Learning Race, Gender, and Intersectionality through Integrative Political Science

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Abstract

Gender, race, and intersectionality are increasingly relevant in our diversifying country. Political science courses centered on these concepts are emerging throughout the United States, but not yet ubiquitous. Integrative political science courses merge lectures, journal articles analysis teams, public policy project teams, and simulations in a single course to facilitate a multi-faceted learning experience with students and between students. Utilizing a Technology-Enabled Active Learning classroom, approximately 90 students enrolled in a race and gender course organize into journal article analysis, public policy project, and simulation teams. How do students benefit from the integration of science, practice, and simulation in learning about race, gender, and intersectionality?

Keywords: race, gender, intersectionality, information literacy, public policy, simulation
Introduction

Unlike the 9/11 generation (Maira 2016) of college-going students who were confronted with questions about international politics and security, the Gen-Z generation (Seemiller and Grace 2016) of college-going students are faced with questions about relations between genders, races, ethnicities, sexualities, and religions at an international, domestic, and individual level.

Gender, race, and intersectionality are increasingly relevant in our diversifying country. Intersectionality “refers to both a normative theoretical argument and an approach to conducting empirical research that emphasizes the interaction of categories of difference (including but not limited to race, gender, class, and sexual orientation)” (see also Cooper 2016; and Crenshaw 1990; Hancock 2007, 63). From a pedagogical perspective, political science courses centered on this concept are emerging, but not yet ubiquitous.

Pedagogical approaches are framed as either passive learning, such as solo-reading and unidirectional lectures, or active learning, such as paired-discussions and team-based simulations (Al-Zahrani 2015; Markant and Gureckis 2014; Michel, Cater, and Varela 2009; Wingfield and Black 2005). The hybrid approach I utilize, which I call integrative political science, merges passive learning and active learning together through readings, lectures, journal article analysis teams, public policy project teams, and a simulation in a single course to facilitate a multi-faceted learning experience with students and between students.

Race, Gender, and Intersectionality in Political Science

Long before the entrance of Gen-Z into higher education, political science created courses on gender (C. Cassese et al. 2015), race (Bauer and Clancy 2018; Silverberg 1994), ethnicity (Taylor 1996), sexuality (Silverberg 1994), and religion (Ebaugh 2002; Eisenstein and Clark 2013). However, in light of today’s increasingly complex and networked individuals, communities, and institutions, calls for a concerted effort to bring these concepts together in the discipline have increased.

In recent years, political scientists have described why it’s important to discuss gender, race and ethnicity. For example, (Deardorff 2013) states: “If the United States and other pluralistic democracies claim that our very strength is found in the sharpening of our individual interpretations against competing ideas to best approximate the truth, how can we replicate this process in our increasingly diverse classrooms?” In asking this question, professors throughout

\footnote{I oscillate between using “race and ethnicity”, “race/ethnicity”, just “race”, or just “ethnicity”. My intention is to be inclusive when using one term versus another term.}
the discipline are being challenged to reexamine the content of their courses, reconsider their pedagogy, and reevaluate their teaching philosophies.

However, classes that singularly focus on gender or race are evolving. The concept of intersectionality is the key force in this evolution. Intersectionality “refers to both a normative theoretical argument and an approach to conducting empirical research that emphasizes the interaction of categories of difference (including but not limited to race, gender, class, and sexual orientation)” (see also Cooper 2016; and Crenshaw 1990; Hancock 2007, 63).

In an effort to mainstream intersectionality in political science, (Dhamoon 2011, 233) describes: “While not unique to one discipline, the study of processes and systems is already featured in political science (e.g., the study of procedures, arrangements and structures of government), but the framework of intersectionality also adds to an understanding of processes and systems because it provides a multidimensional analysis of how power operates and its effects on different levels of political life.” In other words, political scientists who are trained in the traditional subfields are uniquely situated to articulate the dynamics of behaviors, institutions, and power from an intersectionality perspective.

