free to send us comments, issue suggestions, or other feedback.

Thank you for being a part of our vision for a high-quality exchange of ideas!

Sincerely,

Dr. Viola Manokore (Editor-in-chief)
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Dean’s Note

Practical nurse education is undoubtedly an important element for developing the foundations of practice and ensuring professionals possess the competencies that result in quality patient care. As nurse educators, we strive to improve health outcomes through education, implementing current knowledge and practice, and exploring ways to improve students’ experiences and enhance their learning. Despite the importance of practical nurse education, few scholarly journals provide a forum for the discipline to share and advance practical nurse education. It is with great honor that the Faculty of Health and Community Studies (FHCS) at NorQuest College is providing a home for such an important Journal of Practical Nurse Education and Practice (JPNEP). The launch of JPNEP is an exciting phase in practical nurse education in Canada and it will be an effective resource for educators, students, healthcare professionals and stakeholders. JPNEP will facilitate the advancement of knowledge, stimulating conversations and debate, and providing a venue for sharing and filling gaps in literature.

FHCS is committed to supporting the launch and sustainability of the Journal of Practical Nurse Education and Practice. Although FHCS provides a home to JPNEP, an independent editorial board, consisting of a group of experts in the field, manages the journal. I would like to thank the JPNEP editorial board & reviewers, the Canadian Association of Practical Nurse Educators, University of Alberta Library, NorQuest College’s Curriculum Department and all of the practical nurse educators who worked behind the scenes to ensure a successful launch of this open access, peer reviewed journal. I am looking forward to seeing the growth of this new Journal of Practical Nurse Education and Practice.

Sincerely,

Jennifer Mohr
NorQuest College
A Learning Model on the Readiness to Learn Self-Care for Trauma Survivors

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Abstract

Those who are survivors of trauma may experience ongoing barriers to independently implementing self-care behaviours. Drawing associations among philosophical, theoretical, and neuroscientific realms, this paper argues that deficits in self-care can have serious negative impacts on an individual’s ability to learn. It contributes to pedagogical epistemology by proposing a trauma-informed andragogical model that focuses on self-care as a means of accessing learning. This model—the Readiness to Learn Self-Care Model for Trauma Survivors—is based on the belief that educators must hone their ethical pedagogical responsibility when working with the diverse needs of the learner population of trauma survivors. Understanding how these survivors learn is vital to facilitating their trauma recovery and empowering them to regain autonomy. The model promotes ethical principles based on self-determination, autonomy, health equity, and social justice to provide accessible, person-centred trauma recovery learning. The Model takes into account the survivor’s readiness to learn at various stages by attending to their ability to perceive and connect with realities of the self, others, world, and learning environment. By supporting a survivor’s progressive implementation of self-care behaviours, educators facilitate the learner’s ability to learn.

Keywords: trauma survivor, self-care, trauma-informed pedagogy, trauma andragogy

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A LEARNING MODEL ON THE READINESS TO LEARN
SELF-CARE FOR TRAUMA SURVIVORS

Violent abuse causing trauma-related impairments for survivors is a global epidemic (Austin & Boyd, 2008). Abuse causing trauma can lead to anxiety, stress, disconnection, distortion of reality, and learning difficulties (Austin & Boyd, 2008). Traumatic events vary, but may include “a personal experience of threatened death, injury, or threat to physical integrity” (Austin & Boyd, 2008, p. 435). Survivors of trauma may lack the motivation to pursue or learn health-promoting and self-care behaviours (Austin & Boyd, 2008). Self-care is “the decisions made and the behaviors practiced by an individual specifically for the preservation of health” (Vollman et al., 2008, p. 9). In such cases, survivors may experience self-care deficits, and may have difficulty learning self-care behaviours.

Educators include healthcare professionals, community leaders, and support group peers. These educators must understand how abuse changes a “survivor’s construction of reality…endangering core beliefs about self, others, and the world” (Austin & Boyd, 2008, p. 432). Additionally, they must both recognize “the positive contribution that emotion and affect make on a learner’s motivation and self-esteem” and understand that “emotions are nonetheless widely recognized as a kind of baggage that impedes effective teaching and learning” (Dirkx, 2008, p. 8). A survivor’s readiness to learn both involves and influences physical, emotional, and cognitive factors, which in turn may influence their motivation to learn (Blais & Hayes, 2016). In the context of adult learners who have experienced trauma (from now on referred to simply as “learners”), these particular challenges require that educators pursue intentional pedagogical critical reflections to understand the andragogy these learners. In other words, to support the success of these learners, educators must intentionally apply trauma-informed, person-centred andragogical models.

Drawing associations among philosophical, theoretical, and neuroscientific realms, this paper argues that deficits in self-care can have serious negative impacts on an individual’s ability to learn. It contributes to pedagogical epistemology by proposing a trauma-informed andragogical model that focuses on self-care as a means of accessing learning. This model—the Readiness to Learn Self-Care Model for Trauma Survivors—is based on the belief that educators must hone their ethical pedagogical responsibility when working with the diverse needs of the learner population of trauma survivors. Understanding how these survivors learn is vital to facilitating their trauma recovery and empowering them to regain autonomy. The Model promotes ethical principles based on self-determination, autonomy, health equity, and social justice to provide accessible, person-centered trauma recovery learning. It also takes into account the survivor’s readiness to learn at various stages by attending to their ability to perceive and connect with realities of the self, others, world, and learning environment. By supporting a survivor’s progressive implementation of self-care behaviours, educators facilitate the learner’s ability to
learn. Consequently, the Model supports trauma recovery through ethical principles such as autonomy and health equity. Its health-promotion strategies advocate for social justice by supporting accessible learning through trauma-informed andragogical considerations for self-care promotion.

ADULT LEARNING FRAMEWORK UNDERPINNINGS

Humanist Approach

A humanist approach requires that educators be attentive to their learners’ emotional and affective needs in order to facilitate their personal growth and development (Melrose et al., 2015). Abraham Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, published in 1943, indicates that an individual’s survival needs (air, water, and food) and psychological safety needs (security and protection) must be fulfilled before their psychological needs for self-esteem, belonging, and self-actualization can be met (as cited in Blais & Hayes, 2016). The hierarchy of needs requires that a learner be an active participant in meeting their personal needs. Therefore, in order for trauma survivors to have the ability and readiness to learn and reach their potential, they must first have their basic survival and psychological safety needs met.

In a humanist approach, barriers to self-determination and learning that survivors of trauma experience lie within the effects of their trauma. For instance, the physiological and physical effects of trauma can be seen in hypervigilant behaviours, chronic pain, and chronic fatigue (BC Provincial Mental Health and Substance Use [BCMHSC], 2013), all of which can have a profound effect on a person’s readiness to learn. Moreover, the extreme stress of trauma creates mental, emotional, and physical distress (BCMHSC, 2013). These can lead to survivors being unable to “identify and satisfy their own needs” (Kruczek & Smith, 2001, p. 21), inhibiting their movement up the hierarchy of needs.

Constructivism

In the context of trauma-informed education, constructive learning takes into account the way in which a trauma survivor sees themselves, others, and their world, including their learning environment. It assumes that survivors are experts of their own learning and unique ways of being, thinking, and feeling (Blais & Hayes, 2016). “Constructive and holistic approaches to emotion in adult learning represent what we may essentially consider as ways of knowing that challenge historical dominance of reason and scientific ways of knowing” (Dirkx, 2008, p. 15). Constructivism views learners as “builders” who learn by “continually creating mental representations of events and experiences” (Melrose, Park, & Perry, 2013, p. 65). Since learners
construct their own knowledge (Melrose et al., 2013), learning is a unique experience that varies from individual to individual.

**Neuroscience**

A survivor’s ability to learn is influenced by many neuroscientific external and internal processes. Bloom’s (1956) learning theory identified three areas or domains of learning: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor (as cited in Blais & Hayes, 2016). These domains are challenging for survivors since trauma presents physical (Cozolino & Sprokay, 2006; Perry, 2006), emotional (Blais & Hayes, 2016; Kerka, 2002; Perry, 2006), and mental (Austin & Boyd, 2008; Blais & Hayes, 2016; Cozolino & Sprokay, 2006; Kerka; 2002; Kossurok, 2018; Perry, 2006; Townsend, 2005) barriers to learning. Neuroscience supports the strong association between emotions and learning cognition (Thomas et al., 2017). Negative emotions act as a barrier to specific brain circuits that are required in learning (Cozolino & Sprokay, 2006).

**Invitational Theory**

William Watson Purkey (1992) used the word invitational to describe the action of offering something valuable. Purkey (1992) explained that within the invitational theory, “everybody and everything adds to, or subtracts from, human existence” (p. 12). As Riner emphasizes, this gives the learner the power to choose to accept or reject the invitation (as cited in Melrose et al., 2013). Despite a learner's response to this invitation, unconditional positive regard on the part of the self-care educator, which reflects a nonjudgmental attitude where “respect is unconditional in that it does not depend on the behavior… to meet certain standards” (Townsend, 2005, p. 71), is vital.

**MODEL OVERVIEW**

The Readiness to Learn Self-Care Model for Trauma Survivors (see Figure 1) is a theoretical framework that identifies three “doors,” each of which can be divided into a series of “steps,” through which a survivor must go to reach an independent level of self-care behaviour. The first two doors represent (1) the learner’s ability to connect with the reality of the self and (2) the learner’s ability to connect with the reality of others and the world. The third door represents (3) the learner’s ability to connect with the reality of independent self-care behaviours and to independently seek them out. Each door, when closed, represents the learner’s inability to see any of the aspects of reality and ability that lie beyond it. This reflects the learner’s progression towards their ability or readiness to learn. A learner’s capacity to learn increases as their ability to connect with and become present within the different realities expands. The staircase towards independent self-care behaviour is constructed within each learner in a unique and personally meaningful way.
Because each of these steps is completed by each learner in their own way, the length of time a learner spend on each step is an individual experience.

**The First Door: The Reality of and Connection With The Self**

Individuals who experience trauma are usually left with a negative perception of self (Au et al., 2017; Kerka, 2002; Kossurok, 2018). This negative perception of self can be transformed through self-compassion and self-kindness exercises, which enable self-connectedness (Au et al., 2017). Self-connecting practices initiate motivating factors which encourage self-care practices (Au et al., 2017). Moreover, “human learning is constituted by both rational and emotional ways of knowing…. [It is therefore vital to have] self-awareness of one’s feelings and emotions” (Dirkx, 2008, p. 14). This type of self-awareness is called emotional intelligence: the “holistic understanding of the emotional self…in an active process of knowing” (Dirkx, 2008, p. 14).

**Figure 1.** Readiness to learn self-care model for trauma survivors.
Encouraging Readiness to Learn and Connection with the Self

An evolving educational epistemology requires a developing foundation of andragogical and pedagogical perspectives as they relate to all learners, including those who have experienced trauma. Educators must hone trauma andragogical principles in order to facilitate recovery. Moreover, educators can promote survivor self-connectedness by supporting the translation of feelings into words (Townsend, 2005). Trauma-informed educators must develop the ability and awareness into “what one is experiencing internally” (Townsend, 2005, p. 72). Moreover, this skill fosters trust within the therapeutic relationship (Townsend, 2005).

Trauma survivors may experience constant or racing thoughts (Arch, 2018). The ability to calm thought patterns and emotional triggers can be achieved through gratitude journaling, mindfulness, and meditation (Arch, 2018). Mindfulness is “the art of being present to whatever is going on around and inside of you” (Arch, 2018, p. 183). Mindfulness meditation increases one’s level of awareness, attention span, and ability to focus (Arch, 2018). This is important, in an andragogical context, because this calming effect increases one’s readiness to learn (Perry, 2006): the “capacity to internalize new verbal cognitive information depends on having portions of the frontal and related cortical areas activated, which in turn requires a state of attentive calm [that a]…traumatized adult learner has difficulty reaching” (Perry, 2006, p. 25).

Constructivism offers an explanation for this clarity of thought during periods of calmness. Since each person constructs their own perception of reality, it only makes sense that one’s current state of being affects the lens through which they view the world. Abraham Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, discussed previously, offers another explanation: individuals need to feel safe before they can move on to fulfill needs such as self-actualization, which includes learning.

The Second Door: The Reality of and Connection With Others and The World

A survivor’s ability to be present with others dictates their ability to connect with their learning environment. Social reconstruction and trauma recovery groups can facilitate a learner’s ability to be present with others and the world. Social reconstruction emphasizes social support and social learning as the keys to trauma recovery and insists that this recovery cannot occur in isolation (Kossurok, 2018; Sutinen, 2014). A sense of belonging can foster safety and provide a different lens through which to see the world. The respect and acceptance of others within a supportive environment can foster a sense of self-worth (Kossurok, 2018; Townsend, 2005) and alter a learner’s thinking and social reality (Sutinen, 2014). Social reconstruction can deconstruct negative beliefs about the self that were created during trauma reconstruct positive beliefs of self-worth (Kossurok, 2018). Moreover, survivors who attend recovery groups have an increased sense
of self-worth and motivation, which increase the likelihood of seeking self-care activities (Kossurok, 2018).

Facilitating Readiness to Learn and Connection With Others and the World in Social Learning Environments

Social learning adds to and modifies the constructs with which survivors perceive reality, and provides peer role models. Hearing about another’s successes may be a profound experience (Cozolino & Sprokay, 2006, p. 17) that facilitates connections with others (Arch, 2018). Moreover, these narratives in an andragogical context serve as expressions of self-esteem (Cozolino & Sprokay, 2006) and therefore contribute to a learner’s readiness to learn self-care. In other words, sharing a story of the self with others facilitates a “journey from fear to courage, from confusion to clarity, and from crisis to triumph” (Cozolino & Sprokay, 2006, p. 17).

The invitational theory values the “caring act of communication designed to offer something beneficial for conversation” (Melrose et al., 2013, p. 33), such as the invitation to tell one’s personal story of trauma survival. Group collaboration can be further supported through instructor immediacy through demonstrating meaningful interactions that communicate their “availability, friendliness, and willingness to connect in personal ways with [learners]” (Melrose et al., 2013, p. 8). Immediacy is therefore “a sense of psychological closeness [that invites learners to]…risk looking at the world in new ways” (Melrose et al., 2013, p. 8). The invitational theory’s ability to create feelings of safety along with immediacy’s creation of a sense of belonging adds to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Blais & Hayes, 2016).

The Third Door: Reality and Promotion of Independent Self-Care Behaviours

As learners progresses through this last door, they begin to seek independent self-care behaviours and gain the capacity to reach their full potential—that is, to self-determine (Blais & Hayes, 2016). Educators can use instructional scaffolding that encourages independence as a temporary support that gradually withdraws as “learners construct their own ways” (Melrose et al., 2015, p. 7).

MODEL LIMITATIONS AND RESEARCH RECOMMENDATIONS

The Readiness to Learn Self-Care Model for Trauma Survivors requires a basic understanding of trauma andragogy and trauma-informed pedagogy. More education and research regarding trauma-informed pedagogical approaches are required for healthcare providers, educators, and community support leaders. A model that offers knowledge and understanding to
assess learner uniqueness, diverse needs, readiness to learn, and trauma-related motivating factors is critical.

This Model lacks evaluation and therefore is not supported by evidence. Further research is recommended to examine how well the model constructs correlate with one another. Extraneous variables are anticipated to pose a challenge, as readiness to learn is influenced by many other factors such as the exhaustion that follows a traumatic event (Austin & Boyd, 2008). For instance, trauma survivors may be hesitant to take risks and begin new tasks (Kerka, 2002). Additionally, trauma may manifest through missing class or avoiding tests (Kerka, 2002). Due to such unpredictable variables, the model emphasizes the uniqueness of an individual’s personal journey; individuals are not expected to proceed from one door to the next in any specific amount of time. The model is furthermore not proposed as a diagnosing tool but rather as an insightful and adult-learning-orientated guide that encompasses affective and cognitive learning domains towards independent self-care behaviours.

Another challenge to studying the model will be the extra layer of privacy, confidentiality, and safety required with such sensitive and vulnerable topics and situations. Furthermore, fear, shame, and guilt leading to isolation are common among trauma survivors (Au et al., 2017; Austin & Boyd, 2008; BCMHSC, 2013; Kerka, 2002; Kossurok, 2018). Future research studies may, therefore, have sampling challenges.

**CONCLUSION**

The nature of trauma and its effect on learning must influence the teaching strategies of educators who work with trauma survivors. We must “create space within our educational environments where giving voice to emotion-laden issues becomes an integral part of a community of truth” (Dirkx, 2008, p. 16). Educators must hone their ethical pedagogical responsibility in providing care for a unique set of learners while respecting their individualized readiness to learn. Understanding survivor readiness to learn and andragogy allows educators to provide trauma-informed teaching strategies that make learning accessible to all. This model is an ethical care model, in that it promotes self-determination, autonomy, and health equity. It’s health promotion strategies are social-justice-oriented, as they support accessible learning through trauma-informed andragogical considerations of the promotion of self-care. This model has the potential to contribute considerably to pedagogical epistemology in its articulation of analogical trauma-related principles through philosophical, theoretical, and neuroscientific lenses. This contribution will hopefully add to the momentum of evolving best pedagogical practices that promote health in vulnerable populations such as trauma survivors.
REFERENCES


Best Pedagogical Practices for Online Instructor Emotional Presence

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Abstract

Online education is challenged within pedagogical, technological, and andragogical realms. Many online students feel isolated and disconnected, which negatively affects their learning experience online. Educational frameworks support learner perception as a vital element in the experience of learning. Learner emotion, motivation, attitude, and ability to learn are influenced by instructor ability to connect and convey emotional presence. An online educator can use emotional presence in online learning environments to decrease learner isolation and the perceived student-instructor distance and proximity. This exploratory literature identifies practices that enhance online instructor pedagogy in online learning environments. Theme curation was implemented to critically analyze, interpret, and reorganize existing information. This analytic evaluation of emotional presence yielded practical insights, strategies, and measurement tools into the various aspects of emotional presence. The analytical article findings allowed for the creation of the Best Pedagogical Practices for Emotional Presence Assessment Tool (BPP-EPAT), a guide for online instructors that that supports best pedagogical practices as they relate to emotional presence. The BPP-EPAT supports the momentum of educational epistemology and the evolving 21st-century learner, and can be used to support the development of nursing educator knowledge around evidence-based online teaching practices.

Keywords: emotional presence, online pedagogy, best pedagogical practice, online instructor assessment, online learning, humanizing online learning, online andragogy

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BEST PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICES FOR ONLINE INSTRUCTOR EMOTIONAL PRESENCE

Online learner isolation is a challenge within online education. Online learners have described feeling forgotten about, disconnected from peers, and as though they “are just typing into cyberspace” (Rush, 2015, p. 22). Instructor emotional presence significantly influences the general online learner experience (Cleveland-Innes & Garrison, 2010). It can create connections between students and instructors and therefore prevent learner isolation (Rush, 2015). Emotional presence is the “outward expression of emotion, affect, and feeling by individuals and among individuals in a community of inquiry, as they relate to and interact with the learning technology, course content, students, and the instructor” (Cleveland-Innes & Campbell, 2012, p. 283). Since an online learner’s attitude, emotion, and ability to learn are influenced through asynchronous and synchronous instructor communications (Koballa, 2016), emotional presence best practices must be implemented in online learning communities. Unfortunately, nursing educator knowledge of evidence-based online teaching practices is limited (Burge et al., 2011; Kalb et al., 2015), and this knowledge is not adequately translated into the faculty preparation, training, and professional development (Kalb et al., 2015; Kebritchi et al., 2017; Makani et al., 2016; Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada [SSHRC], 2016). This article’s main objective is to review relevant literature to identify practices that enhance online instructor pedagogical practices in online learning environments. To engage in the scholarship of learning and teaching, this article critically examines emotional presence through its theoretical, neuroscientific, and affective underpinnings. The literature review findings (Appendix A) depict the pedagogical approaches and techno-pedagogical supports related to emotional presence.