Although situated at this nexus, political scientists have yet to make the leap of incorporating intersectionality. (Rasmussen 2014) writes: “political science has not fully grappled with how to

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2 The traditional subfields include American Politics, Comparative Politics, International Relations, and Political Philosophy.
incorporate the role of identity, diversity, and inequality into its coursework and pedagogy.” A number of obstacles, as described by Rasmussen, include: complexity of intersectionality\(^3\), student resistance, need to be contemporary, and need for critical pedagogy (2014, 109–113). Beyond these general obstacles, there are specific obstacles to adopting an intersectionality framework that need to be overcome: reviewing existing course content, revising lectures and learning activities, updating assessments and rubrics, adopting a new textbook or creating new materials, being prepared to respond to new questions that intersectionality raises, and facilitating challenging conversations between students.

As political scientists incorporate the concept of intersectionality into their courses, there are several benefits that can be accrued. One benefit is that students who are underrepresented or hail from marginalized communities can have outlets to contemplate, observe, discuss, and situate their experiences with the experiences of others (Jones and Wijeyesinghe 2011). Another benefit is that instructors can be more responsive to the changing demographics of their students bodies. In states and regions of the country where demographics are rapidly, relatively speaking, changing, students from underrepresented and marginalized communities can feel like their experience is acknowledged and voice heard (Ramirez and Jimenez-Silva 2015). Another benefit is that students of these courses can eventually offer their own contributions to the growing field of intersectionality studies (Cho, Crenshaw, and McCall 2013; Naples 2009).

**Integrative Political Science**

Integrative political science is a pedagogical approach that merges passive learning, in the form of traditional lectures and independent reading, and active learning, in the form of journal article analysis teams, public policy project teams, and simulations together in a single course to facilitate a multi-faceted learning experience with students and between students. The concept of integrative political science builds on work related to lecturing (Brown and Tomlinson 1979; Mowbray and Perry 2015; Wunische 2019), journal article analysis (Franco 2019; Verkade and Lim 2016), public policy (Franco 2019; Rinfret and Pautz 2015; Wukich and Siciliano 2014), and simulations (Asal and Blake 2006; Levin-Banchik 2018; Perry and Robichaud 2019).

\(^3\) See (Naples 2009) for a robust discussion on the complexity of teaching intersectionality
Research on political science education overlooks how to integrate the science, the practice, and the simulation of politics. Most research focuses on just one facet, such as how can students learn scientific skills within a course (largely quantitative data analysis, overlooking the more mundane task of analyzing journal articles); or how can students practice in the real-world what they learn in the classroom (largely how to participation in the electoral or policy making process or civic engagement); or how can instructors facilitate engaging simulations of political processes and institutions (largely trying to see if students are really learning from the simulated experience). Therefore, the rationale of the study is to demonstrate the efficacy of integrating these parts together in a single course.

**Journal article analysis teams**

Journal article analysis is the ability to identify the major components of a peer-reviewed journal article. The major components of an article include the title, main point, question, puzzle, debate, theory, hypotheses, research design, empirical analysis, policy implications, contribution to the discipline, and future research. These components follow the what is conventionally known as the scientific method. This knowledge, skill, and ability to analyze journal articles is a fundamental for college-level students, especially graduate level students.
Public policy project teams

Public policy is the constitutional, legal, judicial, regulatory, or policy documents that are produced by governmental institutions at the international, national, and subnational levels. Public policies include amendments to a federal or state constitution; federal, state or local laws passed by legislative bodies and approved by executives; federal and state judicial rulings; regulations promulgated by federal, state or local governments; and policies adopted by federal, state, or local institutions, boards, commissions, or related entities. Public Policy Project Teams are groups of students who identify a public problem to focus on. Teams are responsible for identifying the causes, effects, and solutions to the identified public problem. Each student assumes one of four analyst roles: Data Analyst, Geographic Information Systems Analyst, Policy Analyst, or Communications Analyst. These analysts work together to produce a presentation that is orally presented before their peers.

Simulation

Simulation is a representation of reality. Simulations are a staple in political science pedagogy (Asal and Blake 2006; Baranowski and Weir 2015; Kalaf-Hughes and Mills 2016; Levin-Banchik 2018; Rinfret and Pautz 2015; Williams and Chergosky 2019; Wunische 2019). This paper builds on the work of (Franco 2019) by adding a simulation to a course. As I describe later, the simulation focuses on the U.S. Supreme Court and cases related to gender and/or race/ethnicity.

Process for designing a course on Race, Gender and Politics

Courses focused on gender and politics or race and politics are common. However, courses that combine race, gender, and politics are less common. In structuring the course, I took into consideration the catalog description, how prior faculty taught the course, and how I wanted to structure the course.