Theme curation was implemented during the literature review to critically analyze, interpret, and reorganize existing information in order provide new perspectives and demonstrate how each theme related to emotional presence. The analytical article findings allowed for the development of the Best Pedagogical Practices for Emotional Presence Assessment Tool (BPP-EPAT) (Appendix B). The BPP-EPAT is a guide for online instructors that offers five primary instructor competencies that support best pedagogical practices as they relate to emotional presence, and allows instructors to critically reflect on and self-assess their abilities in each competency.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Methods

A literature review was conducted to explore best pedagogical practices for online instructor emotional presence. A four-stage algorithm was used to identify the most relevant
articles for this literature review. After completing a general search, the algorithm applied an exclusion and screening process that eliminated articles based on the relevance of their titles, abstracts, and body text to key concepts. This process yielded 34 articles. In total, 43 references were used, including the 34 journal articles found using the four-stage algorithm as well as six books, and three websites.

**Foundational Underpinnings**

The foundational underpinnings of this literature review are theoretical as well as related to emotion, neuroscience, and affective learning.

**Theoretical Underpinnings**

Our learning is influenced by the reality of how we feel about and how we perceive our learning environments (Dirkx, 2008). Constructivism describes how online learners collaboratively create and construct social learning experiences (Bates, 2015; Burge et al., 2011; Cleveland-Innes & Garrison, 2010; Dirkx, 2008; Makani et al., 2016; Veletsianos, 2010). Constructivists urge that “meaning is constructed in our minds as we interact with the physical, social, and mental worlds we inhabit, and that we make sense of our experiences by building and adjusting the internal knowledge structures in which we collect and organize our perceptions of and reflections on reality” (Cleveland-Innes & Garrison, 2010, p. 113). Therefore, educators must be attentive to their learners' emotional and affective issues (Melrose et al., 2015).

**Emotion Neuroscience and Learning.** Neuroscience has empirically linked emotion and cognition within the physiology of learning (Thomas et al., 2017). Adult learning environments can evoke positive or negative emotions. Emotionality significantly influences the quality of learning experiences (Dirkx, 2008). Specifically, negative emotions distract from learning (Blais & Hayes, 2016; Cleveland-Innes & Campbell, 2012). Feeling a negative emotion impedes the activation of the affective and cognitive brain circuits, which is required in learning (Cozolino & Sprokay, 2006).

**Affective Learning in Emotional Environments.** Learner emotions are “widely recognized as a kind of baggage that impedes effective teaching and learning” (Dirkx, 2008, p. 8). Online educators must strive to reach learners “on an emotional and attitudinal level” (Melrose et al., 2015, p. 122). Instructors who create positive emotional environments are better suited for meeting a learner's affective learning domain (Baker, 2010; Kirk, 2019; Rogo & Portillo, 2015). Moreover, a positive emotional environment facilitates learning through the expression of care (Green & Batool, 2017). These “emotionalized learning experiences help students enhance their knowledge, change their attitudes and develop their skills” (Green & Batool, 2017, p. 35).
Furthermore, the affective component of an online learner’s environment is the most significantly influential aspect in facilitating the evolution of the cognitive domain and peer relationships (Rogo & Portillo, 2015).

Online instructor engagement “is statistically more central to enhancing academic engagement and in turn affective learning” (Baker, 2010, p. 418). This engagement must reflect an instructor’s ability to motivate and encourage students (Kasilingam et al., 2014). Nurturing the affective domain requires online instructors to engage learners in a way that is received as caring and motivating (Thomas et al., 2017). An online instructor’s ability to reach this domain can be assessed through their demonstrated sharing of experience and knowledge through streamable audio and video files that encourage students (Kasilingam et al., 2014). Although it is difficult to measure affective learning, (Kirk, 2019) learner growth in feelings, emotion, value system, attitude, motivation, and perception may be used to assess it (Kasilingam et al., 2014). Assessment of learner attitude and motivation is particularly important, as they are “the most critically important constructs of the affective domain in science education” (Koballa, 2016, para. 3).

**Transformational Learning.** Transformational learning occurs when new insights, attitudes, and perspectives are adopted (Melrose et al., 2013). Transforming a “genuine change in students’ views of the world is not easy…[T]eachers must provide content and experiences that have the potential to trigger new insights and invite critical reflection” (Melrose et al., 2013, p. 124). Reaching the affective domain through the sharing of ideas, personal and professional values, and critical reflection can facilitate transformational learning (Sharoff, 2019). Attitude changes are measured through self-reports and personal interviews (Koballa, 2016). A learner’s attitude is influenced by the instructor’s personal characteristics and ability to communicate, as well as how the instructor’s communications are received by the learner (Koballa, 2016). When striving for emotional presence, best pedagogical practices for facilitating transformational learning must be implemented.

**Pedagogical Approaches**

**Expressing Emotional Presence.** An online instructor must possess effective communication skills. High-quality, continuous, and ongoing communication between an online instructor and their students is vital in any online learning environment (Burge et al., 2011). Online participants’ affect expression is determined by their “ability to express their personalities…through sharing experiences, beliefs and values, self-revelation, humor, and the use of paralinguistic affective indicators” (Cleveland-Innes & Garrison, 2010, p. 124). Thus, supporting online participant conversations allows “learners to experience social presence and develop a feeling of belonging and psychological closeness, which is crucial to the development of deeper learning” (Makani et al., 2016, p. 9).
**Engagement and Motivation.** Instructor participation and engagement is perceived as caring (Baker, 2010; Haidet et al., 2016; Melrose et al., 2013). An online instructor’s ability to maintain a caring attitude facilitates learner engagement by motivating learners (Thomas et al., 2017). Emotional presence can also be used in instructor feedback to motivate online learners (Cole et al., 2017; Thomas et al., 2017). Instructor immediacy, participation, and engagement are statistically significant predictors of student motivation and learning (Baker, 2010). Moreover, intentional participation supports the human element of an online learning environment (McKenna, 2018) by promoting a sense of community and connection (Makani et al., 2016). Consequently, conversations within social learning milieus develop feelings of trust, belonging, and psychological closeness (Makani et al., 2016).

**Communicating on a Human Level.** Instructors must be able to communicate effectively online on a human level (Kebritchi et al., 2017). This means “establishing a relationship and the ability to connect with students and help them feel a part of the class” (Kebritchi et al., 2017, p. 19). Moreover, instructor immediacy “begins with communicating our own availability, friendliness, and willingness to connect in personal ways with our students” (Melrose et al., 2013, p. 8). Online instructors must be authentic (Green & Batool, 2017; Melrose et al., 2013; Sitzman, 2017) and demonstrate a caring and welcoming attitude (Green & Batool, 2017; Post et al., 2017; Melrose et al., 2013; Thomas et al., 2017). An intentional, optimistic, and friendly communication style facilitates this welcoming and caring atmosphere (Melrose et al., 2013).

Online nursing student perception of instructor caring is linked to timely communication (Leners & Sitzman, 2006; Post et al., 2017; Melrose et al., 2013; Sitzman, 2010; Sitzman & Leners, 2006) that demonstrates reasonable instructor availability and full presence (Catano & Harvey, 2011; Melrose et al., 2013; Sitzman, 2016, as cited in Sitzman, 2017). Online instructor caring communications should reflect flexibility (Melrose et al., 2013; Post et al., 2017; Sitzman, 2016, as cited in Sitzman, 2017) and the acknowledgement of shared humanity (Melrose et al., 2013; Post et al., 2017; Sitzman, 2016, as cited in Sitzman, 2017).

**Offering feedback.** Online instructors can elicit a sense of belonging through immediate feedback (Kebritchi et al., 2017; Makani et al., 2016; Melrose et al., 2013). Feedback must be meaningful (Green & Batool, 2017; Kebritchi et al., 2017; Melrose et al., 2013; Thomas et al., 2017) and frequent (Melrose et al., 2013; Thomas et al., 2017). Ensuring that feedback is personalized and individualized is vital (Melrose et al., 2013; Post et al., 2017; Thomas et al., 2017). Moreover, high-quality feedback expresses affection through an instructor’s ability to affirm student efforts in a positive, genuine, and encouraging manner (Melrose et al., 2013).
**Instructor Characteristics**

Instruction is the most valuable asset to student success in online teaching (Kebritchi et al., 2017). Behaviours associated with instructor caring include empathy (Green & Batool, 2017; Leners & Sitzman, 2006; Sitzman, 2010) and passion (Leners & Sitzman, 2006; Sitzman, 2010). Instructor immediacy and timely assignment returns can enhance a caring online learning environment (Melrose et al., 2013). Maintaining a non-judgmental attitude that demonstrates compassion and loving kindness supports caring in online learning environments (Sitzman & Watson, 2014, as cited in Sitzman, 2017). Attending to the individualized needs of each learner while providing personalized care further increases online nursing student perceptions of instructor caring (Leners & Sitzman, 2006; Melrose et al., 2013; Post et al., 2017; Sitzman, 2010; Sitzman & Leners, 2006). Consequently, efforts that enhance a learner’s self-confidence also enhance this perception of caring (Green & Batool, 2017). Lastly, sharing additional resources that can benefit student health, finances, or learning further expresses online instructor caring (Post et al., 2017; Thomas et al., 2017).