The catalog entry for the course included the title “Race, Gender, and Politics” and the following description: “Contemporary and historical identity politics in the U.S., with a focus on the importance of race and gender in political representation, attitude formation, and civil rights.” At first glance, the course title and description are seemingly straightforward. However, after a second reading, the description starts with identity politics, not necessarily race and gender. This re-reading could have been restrictive, but I viewed race and gender as central to the course, not necessarily the concept of identity politics.
As the third instructor to teach the course at the university, I sought out how my predecessors structured their courses. My peers organized the course in two parts: the first half focused on gender and the second half focused on race. My initial reaction was to follow suit. However, I felt dichotomizing the course in such a manner overlooked complexities so I subsequently began to search for university-level syllabi on race, gender, and politics courses. Interestingly, almost all syllabi were either for race and ethnic politics, gender politics, or women’s politics. I was taken back by the lack of political science syllabi for courses that encompassed both gender and race in a single course.

Given this dearth, I reached out and I met with a professor in the university’s Critical Race and Ethnic Studies program and corresponded with a professor in the Sociology program seeking their advice. In both conversations, they shared and explained the concept of intersectionality. From there, I searched for academic literature and found (Rasmussen 2014) in summer 2018. This article was essential for me to begin structuring my course with an intersectionality framework. The article offered an overview of intersectionality, a description for incorporating intersectionality into a political science course, and advice for overcoming obstacles in implementing such a course. With Rasmussen (2014) in mind, instead of structuring the course in two halves, like my predecessors, I decided to intertwine gender and race by alternating weeks between the two courses (see Appendix ###. Course Schedule by Week). The course has two required books: Women, Power, and Politics: The Fight for Gender Equality in the United States by (Han and Heldman 2017) and Uneven Roads: An Introduction to U.S. Racial and Ethnic Politics by (Shaw et al. 2018).

Han and Heldman’s book contains twelve chapters. Chapters 2 through 4 focus on women’s rights movement in the United States, the multitudes of feminism, and gender representations in popular culture. The next five chapters focus on women as political participants, political candidates, legislators, executive leaders, and members of the judiciary. The last three chapters focus on specific public policy issues (i.e. economic rights, reproductive rights, and gendered violence).

As for Shaw et al., it contains thirteen chapters. Chapters 2 through 6 shares the history of specific racial/ethnic groups: Native Americans, African Americans, Latinos, Asian Americans, and Whites. Chapters 8 and 13 discuss group identity and intersectionality, respectively. The remaining chapters focused on public policy (i.e. education, criminal justice, immigration, and foreign affairs). Together, these books formed the basis for in-class lectures, weekly formative quizzes, and a portion of questions on a summative final exam.

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4 If you are interested in utilizing an intersectionality framework for your course, I highly recommended reading (Rasmussen 2014).
5 See https://global.oup.com/academic/product/women-power-and-politics-9780190620240?cc=us&lang=en&
6 See https://www.sagepub.com/hil/nam/uneven-roads/book251946
In addition to these two textbooks, twenty-four peer-reviewed journal articles were assigned (see Appendix ###. List of Peer-Reviewed Journal Articles) that were utilized by students in their journal article analysis (JAA) teams.

**Research design and empirical analysis**

I taught my course on Race, Gender, and Politics during fall 2018 at a small, 4-year, public research university located on the west coast. I conducted an IRB-approved study with the following objectives: 1) determine the practicability of integrating the science, the practice, and the simulation of politics in a single course from the instructor's perspective; 2) determine the efficacy of integrating the science, the practice, and the simulation of politics in a single course on a) student's performance on assignments and b) student's achievement of course learning outcomes.

The research design I employed was a within subjects, pre-test, post-test (Shadish, Cook, and Campbell 2001; Trochim and Donnelly 2005). The pre-tests consisted of before-class surveys and the post-tests included after-class surveys that assessed a student's knowledge, skills, and abilities related to journal article analysis, public policy projects, and simulations.

Eighty-six students enrolled in the course. Table ### shows the race/ethnicity and gender of sixty-six students who completed the Demographics Survey at the beginning of the course. First, we observe that students who identify as female account for 63.6%. Next, students who identify as Latino account for 72.7%. Latinas are the largest groups in the course, accounting for 46.9%. There were no students who identified as Black/African American and male of those completing the survey.

| Race/Ethnicity          | Female | Male | Total |
|-------------------------|--------|------|-------|
| Asian                   | 3      | 4    | 7     |
| Black or African American| 3      | 0    | 3     |
| Latino                  | 31     | 17   | 48    |
| Other                   | 3      | 0    | 3     |

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7 Institutional Review Board, Protocol ID: 2018-133
8 Response rate for the Demographics Survey was 76.7%
Journal Article Analysis Pre-Test and Post-Test

The Journal Article Analysis Pre-Test and Post-Test consists of a battery of five questions. The five questions asked the student four multiple choice questions and one matching question. See Appendix ###: Journal Article Analysis Pre/Post Test Questions for the complete battery of questions. Question 4 asks: “How would you rate your ability to analyze political science scholarly journal articles on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?” I expect students to answer low before the course and high after the course. Therefore, my hypothesis is:

H#: Students’ ability to analyze political science scholarly journal articles will increase by the completion of the course.

The Journal Article Analysis Teams accounted for 20% of the students overall grade. Students were randomly assigned to a team. Each team was assigned and required to analyze two journal articles from the list of twenty-four articles (See Appendix ### List of Peer-Reviewed Journal Articles). The first article analysis consisted of a PowerPoint presentation that was uploaded to the course learning management system (LMS). The second article analysis also consisted of a PowerPoint presentation, but in addition to being uploaded to the course LMS, it was also orally presented in class.

Figure 9 is a kernel density plot which shows that most students rated themselves 3 or higher before the course, while we see that most students rated themselves 4 or higher after the course. Additionally, with a sample of 29 students the results of a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test allow me to reject the null hypothesis that the course does not affect students’ ability to analyze journal articles (z=3.372240027, p=0.000).
Recognizing that self-ratings are subjective (Boud and Falchikov 1989), how can be objectively measure students’ ability to analyze journal articles? In both surveys, I asked students to match components of a journal article with their correct definition (See Question 5 in Appendix ###: Journal Article Analysis Pre/Post Test Questions). Question 5 is independent of a specific journal article, so the intention of this question is not to ask about a specific article that was analyzed. Table ### shows detailed results for Question 5 before and after the course. The number of respondents in the pre-test is 66 while the number of respondents in the post-test is 33. I expect to see a positive percent change of correct responses from before to after. Overall, students show a positive percent change in correct responses for only two of the ten terms: Research Design and Empirical Analysis.

| Question                  | Before | After | Δ% |
|---------------------------|--------|-------|----|
| Title                     | 0      | 0     | 9% |
|                           | 6      | 6     | 18%| 9% |
|                           | 1      | 60    | 91%| 1 | 27 | 82%| -9%|
| Main Point and Question    | 0      | 1    | 26%| 0 | 13 | 39%| 14%|
|                           | 1      | 49    | 74%| 1 | 20 | 61%| -14%|
| Category                        | 0 | 21 | 32% | 0 | 11 | 33% | 2% |
|--------------------------------|---|----|-----|---|----|-----|----|
| Puzzle                         | 1 | 45 | 68% | 1 | 22 | 67% | -2%|
| Debate                         | 0 | 18 | 27% | 0 | 13 | 39% | 12%|
| Theory                         | 1 | 48 | 73% | 1 | 20 | 61% | -12%|
| Hypotheses                     | 0 | 34 | 52% | 0 | 17 | 52% | 0% |
|                               | 1 | 32 | 48% | 1 | 16 | 48% | 0% |
| Research Design                | 0 | 44 | 67% | 0 | 20 | 61% | -6%|
|                               | 1 | 22 | 33% | 1 | 13 | 39% | 6% |
| Empirical Analysis             | 0 | 41 | 62% | 0 | 19 | 58% | -5%|
|                               | 1 | 25 | 38% | 1 | 14 | 42% | 5% |
| Policy Implications            | 0 | 31 | 47% | 0 | 18 | 55% | 8% |
|                               | 1 | 35 | 53% | 1 | 15 | 45% | -8%|
| Contribution and Future Research | 0 | 32 | 48% | 0 | 18 | 55% | 6% |
|                               | 1 | 34 | 52% | 1 | 15 | 45% | -6%|
| n=66                           |   |    |     |   |    |     |    |
| n=33                           |   |    |     |   |    |     |    |
Public Policy Project Pre-Test and Post-Test

The Public Policy Project Pre-Test and Post-Test consists of a battery of ten questions. The ten questions asked the student to rate their interest and knowledge in a particular element of the project from low or high. See Appendix ###. Public Policy Project Pre/Post Test Questions for the complete battery of questions. In this section, I will contrast the responses from the pre-test to the post-test and offer results from a Wilcoxon signed rank test.