**Online Environment Characteristics**

Online caring is felt through online learning environments that respect learner diversity (Green & Batool, 2017; Melrose et al., 2013; Sitzman, 2017; Thomas et al., 2017) and use inclusive word choices (Melrose et al., 2013), thereby ensuring that all learners feel safe and valued (Kebritchi et al., 2017; Melrose et al., 2013; Sitzman, 2017). Positive messages use inclusive language through “words that convey emotions such as caring, compassion, concern, joy, excitement, or interest” (Melrose et al., 2013, p. 49).

**Strategies to Enhance Emotional Presence**

Effective teachers are transformational leaders who develop a sense of attachment, inspiration, and trust (Catano & Harvey, 2011). The use of videos helps learners perceive the instructor as real by projecting nonverbal cues that demonstrate the instructor’s personality and genuineness (Melrose et al., 2013). This strategy fosters trust and a feeling of connection (Melrose et al., 2013). Online instructors can use emotional presence to express online caring by introducing themselves in a shared video at the beginning of a course. Expressed instructor caring is reflected through formative performance feedback and frequent learner check-ins (Kebritchi et al., 2017; Thomas et al., 2017). These check-ins facilitate student engagement and enhance online communities (Kebritchi et al., 2017; Melrose et al., 2013).
Using Transformative Learning Strategies to Enhance Emotional Presence

Artistic pedagogical technologies (APTs) “are creative arts–based instructional strategies [that are] effective especially in the triad of stimulating interaction…and helping develop community in the online post-secondary classroom” (Janzen et al., 2017, p. 4). APTs have a unique ability to engage learners and facilitate the discovery and creation of new meanings of learned material (Haidet et al., 2016). APTs assist learners in making emotional connections to their learning while enhancing student achievement (Perry & Edwards, 2015, as cited in Melrose et al., 2015). As transformative learning strategies, an APT “touches the humanity of students and calls out to them first as human beings and then as learners” (Melrose et al., 2013, p. 135). Consequently, APTs help online learners seem “real to each other” (Janzen et al., 2017, p. 11) and allow instructors to support the emotional needs of their learners (Melrose et al., 2015).

APT Learning Opportunities. In an online learning environment, APTs “represent a plasticity as a medium to enmesh the APTs, students, teachers, and the learning environment together with technology” (Janzen et al., 2017, p. 13). APTs “include literacy, visual, musical, or drama elements and are distinguished from customary teaching strategies by their emphasis on aesthetics and their heightened connection to creativity” (Perry & Edwards, 2010a, as cited by Janzen et al., 2017, p. 6). Some specific APTs include photovoice, parallel poetry, and conceptual quilting (Janzen et al., 2017). Photovoice assignments ask learners to respond to a critically reflective question using photographs, which are then collectively discussed (Janzen et al., 2017). Parallel poetry “involves a poem written by the teacher and then a poem written by the student which reflects or parallels the teacher's poem” (Janzen et al., 2017, p. 7). Conceptual quilting uses electronic squares that are filled up with class participants’ ideas, then collectively combined to form an electronic quilt (Janzen et al., 2017).

Measuring Pedagogical Approaches

Effective educators can be measured by their interpersonal relationships and attitudes towards students (Tang et al., 2005). Empirically high-quality competencies of effective educators include conscientiousness, creativity, social awareness (Catano & Harvey, 2011), sincerity (Tang et al., 2005), and educator availability (Catano & Harvey, 2011; Melrose et al., 2013). Faculty performance can be measured through online learner perceptions of online caring (Wade & Kasper, 2006). Moreover, the art and science of teaching are affected by the “extent to which an instructor can empathize with students…and the extent to which the instructor can communicate effectively” (Bates, 2015, p. 42).
Techno-Pedagogical Supports

Online learning environments must be student-centered, collaborative, and reflect digitally technical pedagogical approaches (Cleveland-Innes & Garrison, 2010). Education within an online platform can be enhanced by, although not replaced with, technology (Burge et al., 2011). Machines should be viewed as an extension of humanity (Hilli, 2018), therefore decreasing the perceived student-instructor distance and proximity. Thus, emotional presence expresses authentic and caring human attributes and therefore humanizes the online learning experience. Nursing educators must use “informational technologies skillfully to support the teaching-learning process” (Halstead, 2007, p. 18). Moreover, as an educator, it is vital to develop “techno-pedagogical competencies” (SSHRC, 2016, p. 22) that optimize technology-assisted teaching and learning. Furthermore, “to engage in education innovation with no reference to emotion and continue to assume learners are little more than dispassionate thinkers would be to miss a fundamental influence on education” (Cleveland-Innes & Campbell, 2012, p. 270).

Communication Media

Communicating and collaborating in diverse ways through technology supports socioemotional engagement within online learning (Bigatel & Edel-Malizia, 2018). Online instructors should actively communicate with their students in a way that allows them to be aware of the student’s unique emotional presence (Sarsar & Kisla, 2016). Instructors who understand their online learner’s feelings develop stronger connections and more efficient communication (Sarsar & Kisla, 2016). There are a variety of techno-pedagogical communication mediums that facilitate and support online instructor ability to hone emotional presence.

Asynchronous communication media. Asynchronous discussion board participation is an issue in online education (Romero-Hall & Vicentini, 2017). Educators can use asynchronous discussions to “invite students to share personal experiences and beliefs; when they encourage linking such personal knowledge to course concepts, they are particularly effective from a social constructivist point of view” (Cleveland-Innes & Garrison, 2010, p. 116). Visual or verbal pedagogical strategies (i.e., audio and/or video messaging) will increase instructor proximity in online learning environments (Dryer et al., 2018). These audio and video messages further project instructor immediacy (Melrose et al., 2013).

Asynchronous communication medias available to educators include text, audio, and video formats (Romero-Hall & Vicentini, 2017) including discussion forums, email (Burge et al., 2011), social media (Hilli, 2018; Makani et al., 2016), and Blackboard (Romero-Hall & Vicentini, 2017; Thomas et al., 2017). VoiceThread is another type of asynchronous media tool (Fox, 2017; Mckenna, 2018; Romero-Hall & Vicentini, 2017; Thomas et al., 2017). Asynchronous
communication can be used to enhance the communication of emotion through technology, including audio and video components (Fox, 2017). Emotional feedback motivates students and can be constructed in online text formats by using emoticons, font effects, and color (Sarsar, 2017).

**Synchronous communication media.** Incorporating synchronous interactive spaces in online learning facilitates communication and relationship development (Thomas et al., 2017). Synchronous audio and video communication media promote community building, participation, and engagement, which translate into a sense of connection and belonging (Kebritchi et al., 2017; Mckenna, 2018; Thomas et al., 2017). Synchronous communication medias available to educators include telephone calls, Google Docs, Facetime conversations, Skype, Zoom, and virtual learning environments.

**DISCUSSION**

The analytical article findings allowed for the development of a Best Pedagogical Practices for Emotional Presence Assessment Tool (BPP-EPAT; Appendix B). The BPP-EPAT is a guide to five primary competencies that instructors can use to support best pedagogical practices as they relate to emotional presence. The BPP-EPAT connects reflective questions to each competency. These reflective questions relate to strategies that instructors can use to meet each competency. The questions also allow instructors to critically reflect on and assess their use of best pedagogical practices as they relate to emotional presence.

Instructor emotional presence is a complex topic that depicts current pedagogical trends, philosophies, and challenges that online education faces. Emotional presence connects individuals through technology. It has been empirically established that emotional presence—the expression of authentic and caring human attributes—plays a vital role in online learning by humanizing the online learning experience. Therefore, techno-pedagogical applications of emotional presence are essential. Moreover, since a learner’s attitude, emotion, and ability to learn are influenced through asynchronous and synchronous instructor communications (Koballa, 2016), emotional presence best practices must be implemented in online learning communities. As an innovative assessment tool and guide for online instructors, the BPP-EPAT supports the momentum of educational epistemology and the evolving twenty-first-century learner. This analytic evaluation of emotional presence yielded practical insights and strategies that were used to create the BPP-EPAT: a measurement tool for assessing various aspects of emotional presence in online instructors. Moreover, educators who embrace this “scholarly endeavor, will be the profession’s leaders in building a science of nursing education” (Halstead, 2007, p. 13).
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Study Limitations

Existent research gaps in discussing emotional presence and its relation to affective learning, emotional environments, and APT use presented a limitation of available current literature to analyze. Another limitation of this analytic article is that the innovative BPP-EPAT guide (Appendix B) based on the results of this literature review lacks any evaluation; therefore, it is recommended that this tool be measured for soundness.

The BPP-EPAT has its own limitations. The limited availability of assessment tools designed to measure best pedagogical practices related to emotional presence presented challenges in developing the BPP-EPAT. In view of this limitation, the implementation of critical reflection and reasoning throughout the literature review process offered valuable insights into the analysis of emotional presence in related areas. The ability to form connections within theme curations and the reorganization of existing knowledge strengthened this article.

Role of Emotional Presence in Affective Learning

Learners “may experience affective roadblocks to learning that can neither be recognized nor solved when using a purely cognitive approach” (Kirk, 2019, para. 9). Unfortunately, affective learning is overlooked in research (Kirk, 2019; Koballa, 2016). Therefore, more research on the ability of emotional presence in supporting affective learning is needed.

Potential Impact of Emotional Presence in APTs

APTs add to translational, aesthetic, and affective knowledge with enhanced self-awareness and deeper understanding of material (Haidet et al., 2016). APTs have a unique effect on the emotions and affective learning of health care students (Haidet et al., 2016). This “role of emotions was particularly emphasized as an important component when working with medical students, who are often taught that illness is a problem to be solved through objective means, denying the emotional experience of professional practice” (Haidet et al., 2016, p. 325). Since nursing education includes affective as well as cognitive learning outcomes, APTs could be applied to nursing students. Overall, more research on how emotional presence can support APTs to support the holistic health and resilience of medical students is recommended.