Questions one and two asked about interest and knowledge of public policy. Specifically, students were asked at the beginning of class: “How would you rate your interest in public policy on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?” and “How would you rate your knowledge of public policy on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?” The left panel of Figure ### shows that interest between before and after the course are not visually different. Before the course, students rated their knowledge 3 or less. However, after the course, students rated themselves 3 or 4. The results of a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test do not allow me to reject the null hypothesis that the course does not affect students’ interest (N=43, z=0.178, p=0.858) however the course appears to have an affect on students’ knowledge (N=43, z=3.753, p=0.000).
The next two questions asked students to rate their interest and knowledge in data analysis before and after the course. The left panel of Figure ### show similar densities before and after the course when it comes to interest. On the right panel, we see that about three-quarters of students rated themselves with a three or less, but after the course reduced to about 65% of students. The results of a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test do not allow me to reject the null hypothesis that the course does not affect students’ interest (N=43, z=1.766, p=0.077) and knowledge (N=41, z=0.854, p=0.392).

Questions five and six asked students to rate their interest and knowledge on geographic information systems (GIS) analysis. Figure ###’s left panel show similar densities before and after the course when it comes to interest. However, with respect to knowledge, before the course more than 90% of students rated their knowledge a 3 or less. Interesting, after the course, about 20% of students rated their knowledge a 4 or higher. The results of a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test do not allow me to reject the null hypothesis that the course does not affect
students’ interest (N=42, z=0.268, p=0.788). But, when it comes to knowledge, there is statistical evidence to suggest that the course positively influenced students knowledge (N=43, z=3.216, p=0.001).

Questions seven and eight asked about students interest and knowledge of policy analysis. The kernel density plot on the left panel (interest) and right panel (knowledge) of Figure ### shows an increased left skew, suggesting that the course increased students interest and knowledge. The results of a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test do not allow me to reject the null hypothesis that the course does not affect students’ interest (N=42, z=0.431, p=0.666), but we can reject the null with respect to knowledge (N=43, z=2.555, p=0.010).

The last two questions asked students about their interest and knowledge of communications analysis. On the right panel of Figure ###, there is a notable bump in the percent of students who rated themselves a 5 in interest. As for the knowledge panel, there is a clear shift between before
and after the course, visually suggesting that the course had an effect on students knowledge of communications analysis. The results of a Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed-ranks test do not allow me to reject the null hypothesis that the course does not affect students’ interest (N=43, z=1.179, p=0.238). I can reject the null hypothesis that the course does not affect students’ knowledge (N=43, z=4.075, p=0.000).

Table ###. Summary of results of Wilcoxon signed rank tests for Public Policy Pre/Post Tests

| Q | N | z-statistic | p-value | Stat. Sig. @ 95% | Description |
|---|---|-------------|---------|-----------------|-------------|
| 1 | 43 | 0.178024/645 | 0.858703/621 | No | Interest in Public Policy |
| 2 | 43 | 3.753979/379 | 0.000174/049 | Yes | Knowledge of Public Policy |
| 3 | 43 | -1.76656/5969 | 0.077300/944 | No | Interest in Data Analysis |
| 4 | 41 | 0.854538/906 | 0.392806/462 | No | Knowledge of being a Data Analyst |
| 5 | 42 | 0.268591/396 | 0.788244/134 | No | Interest in GIS Analysis |
| 6 | 43 | 3.216689/447 | 0.001296/789 | Yes | Knowledge of being a GIS Analyst |
| 7 | 42 | 0.431448/663 | 0.666142/173 | No | Interest in Policy Analysis |
| 8 | 43 | 2.555087/862 | 0.010616/1 | Yes | Knowledge of being a Policy Analyst |
| 9 | 43 | 1.179446/624 | 0.238220/379 | No | Interest in Communications Analysis |
| 10 | 43 | 4.075948/202 | 4.58272/E-05 | Yes | Knowledge of being a Communications Analyst |
Simulation Post-Test only

The Simulation Post-Test only consists of a battery of ten questions. The first four questions asked the student to rate how the simulation affected their learning of knowledge, theories, concepts, processes related to the course, respectively. Question 5 asked the student to rate how the simulation affected their learning of the Supreme Court. Question 6 asked the student to rate how the simulation enhanced their analytical and critical thinking skills, while Question 7 asked how enjoyable the simulation was. Question 8 asked the student to compare the simulation to other simulations they have participated in at the university. Question 9 asked if the student would recommend the simulation in future classes. Lastly, Question 10 asked if the simulation increased or decreased the student’s interest in professionally working in the Supreme Court.

1. Overall, on a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did the simulation enhance your knowledge of [course title/subject]?

2. On a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did the simulation enhance your learning about [course title/subject] theories beyond lectures, readings, and class discussions?
3. On a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did the simulation enhance your learning about [course title/subject] concepts beyond lectures, readings, and class discussions?

4. On a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did the simulation enhance your learning about [course title/subject] and their processes beyond lectures, readings, and class discussions?
5. On a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did the simulation (and its research requirement) enhance your learning about your assigned [individual or organization]?

6. On a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did the simulation enhance/develop your analytical and critical thinking skills (i.e. problem solving skills, negotiation skills, creativity, etc.)?

7. On a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did you enjoy the simulation activity?
8. Rate the simulation exercise compared to other exercises in your college tenure on a scale from 1 to 5 (where 1 represents the worst college course learning exercise you have performed at Institution X (thus far) and 5 represents the best college course learning exercise you have performed at Institution X (thus far).

9. Do you recommend using the simulation as a teaching tool in future classes?
   a. No, I recommend against the use of the simulation in future classes
   b. Yes, I recommend the use of the simulation in future classes.
   c. Yes, I strongly recommend the use of the simulation in future classes.
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Wukich, Clayton, and Michael D. Siciliano. 2014. “Problem Solving and Creativity in Public Policy Courses: Promoting Interest and Civic Engagement.” *Journal of Political Science Education* 10(3): 352–68.

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of Political Science Education 15(1): 37–48.
## Appendix ###. Course Schedule by Week

| Week # | Learning Unit | Book Chapters |
|--------|---------------|---------------|
| 1      | Introductions |               |
| 1      | Course Overview and Words You Need To Know |               |
| 2      | Empathy and Intersectionality | Shaw Chapter 13 |
| 2      | Group Identity, Ideology, and Activism | Shaw Chapter 8 |
| 2      | Teams: JAA, PPP, SIM |               |
| 3      | Holiday - Labor Day |               |
| 3      | PPP 1 | Shaw et al Chapter 3  
|        |      | Han Heldman Chapter 3 |
| 3      | SIM 1 |               |
| 4      | Race as Uneven Road + Women, Power, and Politics | Shaw Chapter 1 and Han Chapter 1 |
| 4      | PPP 2 |               |
| 4      | SIM 2 |               |
| 5      | The Women's Rights Movement in the United States | Han Chapter 2 |
| 5      | PPP 3 |               |
| 5      | SIM 3 |               |
| 6      | Native Americans: The Road from Majority to Minority, 1500s-1970s | Shaw Chapter 2 |
| 6      | PPP 4 |               |
| 6      | SIM 4 |               |
| 7      | The Many Faces of Feminism | Han Chapter 3 |