REFERENCES


APPENDIX A

Literature Search Methods

The initial step of the literature review was to identify research articles that focused on emotional presence. The electronic databases used in the search were Google Scholar, ProQuest Education, Wiley Online Library, Computers and Education, ScienceDirect, AU Library, EBSCOhost, ERIC, Educational Full Text, AU Press Athabasca University, Online Learning, and Education Research Complete. Outside of these databases, two specific journals were referenced: International Journal of E-Learning and Distance Education. Keywords used in the search were:

emotional presence, emotional education, caring online, online caring, Sitzman, emotional presence AND online, emotional education AND online, humanizing AND online AND learning OR education, online AND learning, distance education, engagement AND online learning, online OR distance AND learning OR education, digital OR distance OR online AND higher education, digital AND learning OR education OR learner OR teach, humanizing AND learn OR teach, online OR distance OR digital AND learn OR teach, teaching AND higher education, pedagogy AND online AND learning, theory OR framework AND digital OR online AND learn OR learning, engage OR humanize AND university AND digital OR online OR distance, evaluate AND online OR emotional presence, transformative learning, emotional competence, ART and learning OR teaching, emotion OR affect AND learning, emotional diversity, MODEL and online learning community, ONLINE and motivation OR learner OR interaction OR teach, affective AND change OR online OR distance OR emotion, change theory AND emotion

A four-stage algorithm was used to identify the most relevant articles for this literature review. The initial stage of the algorithm gathered full-text articles written in English language, and relevant to the keywords listed above. This stage located 112 articles. In the next stage, 33 articles were excluded because the titles lacked key concepts related to emotional presence. The abstracts of the remaining 79 articles were scanned for additional key concepts. This process resulted in the exclusion of 28 articles. The body text of the remaining 51 articles were screened for their relevance to key concepts that netted 34 articles. The four-stage algorithm used in this literature search process is outlined in Figure 1. In total, 43 references were used in the
literature review. These 43 references include the 34 journal articles identified by the algorithm, as well as six books and three websites.

**Figure 1.** Flow Chart for Inclusion of Literature.

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**APPENDIX B**

**Best Pedagogical Practices for Emotional Presence Assessment Tool (BPP-EPAT)**

**Competency 1: Creating Positive Learning Environments That Are Emotionally Supportive**

1. Does the course content offer affective learning domain outcomes?
2. Is it anticipated that students will achieve new attitudes, values, or perspectives by participating in this course?
3. Are there transformative learning opportunities in this course?
4. Are there emotionally motivating learning activities such as APTs?
5. Does the instructor share stories and experiences related to course content?
6. Does the instructor ensure a safe learning environment through:
   a. Intentionally creating a space where everyone feels safe and valued?
   b. Remaining non-judgmental and ensure that diversity is respected?
   c. Using inclusive and positive word choices?

**Competency 2: Facilitating a Sense of Closeness, Belonging, and Connection Through Building Social Learning Milieux**

1. Does the instructor offer a warm, personable welcome?
2. Is the instructor willing to personally connect with learners by:
   a. Sharing experiences?
   b. Incorporating humor such as comics?
   c. Adopting a friendly asynchronous tone that uses emoticons and font effects such as size and color?
   d. Providing frequent, meaningful feedback that is personalized and individualized and reflects a genuine and encouraging nature?

**Competency 3: Hone Online Instructor Characteristics That Express Intentional Caring Efforts to Support Online Learning**

1. Is the instructor reasonably available to students and does the instructor respond in a timely fashion to assignments, forum posts, emails, and telephone calls?
2. Does the instructor offer their full presence and attention in learner interactions?
3. Does the instructor use digital, audio, and/or visual media to express:
   a. An empathetic, compassionate, and kind demeanor?
   b. A friendly, passionate, and optimistic instructional immediacy?

**Competency 4: Instructor Participation Efforts Reflect Learner Engagement, Encouragement, and Motivation**

1. Does the instructor seek to intentionally and actively increase learner confidence?
2. Does the instructor provide additional or external resources to learners?
3. Does the instructor request formative performance feedback and initiate frequent learner check-ins?

**Competency 5: Communicate Using Techno-pedagogical Communication Media**

1. Is the instructor aware of available techno-pedagogical communication media?
2. Does the instructor have techno-pedagogical competencies?
3. Does the instructor use asynchronous digital, audio, and/or visual communication technologies such as discussion forums, email, social media, Blackboard, or VoiceThread?

4. Does the instructor use these media to develop a welcoming and personal introduction at the beginning of the course?

5. Does the instructor incorporate synchronous interactive spaces in the online learning environment such as live digital, audio, or video conversations through media such as telephone calls, Facetime, WhatsApp, Google Docs, Skype, or Zoom?
Revolutionizing Learning Environments with Guerrilla Pedagogy in Large Classes

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Abstract

Engaging students in large classes can be challenging for educators. In this study, we implemented a guerrilla tactic in an effort to engage our students. Guerilla tactic is a pedagogical approach where one teacher (the “guerrilla”) enters into a colleague’s class that is in session, sits for a while, takes over the teaching for about ten minutes, then leaves the classroom. There is an element of student surprise with guerrilla pedagogy because students are not informed in advance about the guerrilla visit and the host instructor has no prior knowledge on what the visiting guerrilla instructor would talk about. For this study, two practical nursing instructors who teach the same courses (i.e., anatomy and physiology, and pathophysiology) to different sections collaborated as guerrilla instructors. Four sections of students; two from anatomy and physiology and two from pathophysiology participated in the study. Each section had about one hundred students. The

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³ Some of the results reported in this manuscript were presented at the virtual 6th International Conference on Higher Education Advances (HEAd’20) and published in the peer reviewed conference proceedings (Manokore & McRae, 2020).
disruptive guerrilla pedagogy was implemented during the 2019 winter semester. At the end of the semester, students completed a survey about their experiences that had both Likert scale and open-ended questions. The instructors critically reflected on their experiences. Thematic analysis and descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. Overall, students and the instructors had positive experiences with the instructional strategy. In our reflective analysis, we answer Hutchings's (2000) taxonomy of scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) inquiry questions. We found that students appreciated being exposed to two experts who have different instructional strategies. Educators have to trust and respect their peers in ways that allow them to be vulnerable and enhance their practice. The surprise and instructor collaboration brought by guerrilla pedagogy enhanced students’ engagement in large classes.

Keywords: collaboration, disruptive pedagogy, guerrilla pedagogy, students’ experiences, team teaching

REVOLUTIONIZING LEARNING ENVIRONMENTS WITH GUERRILLA PEDAGOGY IN LARGE CLASSES

It is important for educators to create engaging learning environments in order to enhance students’ learning. Issues related to student engagement can be challenging in large classes typical of higher education environments. Consequently, educators who find themselves in large classes often try new ideas that might enhance their professional practice and improve students’ engagement and learning. Learning collaboratively with and from peers is another way for educators to enhance their practice. However, coteaching is not as common in higher education as it is in K–12 (Lock et al., 2018). In higher education, peer collaboration is mainly through research. In this study, we revolutionized our learning environments in an effort to improve student engagement as we implemented an unconventional pedagogical strategy known as guerrilla tactics: a pedagogical strategy in which an instructor visits a colleague’s class while it is in session, temporarily takes over the instruction for about ten minutes, then leaves. This paper explores both students’ and instructors’ experiences with guerrilla pedagogy as we highlight the pros and cons of this revolutionary pedagogical strategy.

Educators often engage in the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) in an effort to find ways of enhancing students’ learning. In addition, educators try different kinds of teaching strategies and reflect on their practice as they identify what works in their own contexts. According to Hutchings (2000), every profession is defined by the kinds of questions practitioners ask; the same is true of the discipline of SoTL. Hutchings’ (2000) taxonomy of SoTL inquiry questions divide questions into the following four main categories:

1. **What works:** These kinds of inquiry questions are related to the concept of evidence-based practice where educators seek evidence with regard to effectiveness of instructional
approaches. In our study, we were interested in whether guerilla pedagogy would enhance students’ engagement in large classes.

2. **What is:** These kinds of questions focus on describing different teaching approaches and not necessarily the effectiveness of the strategies. In this study, we provide a detailed description of what guerrilla pedagogy entails. We describe what guerrilla instructional approach is and share students’ and instructors’ experiences with it.

3. **Visions of the impossible:** These are the questions that focus mainly on goals for teaching and learning. The goals could include both what is already known and what is unknown. In this study, our goal was to find ways of engaging students and making learning interesting and memorable in a large class setting.

4. **Formulating new conceptual framework:** These kinds of questions focus on building theories and frameworks for SoTL. Our current study was not designed to develop or build a theory or framework of teaching or learning. Our instructional strategy was formulated around the framework of a novel idea: the of guerrilla method of teaching.

Collaborative or team teaching is another way of engaging in SoTL. There is no single definition of what this kind of teamwork looks like. As a result, there are many models of team teaching. In some models of collaborative teaching, instructors collaborate on the evaluation of learners (e.g., Yanamandram & Noble, 2006). In other models, instructors collaborate during planning and instruction (e.g., Lock et al., 2018; Yanamandram & Noble, 2006; Zhang & Keim, 1993). When educators plan together, they also agree on content to be taught, materials to be used, and how the content will be delivered and who does what and when. Unlike other forms of collaborative teaching, however, guerrilla pedagogy does not require team planning or agreements on what the other teacher will do. As a result, guerilla instruction is a collaborative strategy that could save on planning time.

Yanamandram and Noble (2006) highlight four elements that are important in team teaching:

1. The first element suggests that in team teaching, the instructors also learn just as much as their students. As pointed out by Gabelnick et al. (1990; cited in Yanamandram & Noble, 2006), the interactions between collaborating instructors strengthen their expertise as lifelong learners and professional practitioners. When the guerilla instructor watches the host instructor interact with students (and, vice versa, when the host watches the guerilla), professional learning also takes place.
2. The second element supports the argument that students are active participants who engage with their peers as well as their collaborating instructors. As active participants, there is a possibility of co-construction on knowledge between instructors and students—a process that helps students to take responsibility of their own learning.

3. The third element alludes to the issues of autonomy and interdependence of the instructors involved in team teaching. Yanamandram and Noble (2006) argue that collaborating instructors should be able to compromise, share power, and be open to learning from their peers.

4. The fourth element is about inspiring both the students and teachers involved in collaborative teaching and learning; both teachers and students can be inspired as they are surprised by the joy of the intellectual activity (Rinn & Weir, 1984, cited in Yanamandram & Noble, 2006). The guerrilla tactic is full of surprises for both students and instructors and that could be inspiring.

According to Weems (2013), guerrilla pedagogy “is a form of engagement that makes use of a wide range of strategies, tactics, and missives toward the aim of reterritorializing both the academy and what counts as knowledge production” (p. 51). There is an element of ownership when it comes to the learning environment. Educators often throw around terms like my class, my students, my lesson, and so on. It is common norm and knowledge that teachers close their doors when teaching, to minimize distractions or for other reasons. This sense of propriety leads us to refer to classrooms, in some cases, as territories. However, institutionalized norms, boundaries of knowledge, and knowledge production should be challenged and questioned in order to create robust learning environments (Spivak, 2012). By entering into a colleague’s classroom, or territory, the guerrilla strategy challenges teaching and learning norms where the class teacher and their students typically occupy the territory.

According to Weems (2013), the attributes of guerrilla pedagogy include “performativity, surprise and responsibility” (p. 52). As professionals, educators have moral, ethical and educational responsibilities to facilitate learning- another critical element of guerrilla pedagogy (Manokore & McRae, 2020; Weems, 2013) and is enhanced by the elements of performativity and surprise. Performativity embraces the idea that teaching is like stage performance in the classroom; participants have “prescribed roles and rituals” (Weem, 2013, p. 54). The term performance is also loaded with expectations and indicators of the quality of the execution, and there are expectations from both students and instructors in a learning environment.

Surprise is another key element of the guerrilla tactics pedagogy. According to Weems (2013), “surprise is a key feature of education because learning must ‘surprise the very subjectivity
Surprises create memorable experiences and could help learners remember what they learned during the surprise. With guerrilla tactics pedagogy, both the entrance of the guerrilla instructor and the unannounced performance surprises students. Not knowing what is coming next creates suspense and surprise for both students and the host instructor. Not knowing when the guerrilla will “attack” also creates a sense of apprehension on the part of the host instructor. The host instructor is further surprised by the guerilla instructor’s the presentation because there is no prior communication about what will be covered.

The main objective of the study was to explore instructors’ and students’ experiences with guerrilla tactics pedagogy. In line with attributes of SoTL, we wanted to explore what works, envision revolutionized learning environments, and formulate feasible ways of implementing guerrilla tactics pedagogy in large classes. This paper reports on the findings of the study.

METHODS

The two collaborating educators involved in this study—who are also the authors of this paper—have been teaching partners for more than eight years. As teaching partners, we often brainstorm how to engage our students in ways that enhance their learning. In this study, we decided to take our collaboration to another level using guerilla tactics instructional strategy. Prior to this study, we had filled in for the other instructor when they we away. In that instance, we planned together and then teach the same class on different days and students’ feedback we received then was phenomenal. That was the time we discovered that student do appreciate our teaching styles and collaboration. In this study, we decided to implement guerilla strategies that would surprise students. We collected students’ feedback on their experiences after the implementation of the study and also critically reflected on our own experiences.

Study Context

The study was carried out at a community college in the department of practical nursing. Students enrolled in the two courses (four sections) taught by the two guerrilla collaborators during the winter 2019 semester participated in the study. The two courses were human anatomy and physiology (ANPH), and pathophysiology for healthcare professionals. Each instructor taught one section of each of the two courses. The typical enrolment in each is section was about 100 students.

Ground Rules for Guerrilla Teaching

Anderson and Fierstein (2018) described guerrilla teaching as an unconventional approach that is designed to achieve conventional, powerful learning dynamics. In this study, the guerrilla
was the instructor who visited/attacked their colleague’s (host instructor) class. Figure 1 depicts the steps of the guerrilla tactic instruction approach.

**Figure 1**: Description of Guerrilla Instruction.

![Diagram of Guerrilla Instruction](image)

*Note.* Adapted from Anderson & Fierstein (2018); Manokore & McRae (2020).

As shown in Figure 1, each visit lasted for about 15 minutes: 5 minutes to get acclimatized and understand the flow of the class discussion, and 10 minutes of taking over the instruction. The entrance to class and takeover of the instructions was just as “dramatic” as the exit without announcement. Though the host instructor would know the day the guerrilla instructor may visit because they signalled the days they were open to have a guerrilla “attack,” the host would not know the date or time of the guerrilla instructor’s arrival nor the concepts they would share with the class. Each class was visited four times by the guerrilla instructor throughout the winter 2019 semester.

**Student Participants**

The implementation of the guerrilla tactics teaching style was meant to be a surprise to the students. As a result, students were not aware of the strategy before experiencing the teaching
approach. Practical nursing students enrolled in the courses taught by the collaborating instructors were invited to provide feedback on their experiences with the guerrilla tactics teaching strategy. Students who consented to providing feedback completed an online survey that included a four-point Likert scale survey, yes/no and open-ended questions. The open-ended questions provided qualitative data that became the main sources of evidence to support claims made in this manuscript. A total of 28 students completed the survey and provided feedback. As a result, the main source of the data in this paper is from their open-ended qualitative part of the feedback survey.

Instructor Participants and DEAL Reflection Model

Each collaborating instructor has more than fifteen years of experience as educators in post-secondary settings. During implementation, we also documented our critical reflections on how we felt during the process and our perspectives on how the students responded to the disruption of the guerrilla tactics instruction. According to Brookfield (2017), critical reflection helps to increase awareness of one’s practice from different vantage points as possible. Brookfield argued that, as a result of critical reflections, instructors may also look to peers for mentoring, advice, and feedback. During the implementation of the study, we also had the opportunity to learn different instructional strategies from each other and to reflect on how our students were responding and interacting with the guerrilla instructor in ways that enhance professional practice.

Figure 2: The DEAL Critical Reflection Model.

Note. Adapted from Ash & Clayton (2009).
Ash and Clayton (2009) argue that critical reflection is an evidence-based method of examining practice and identifying gaps with the intent to improve knowledge and practice. The DEAL critical reflection model involves describing, examining, and articulating learning that occurred (Figure 2).

Whether we were the host or the guerilla, we used Ash and Clayton’s DEAL critical reflection model to reflect on and document our experiences before and after each class visit. We only shared with each other the reflections that we were comfortable sharing. During implementation, we also learned from our experiences ways that we could make the next guerrilla attack even better than the previous to ensure that each visit was not a replica of previous visits.

**Data Analysis**

Students who consented to provide feedback completed a questionnaire that had Likert scale, yes/no, and open-ended questions. Descriptive statistics were performed on the Likert scale questions to find the mean response for each question. Thematic analysis was used to identify patterns evident in students’ responses to open-ended questions. We also did thematic analysis on our own experiences and critical reflections to identify common themes and patterns.

The goal of the thematic analysis was to find common themes and interpretations of the data in order to address the study objectives (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Maguire & Belahunt, 2017). In this study, latent thematic analysis was used to try and unpack students’ responses and identify themes that represented the underlining ideas and assumptions from the data. We followed Braun and Clarke’s six-phase framework for thematic analysis. Braun and Clark’s phases, which we also reported in Manokore and McRae (2020), are:

1. **Familiarization with data:** This was done through reading and rereading students’ responses to open-ended questions. We also went through the reflections we shared with one another several times to try and understand the ideas and assumptions underlying our reflection diaries.

2. **Generate initial codes:** Initial codes were generated by identifying what students said and grouping similar responses to identify common patterns. For our reflections, we identified codes based on common, underlining ideas across reflections.

3. **Identifying themes:** Within codes, the underlining ideas and assumptions were identified for both students’ responses and our reflections.

4. **Theme review:** Themes were reviewed and reorganized based on how the underlining ideas were defined.
5. **Define themes:** Following the review, the themes and subthemes were defined and reviewed with supporting evidence from literature.

6. **Write up:** The write up involved making use of the specific student quotes as evidence to support claims made about the themes and subthemes. The themes from our reflections were described in the context of SoTL inquiry questions (Hutchings, 2000).

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

In this section, we start by highlighting students’ experiences and then share our own lessons. Given the amount of data that was collected, we decided to combine the results and discussion sections to minimize the length of this article. Though the number of respondents was not large enough to make any meaningful statistical inferences, open-ended questions provided very rich data that lead to important insights with regard to students’ experiences.

Overall, students had positive experiences with guerrilla pedagogy. Two out of 28 students who responded to the open-ended questions on the survey explained why they did not like the guerrilla teaching strategy. One student felt it was a “show off” and the other said they were used to their instructor and did not like disruption. We took the “show off” comment a compliment. This is because we believe that individuals “show off” what they are good at; as such, the comment could have implied that we were both good in our presentations as guerrillas.

Based on students’ responses, a majority of those who completed the questionnaire paid attention when the guerrilla instructor was teaching—a positive learner behaviour that may enhance learning. In their feedback about their experience of guerrilla pedagogy, some students listed the concepts they learnt from the guerrilla instructor—another piece of evidence that shows that students understood some concepts shared by the guerrilla instructor. Only three respondents said they were not paying attention (Figure 3).