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| 7 | PPP 5 |
|---|-------|
| 7 | SIM 5 |
| 8 | The African American Political Journey, 1500s-1965 | Shaw Chapter 3 |
| 8 | PPP 6 |
| 8 | SIM 6 |
| 9 | Gender Representation in Popular Culture | Han Chapter 4 |
| 9 | PPP 7 |
| 9 | SIM 7 |
| 10 | The Road Towards Contemporary Latino Politics: 1500s-1970s | Shaw Chapter 4 |
| 10 | Women as Political Participants | Han Chapter 5 |
| 10 | Different and Common Asian American Roads, 1800s-1960s | Shaw Chapter 5 |
| 11 | PPP Oral Presentations |
| 11 | PPP Oral Presentations |
| 11 | PPP Oral Presentations |
| 12 | SIM 8 |
| 12 | SIM 9 |
| 12 | SIM 10 |
| 13 | Holiday - Veterans Day |
| 13 | Women as Political Candidates | Han Chapter 6 |
| 13 | Whiteness and the Shifting Roads of Immigrant America, 1780s-1960s | Shaw Chapter 6 |
| 14 | Women as Legislators | Han Chapter 7 |
| 14 | Holiday - Thanksgiving | |
| 14 | Holiday - Thanksgiving | |
| 15 | Women as Executives | Han Chapter 8 |
| 15 | Women in the Judiciary | Han Chapter 9 |
| 15 | Political Behavior and Representation: Minorities' Growing Voice | Shaw Chapter 9 |
| 16 | JAA Presentations | |
| 16 | JAA Presentations | |
| 16 | JAA Presentations | |
| 17 | Final Exam: 8:00am-11:00am | |
Appendix ###. List of Peer-Reviewed Journal Articles

Beauregard, K. (2018). "Women's representation and gender gaps in political participation: do time and success matter in a cross-national perspective?" Politics Groups and Identities 6(2): 237-263.

Brown, N. E. and S. A. Gershon (2017). "Examining intersectionality and symbolic representation." Politics Groups and Identities 5(3): 500-505.

Dietz, M. G. (2003). "Current controversies in feminist theory." Annual Review of Political Science 6: 399-431.

Greer, C. M. (2016). "'African-American candidates for the presidency and the foundation of black politics in the twenty-first century.'" Politics Groups and Identities 4(4): 638-651.

Harris, F. C. and B. D. McKenzie (2015). "'Unreconciled strivings and warring ideals: the complexities of competing African-American political identities.'" Politics Groups and Identities 3(2): 239-254.

Hennings, V. M. and R. Urbatsch (2016). "'Gender, Partisanship, and Candidate-Selection Mechanisms.'" State Politics & Policy Quarterly 16(3): 290-312.

Holman, M. R. and M. C. Schneider (2018). "'Gender, race, and political ambition: how intersectionality and frames influence interest in political office.'" Politics Groups and Identities 6(2): 264-280.

Hoekstra, V. (2009). "'The Pendulum of Precedent. US State Legislative Response to Supreme Court Decisions on Minimum Wage Legislation for Women.'" State Politics & Policy Quarterly 9(3): 257-283.

Kenney, S. J. (2008). "'Gender on the agenda: How the paucity of women judges became an issue.'" Journal of Politics 70(3): 717-735.

Huyser, K. R., et al. (2017). "Civic engagement and political participation among American Indians and Alaska natives in the US." Politics Groups and Identities 5(4): 642-659.

Kim, D. (2015). "'The effect of party mobilization, group identity, and racial context on Asian Americans' turnout.'" Politics Groups and Identities 3(4): 592-614.

Takeda, O. (2016). "'A Model Minority? The Misrepresentation and Underrepresentation of Asian Pacific Americans in Introductory American Government Textbooks.'" Journal of Political Science Education 12(4): 387-402.
Mohamed, H. S. (2015). "'Americana or Latina? Gender and identity acquisition among Hispanics in the United States.'" Politics Groups and Identities 3(1): 40-58.

Molina, A. L. and K. J. Meier (2018). "'Demographic dreams, institutional realities: election design and Latino representation in American education.'" Politics Groups and Identities 6(1): 77-94.

Murib, Z. (2015). "Transgender: examining an emerging political identity using three political processes." Politics Groups and Identities 3(3): 381-397.

Schildkraut, D. J. (2017). "'White attitudes about descriptive representation in the US: the roles of identity, discrimination, and linked fate.'" Politics Groups and Identities 5(1): 84-106.

Cole, K. (2018). "'Thinking through race: white racial identity, motivated cognition and the unconscious maintenance of white supremacy.'" Politics Groups and Identities 6(2): 181-198.

Tripp, A. M. (2016). "'Comparative perspectives on concepts of gender, ethnicity, and race.'" Politics Groups and Identities 4(2): 307-324.

Decker, A. C. (2016). "'Commentary on Tripp's 'Comparative perspectives on concepts of gender, ethnicity, and race.'" Politics Groups and Identities 4(2): 331-334.

Knutson, K. (2018). "'From identity to issue: policy agenda and framing shifts within long-term coalitions.'" Politics Groups and Identities 6(2): 281-302.