It is important to note that out of the 28 students who responded to the survey, three students indicated that they did not want the guerrilla visits. This was, however, somewhat expected; not every instructional strategy will work for all students. We are cognizant of the idea that different learners have different learning and teaching preferences. In addition, there are some students who do not pay much attention in class regardless of the instructional strategy used. In general, teaching large classes can be challenging; captivating the interest and attention of more than 90% of respondents was a great achievement for us.
In this study, the guerrilla visits were limited to a maximum of four times per course section per semester. Given that this teaching strategy is about surprise as well as different perspectives and instructional approaches, we did not want to overdo the technique because we did not want it to lose its uniqueness. The element of surprise creates memorable experiences. If guerrilla pedagogy is done too many times, it could remove the surprise aspect of the strategy that seems to attract students’ attentions. When asked whether the “guerrilla” instructor should have visited more often, 81% of the students who completed the survey said yes. One student said, “Instructor should stay longer, visuals and explanations with diagrams and flow sheets.” The student’s comment seem to suggest that the guerrilla instructor should have brought instructional and learning materials. This is a suggestion we will consider as we move forward.

Anderson and Fierstein’s (2018) ground rules for guerrilla pedagogy (listed above) include limiting the length of a guerilla visit: “ten minutes is the maximum time limit for the ‘learning attack’ session” (p. 1). Student respondents in this study were split in half when it came to duration of each guerrilla visit: half wanted the guerrilla to have stayed longer than the 10 minutes; the other half indicated that the 10 minutes was enough. The recommended time for guerrilla “attacks” could be related to issues of students’ attention span, which are not a focus of this article. Given the split student preferences for the duration of the guerrilla visit, we argue that the sessions should not be longer than 10 minutes in order to sustain students’ interest and engagement.

One student who did not like the guerilla approach indicated that they did not see value in the approach. The student indicated that when they were enrolling for class, they had chosen a specific teacher for a reason and did not enjoy having another teacher come to their class. The student indicated that they had gotten used to specific instructional strategies and were not very
open to disruption. It is important to note that students have embodied perspectives and narratives of what a learning environment should look like (Weems, 2013), and that, for some students, any disruption to such norms will not be well received. The disruption in this study, however, only took 15 out of 120 minutes of instruction time on a guerilla visit day. In addition, the host instructor always asked if students wanted to go over the same materials covered by the guerrilla again, once the guerilla instructor left. As a result, we argue that it is important to vary instructional strategies in-order to meet the needs of different learners. In addition, the guerrilla strategy also provides learning moments for both instructors by allowing them to simply observe their peer interact with their students.

The themes that emerged from the analysis of students’ responses to open ended questions are shown in Table 1. The main themes are exposure to subject matter experts, disruptive pedagogy, and collaboration (see Manokore & McRae, 2020).

Table 1: Students’ Experiences Themes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main theme</th>
<th>Quotations from students</th>
<th>Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exposure to experts</td>
<td>“I thought it was very inclusive and sometimes different teachers have a way of explaining things that make what we are studying easier. Some have a playful attitude that make it more engaging and fun and its interesting when different teachers work together as we get to hear the perspective of others”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“It is great to have two people who are very smart on the subjects both teaching with their point of view and different teaching techniques”</td>
<td>Different learners have different learning preferences and styles. There is no one instructional strategy that meets the needs of all learners or liked by all students. As pointed out by Lock et al (2018), students get to experience different perspectives from different instructors. Having students acknowledge how guerrilla tactics made the learning more engaging is a testimony to the potential of the strategy. The exposure was for both content and pedagogy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>“I felt it was a great experience, having another instructor teach encouraged me to focus more”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
“Huge knowledge between both instructors. They should teach every course in the program”.

**Disruptive pedagogy**

"The short timing and rapid teaching style are great, as maximum concentration can be observed for a relatively short period of time. This is great for large pieces of information, that are presented in a condensed way”.

“New face, not in your regular routine, it sticks in your mind better. They make you pay attention and it increases your ability to learn”.

“Having both instructors explain concepts together allows for two different perceptions, which I believe helps retention."

“They may have a different way of explaining things that you may find easier to learn from”

“Different teaching style and explanations helped further explain the topics”

Disruptive pedagogies challenge the assumption in education about what traditional classroom look like (Mills, 1997). Disruptions in learning environments do create memorable experiences. As pointed out by Weems (2013), it is important for educator to redefine what counts as knowledge production. A common thread in all students’ responses was the value of having another expert coming in with a disruption that helped them engage more.

**Collaboration**

“I think everything about it was good. It was great collaboration and interesting having two different teaching styles in a same room. I loved it”

Nursing practice is a profession where healthcare workers work collaboratively when taking care of patients. It is therefore
“It is a very collaborative teaching method, and it allows everyone to participate in answering questions and to provide important information”.

“[The guerrillas]… are both excellent teachers therefore it was nice to experience their combined knowledge. It gave the class a nice change of pace and I, personally felt everyone was lethargic before [the guerrilla] came in but became engaged afterwards”.

“I felt it was a great experience, having another instructor teach encouraged me to focus more”.

Exposure to Experts

I felt that this teaching method was helpful. The instructor (guerrilla) went a little more in depth and gave tips on how to remember certain things. (student feedback).

It was evident was that the guerrilla teaching strategy exposes students to pedagogical content knowledge of the guerrilla teacher. In this study, two teachers who are experts in their own rights and have been teaching the same courses for eight years were the guerrilla instructors. The guerrilla experience provided an opportunity for the students to be exposed to the expertise of the guerrilla instructor in addition to their usual instructor. The student quote that begins this section shows how the exposure to an alternate expert was noticed and appreciated. The students experienced the pedagogical content knowledge of the guerrilla instructor. At the same time, the guerrilla pedagogy demonstrated to students how peers could collaborate in ways that helps to achieve a common goal. Role modeling of teamwork is important in professional practice.

As shown in Table 1, students mention the benefits of “combined knowledge” and describe how the element of surprise from the guerrilla instructor injected some energy into the learning environment. The entrance and subsequent takeover by the visiting guerrilla instructor enhanced
student engagement. As educators we often try to find ways to keep our students engaged and focused on the tasks. Based on students’ feedback gathered in this study, we argue that guerrilla tactics pedagogy can be used as a strategy to enhance learner engagement and reenergize the learning environment, especially when covering abstract concepts in large classes. Not only were students energized by the guerrilla entrance on the stage, the student feedback suggests that they were engaged even after the guerrilla left the classroom. The element of surprise brings a breath of fresh energy and enhances students’ engagement as they look forward to what the guerrilla instructor was up to.

According to Dalal (2014), another way of responding to diversity of student learning preferences and styles is by diversifying instructional strategies and expertise. Having the guerrilla instructor take over the class briefly exposes students to a different voice and instructional strategy. Guerrilla teaching strategies provided students with opportunities to learn materials presented in a different way. The following quote from the student shows that student enjoyed the exposure to different teaching styles on the same topic: “They both teach completely different yet complement each other.” Students’ feedback shows that students appreciated different approaches to teaching. Given that different students have different approaches to learning, we argue that guerrilla pedagogy is another way of responding to students’ diverse learning needs. Based on students’ feedback, the guerrilla instructional technique helps students to consider alternative perspectives, which is important to enhancing students’ critical thinking skills.

**Disruptive Pedagogy**

It was great to have new experiences in our 2-hour long classes. They can drag on and become quite boring, to have another teacher come in, I really enjoyed it and paid better attention. (student feedback)

Another main theme that was evident is the concept of disruptive pedagogy. In this study, disruptive pedagogy is defined as instructional strategies that disrupt teaching practices that are generally perceived as the norm (Mills, 1997). Guerrilla tactics pedagogy was disruptive in the sense that the guerrilla instructor surprised the students by entering into the classroom and briefly taking over the instruction. What was disrupted in our study includes students’ learning and norms in the learning environment.

The following quote from a student demonstrates how the disruptive guerrilla tactics pedagogy helped them to remember some concepts: “The short timing and rapid teaching styles are great as maximum concentration can be observed for a relatively short period of time. This is great for large pieces of information that are presented in a condensed way. Having both instructors explain concepts together allows for two different perceptions, which I believe helps retention.”
The student’s feedback also alludes to the idea that educators should be cognizant of students’ concentration span when designing learning activities. Having a disrupting guerrilla instructor temporarily take over the class for 10 to 15 minutes helped learners to pay attention and remembered what the guerrilla presented. Another student mentioned that a guerrilla instructor helped them with tips on remembering certain concepts. Learning concepts and remembering them can be a transformative learning experience for students. Based on students’ feedback, guerrilla pedagogy provided opportunities for transformative learning.

Mills (1997) argues that disruptive pedagogies encourage challenging inherent assumptions about traditional learning environment. Weems (2013) characterize guerrilla pedagogy as “a form of engagement that makes use of a wide range of strategies, tactics, and missives toward the aim of re-territorializing both the academic and what counts as knowledge production” (p. 51). This means that, as educators, it is important to consider what traditionally counts as a typical learning environment and how that can be revolutionized or transformed in ways that enhance student learning. Weems (2013) pointed out that guerrilla pedagogy, reorients students and teachers to the learning environment in ways that are not familiar and disrupts the norm. In this study, a majority of the students liked the disruption of the traditional learning space caused by the entrance of the guerrilla to the stage. A majority of students appreciated different teaching approaches (see Table 1). Feedback from students shows that the disruption of the learning space could yield positive learning outcomes for students. In this study, we argue based on students’ feedback that guerrilla pedagogy disrupts the norm and may lead to transformative learning.

**Collaboration**

The Guerrilla teaching method allows for another perspective on what is being taught. It gives a second explanation on the topic, which can be helpful if the first explanation did not make sense. (student feedback)

Anderson and Fierstein (2018) highlight that teaching tends to occur in isolated “silos,” meaning there is not much collaboration between educators. According to Yanamandram and Noble (2006), elements of team teaching provide students with opportunities to witness how a collaborative team function. Experiencing functionality of teamwork is important in nursing workplaces where interdisciplinary collaboration is the order of the day. Practical nursing is a profession where nurses collaborate with an interdisciplinary team to provide safe patient care. Collaboration is an undoubtedly huge and critical element in healthcare. However, in higher education, instructors often close classroom doors when teaching, and students rarely see the collaboration that takes place behind the scenes.
As shown in Table 1, it was encouraging to have students comment about teacher collaboration and how that relates to their own learning. Teacher collaboration has been documented to be beneficial to the teachers as it provides opportunities for them to learn from each other (Johnson, 2003). In this study, guerrilla tactics pedagogy benefitted both the students and the instructors, who got to learn from each other. One student pointed out that “the instructors work really well together.” It was good that, as instructors, we role-modeled what collaboration can look like in workplaces and we hope that our students learned from the experience.

Guerrilla tactics teaching strategy provided students in this study with examples of collaboration. One student stated, “Just the ability to have the material covered more detailed than our normal instructor” was a great experience for them. As pointed out by Yanamandram and Noble (2006), opportunities to observe faculty members working well provides students with a model for teamwork. The following quotes from students show that students who experience guerrilla pedagogy observed functionality of how faculty can work together in ways that could enhance students’ learning. One student said, “yes, they work great together and positively feed off one another”; another mentioned that “the instructors work really well together.” Students’ feedback is an example of the importance of creating academic communities of practice in ways that foster collaboration and team teaching—a strategy not so common in post-secondary as compared to elementary and secondary education. Consequently, we argue that as guerrilla instructors, we managed to role model teamwork to our students.

Instructors’ Experiences

In this section, we highlight our own reflections as guerilla and host instructors. We also used the four categories—what works, what is, visions of the impossible, and formulating new conceptual frameworks—of Hutchings’s (2000) SoTL taxonomy as an analytic lens to explore our experiences.

What works

According to Hutchings’s (2000) taxonomy, the “what works” questions seek evidence about the effectiveness of approaches. In our study, we did not explore students’ performance as a measure of effectiveness. Rather, we reflected on students’ written experiences, our experiences, and observations as we implemented the strategy. Based on students’ feedback and our reflections, we explored whether guerrilla pedagogy would work in a large class. The following is an example of part of a day-one reflection from one guerrilla instructor. The reflection shows that there was a sense of vulnerability and apprehension felt by the collaborating partners.
Before class visit. Today is my first day to visit my colleague’s class. I am so nervous and I hope all goes well. I also do not like the room where the class is. Will I be able to engage with the learners? Will they understand my accent? Plus, I have a cold and my voice is not that good. My own students usually take more than a class to get used to the way I speak and teach; I hope the students will not walk out on me. 10 minutes might not be enough time to explain any concept. I will give it my best, I hope my teaching partner will not negatively judge my teaching approach.

After class visit. Oh, I am not sure if I should continue with this. I really did not understand why the students gave me a standing ovation when I made my way to the door. Was I that boring such that they wanted me gone? As I walked to the stage to take over, I just made a fool of myself with a dry joke; at least they giggled and gave me some energy to continue. Alterations in the endocrine system is one of my favourite topics and I think I explained it to the best of my ability. Their nonverbal cues gave me some positive energy, the way they were answering questions was also not bad. What can I do differently next time? Now I cannot prepare for my own class until I chat with my colleague about this class. I need my teaching partners’ feedback especially on the standing ovation. We should go for coffee as soon as my colleague gets back and he can give me some feedback on how the class went.

The discussion between the host and guerrilla focused more on students and the ways they engaged with the guerrilla instructor. The host instructor indicated that students were participating in ways that showed they were following the discussion. Though the guerrilla instructor thought the standing ovation was a celebration of departure, the host instructor clarified that the students were happy with the experience and asked the host instructor when the guerrilla was going to visit again. The visits created memorable experiences for students and their asking for more implied that the approach was meeting their learning needs.

Friberg (2018) suggests that the “what works” category can be broken down into three subcategories: problems, opportunities, and wonderment. These subcategories can be used to further understand our and students’ experiences of guerilla tactics pedagogy:

1. **Problems:** The potential problems that can be explored in SoTL include effective use of classroom space, managing learning in large classes and figuring out why certain concepts are difficult for students. In our study, we were keen on engaging students in a large class. Based on feedback from students and our observations of how the lessons went, we believe that guerrilla strategies, if done well, help to engage students. The areas chosen by the guerrilla instructor were, to a certain extent, chosen as areas they felt
strongly about presenting as well as topics that have caused students to struggle in the past.

2. **Opportunities:** These include positive teaching and learning opportunities in different contexts. The opportunities that can be explored in SoTL can be comparing different instructional strategies or analyzing students’ learning. In our study, we were interested in exploring an instructional strategy in order to find out from learners if they liked the approach. As instructors, we found the approach to be another way of engaging students in a large classroom.

3. **Wonderments:** This subcategory is about adding something new to the learning environments. In our study, we implemented an approach that was new to us and wanted to see if it provides learning support for our students. It was evident that the learners appreciated the approach when they asked for more visits. To us, this is evidence that the guerilla approach works.

**What is**

According to Hutching’s (2000) SoTL taxonomy, the “what is” questions describe teaching approaches and how learners learn. The descriptive nature of the guerrilla approach was explained earlier in this manuscript. In this section, we highlight some of important tenants of the guerrilla instructional approached based on our reflections. As already mentioned, instructors can be territorial about teaching. With guerrilla pedagogy, the guerrilla is invited into this territory to take over the instruction. This requires trust.

The following is part of a reflection from a guerrilla instructor showing the importance of trust in a guerilla/host teaching relationship. Collaborating instructors must be able to allow themselves to be vulnerable in each other’s presence in the classroom.

My anxiety and heart rate were elevated. I could not help myself but kept asking the following questions: Am I good enough to have a positive impact on the students? What will my peer think of my knowledge (content and pedagogy) as I take over? Will my colleague give me the feedback I need in order to enhance my practice?

When you walk into a class that is in session, the host might feel that they are being evaluated and same applies when guerrilla instructor takes over. The apprehension and nervousness we had during the implementation was minimized by the collegial and respectful relationship between the collaborating educators. We thus believe that the description of the guerilla strategy given above should be extended to include the importance of trust, respect, and
vulnerability between collaborating instructors that comes with implementing guerrilla “attacks” in classrooms.

**Visions of the Impossible**

Questions on visions of the impossible include the aspects related to goals for teaching and learning (Hutchings, 2000). This is where one explores to see if goals were met. Our goal was to see if this new way of engaging our learners in large classes actually worked. We wanted to create memorable, engaging, and fun experiences for our learners. When we looked at our reflections, our perception of students’ verbal and non-verbal feedback suggest that our goals were met. After the guerrilla exited the class, the host teacher would ask if learners want them to go over the same materials taught by the “attacking guerrilla”; in all instances, students said there was not need to revisit the materials. Rather, they would ask the host instructor when the next visit would be.

We had to vary our entrance styles so that the element of surprise was maintained. For example, instead of walking in when a class was in session, there were instances where we would “sneak” in during their class break or walk in before class started and sit at the back. Subsequent entrances were, however, never again as impactful as the first entrance.

**Formulating New Conceptual Frameworks**

Inquiry questions on formulating new conceptual frameworks are designed to come up with frameworks for SoTL (Hutchings, 2000). Our study was not designed to come up with frameworks for teaching and learning. However, as we reflected on our experiences with guerrilla pedagogy, we noticed that it was important to focus more on students and how they learn. For example, when we were apprehensive, it was not so much about learners but about us as educators. Moreover, regardless of our own apprehension, our learners were appreciative of what we were doing for them. As a result, we believe that educators should think about how learners learn and then design strategies to meet the needs of different learners. Not all learners appreciate all strategies, and learners have different experiences.

As we implemented guerrilla pedagogy, we reflected on the concept of putting students first regardless of how vulnerable we felt. Without building our own theory or framework, we question whether SoTL should be changed to SoLT, thereby putting learners first.
CONCLUSIONS

Overall, guerrilla pedagogy enhanced students’ engagement in the large classes where it was implemented. Based on students’ post implementation survey responses, guerrilla pedagogy had memorable surprises that made them pay more attention. It was evident that students appreciated having two instructors who have different pedagogical techniques collaborate in ways that captured their interests.

Our own experiences as guerilla and host instructors also taught us a lot. Teachers often facilitate learning alone in the classroom. Having another instructor “invade their stage” resulted in feelings of vulnerability for both instructors as there was a sense of being watched and possibly judged by the colleague. That being said, our overall experience was positive and fostered a strong sense of respect and trust between us. Moreover, although we focused more in this study on students’ reactions during and after the guerrilla attack, we also focused and on improving our own teaching practice.

Implications to Practice and Recommendations of Further Research

Instructors who teach large classes often run out of innovative ideas that disrupt the norm and achieve a dynamic learning environment. Guerrilla instructional strategy provides opportunities for teachers to collaborate in unconventional ways where they can also learn from their peers as they observe them teach. Instructors can also learn how their students interact with other instructors and respond to different techniques. In addition, students get exposed to different strategies, experts, perspectives, and the role-modeling of collaboration.

The guerilla instructional strategy has other benefits, too. Many team teaching models involve dedicating time and energy to planning lessons together. With guerrilla pedagogy, instructors do not have to plan lessons together; this saves time. The guerrilla leverages what they already know as they take over the teaching from a colleague. The surprise element helps to energize the students and engages them as they listen to the guerrilla instructor. The guerrilla strategy is enjoyable when implemented by educators who have a good professional relationship, trust each other, and willingness to be vulnerable in front of their peers. Now that we have evidence to support the positive impact of guerrilla tactics pedagogy, we will continue to implement the strategy and possibly invite other peers to participate and implement the strategy in the form of a flash mob. Though improving student engagement is a key factor to enhancing learning, more research needs to be done to explore students’ learning of key concepts when implementing guerrilla pedagogy.
REFERENCES