Alamillo, R. and L. Collingwood (2017). "'Chameleon politics: social identity and racial cross-over appeals.'" Politics Groups and Identities 5(4): 533-560.

Volden, C., et al. (2013). "'When Are Women More Effective Lawmakers Than Men?'" American Journal of Political Science 57(2): 326-341.

Park, S. (2014). "'The politics of redistribution in local governments: the effect of gender representation on welfare spending in California counties.'" Journal of Public Policy 34(2): 269-301.

Zhu, L. and K. Wright (2016). "Why do Americans dislike publicly funded health care? Examining the intersection of race and gender in the ideological context." Politics Groups and Identities 4(4): 618-637.
Appendix ###. Journal Article Analysis Pre/Post Test Questions

1. Which of the following best describes a journal article?
   a. A blog post
   b. A newspaper story
   c. A publication
   d. A peer-reviewed publication

2. How many journal articles have you read in your lifetime?
   a. 0 so far
   b. 1-10
   c. 11-20
   d. 21-30
   e. 31-40
   f. 41-50
   g. 51-100
   h. 100+

3. What percent of these journal articles have been in the field of political science?
   a. 0%-32%
   b. 33%-49%
   c. 50%-66%
   d. 67%-100%

4. How would you rate your ability to analyze political science scholarly journal articles on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?

5. Match the journal article component with its correct explanation
   a. Title = appears on the first page of the article
   b. Main Point and Question = are typically found in the Abstract
   c. Puzzle = a missing piece of knowledge that the article seeks to fulfill
   d. Debate = how scholars currently argue the subject of the article
   e. Theory = how the author thinks something works
   f. Hypotheses = are derived from the Theory
   g. Research Design = how the author compares the effect of the explanatory variable (X) on the outcome variable (O) in a group (G) or set of groups
   h. Empirical Analysis = the use of quantitative or qualitative evidence to explore whether the hypothesized relationship between two variables does indeed occur in the world
   i. Policy Implications = how the findings of the article should influence the behavior of individuals, groups, organizations, or governments
   j. Contribution to the Discipline and Future Research = are how the article helps fill
the missing Puzzle piece, as well as offer suggestions for future research that build on the findings from the article
Appendix ###. Public Policy Project Pre/Post Test Questions

1. How would you rate your **interest in public policy** on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?
2. How would you rate your **knowledge of public policy** on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?
3. How would you rate your **interest in data analysis** on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?
4. How would you rate your working **knowledge of being a data analyst** on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?
5. How would you rate your **interest in geographic information systems analysis** on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?
6. How would you rate your working **knowledge of being a geographic information systems analyst** on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?
7. How would you rate your **interest in policy analysis** on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?
8. How would you rate your working **knowledge of being a policy analyst** on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?
9. How would you rate your **interest in communications analysis** on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?
10. How would you rate your working **knowledge of being a communications analyst** on a scale from 1 (low) to 5 (high)?
Appendix ###. Simulation Post-Test Only Questions

1. Overall, on a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did the simulation enhance your knowledge of [course title/subject]?

2. On a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did the simulation enhance your learning about [course title/subject] theories beyond lectures, readings, and class discussions?

3. On a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did the simulation enhance your learning about [course title/subject] concepts beyond lectures, readings, and class discussions?

4. On a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did the simulation enhance your learning about [course title/subject] and their processes beyond lectures, readings, and class discussions?

5. On a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did the simulation (and its research requirement) enhance your learning about your assigned [individual or organization]?

6. On a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did the simulation enhance/develop your analytical and critical thinking skills (i.e. problem solving skills, negotiation skills, creativity, etc.)?

7. On a scale from 1(low) to 5 (high), how much did you enjoy the simulation activity?

8. Rate the simulation exercise compared to other exercises in your college tenure on a scale from 1 to 5 (where 1 represents the worst college course learning exercise you have performed at Institution X (thus far) and 5 represents the best college course learning exercise you have performed at Institution X (thus far).

9. Do you recommend using the simulation as a teaching tool in future classes?
   a. No, I recommend against the use of the simulation in future classes
   b. Yes, I recommend the use of the simulation in future classes.
   c. Yes, I strongly recommend the use of the simulation in future classes.

10. Are you more or less interested in professionally working in [course title/subject] because of the simulation?
    a. More interested
    b. Less interested