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**The benefits of participating in a Learning Assistant Program on the metacognitive  
awareness and motivation of Learning Assistants**

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motivation, pedagogy, educational assessment

**Abstract**

1            Learning Assistant (LA) programs train undergraduate students to foster peer discussion  
2 and facilitate active learning activities in undergraduate STEM classes. Students who take  
3 courses that are supported by LAs demonstrate better conceptual understanding, lower failure  
4 rates and higher satisfaction with the course (Otero et al., 2010; Talbot et al., 2015). There is less  
5 work, however, on the impact that participating in LA programs has on the LAs themselves. The  
6 current study implements a pretest-posttest design to assess changes in LAs' metacognition and  
7 motivation to succeed in STEM across their first and second quarters as an LA. Our findings  
8 suggest that participating in this program may help LAs become more reflective learners, as was  
9 demonstrated by an increase in their scores on the Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI)  
10 after the first quarter. LAs also showed increases on the Intrinsic motivation and Self-efficacy  
11 subscales of the Science Motivation Questionnaire (SMQ). Students who participated in the  
12 program for an additional quarter continued to show increases in their MAI scores and  
13 maintained the gains that were observed in their motivation. Taken together, this work suggests  
14 that in addition to benefiting the learner, LA programs may have positive impacts on the LAs  
15 themselves.

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**The benefits of participating in a Learning Assistant Program on the metacognitive awareness and motivation of Learning Assistants**

21           There is no shortage of educational interventions aimed at increasing students' success in  
22 STEM. Some interventions target students' understanding of specific course material or  
23 foundational concepts, whereas others aim to improve students' approach to learning more  
24 broadly (e.g., by improving metacognition and study habits) (Brown-Kramer, 2021; Hoskins et  
25 al., 2017; van den Hurk et al., 2019). Interventions that provide peer support or mentorship in the  
26 form of learning communities or peer learning assistants seem to be particularly beneficial  
27 (Groccia & Miller, 1996; Talbot et al., 2015; White et al., 2016). The Learning Assistant (LA)  
28 Program is one such form of peer instruction. Students who take courses that are supported by  
29 LAs demonstrate better conceptual understanding, lower failure rates and higher satisfaction with  
30 the course (Otero et al., 2010; Sellami et al., 2017; Talbot et al., 2015; White et al., 2016).  
31 Although the benefits of providing LA support to students have been demonstrated across a  
32 variety of courses and programs (see Barrasso & Spilios, 2021 for a review), there is less work  
33 examining the impact of serving as an LA on the undergraduate LAs themselves. Analysis of  
34 LAs' written reflections suggest that LAs develop greater content understanding and stronger  
35 science identities through participating in the program (Close et al., 2016; Huvard et al., 2020).  
36 Students who have been LAs are also more likely to graduate over a matched sample of their  
37 peers (Otero, 2015), but the mechanisms behind some of these shifts have not yet been explored.  
38 Given the type of training and experiences that LAs have in supporting their peers, participating  
39 in a Learning Assistant Program has the potential to make them better learners and change their  
40 attitudes about STEM, which may in turn contribute to some of these beneficial outcomes. In the  
41 current study, we examine changes in undergraduate students' metacognition and STEM

42 motivation before and after participating in the LA program.

43           The original model of the Learning Assistant (LA) Program was developed at the  
44 University of Colorado, Boulder in 2003 (Otero et al., 2010). This program was designed to  
45 incorporate more opportunities for active learning in large classes by recruiting undergraduate  
46 students and training them to support their peers' learning (Otero et al., 2010). As such, the  
47 primary role of LAs was to facilitate learning during class time by fostering discussion and  
48 engaging with small groups of students. This model has since been adopted at more than 500  
49 institutions (<https://www.learningassistantalliance.org>).

50           Undergraduate LA programs that are modeled after the University of Colorado program  
51 consist of three core components: (1) a pedagogy seminar that covers a variety of topics in  
52 learning and teaching; (2) an assistantship in a specific lab or lecture course and (3) weekly  
53 meetings with the instructor and/or Graduate Teaching Assistants (TAs) from that course. LA  
54 programs are distinct from other models of near-peer instruction and TA support in that LAs  
55 facilitate learning during class time (rather than in supplemental sessions) and do not grade or  
56 assess student work.

57           The LA program at UCLA began in 2016 with a team of 12 LAs in three courses. Since  
58 then, the program has grown to enroll approximately 500 LAs per quarter who support learning  
59 in more than 40 STEM courses (see <https://ceils.ucla.edu/learningassistants/>). As in the model  
60 described above, all first time LAs at UCLA take a seminar in pedagogy which includes  
61 instruction on how to scaffold student learning by asking open-ended questions and encouraging  
62 collaboration. LAs work with undergraduates in various instructional settings (e.g., in labs, office  
63 hours) as determined by the needs of their specific course. The LAs also complete weekly  
64 reflections on their experiences and attend weekly course content meetings to prepare to support

65 students.

66 In other peer instruction models where students act as ‘teachers’, students report more  
67 positive attitudes toward the material they teach and better understanding of the content (Cohen  
68 et al., 1982; Chrispeels et al., 2014; Amaral & Vala, 2009). Indeed, participating in the LA  
69 program has been shown to strengthen LAs’ content knowledge of the specific course that they  
70 support (Otero et al., 2010). This increase could be attributed, at least in part, to the known  
71 benefits of preparing to teach (Fiorella & Mayer, 2013) and having greater exposure to the  
72 course materials. Instead of assessing LAs’ understanding of discipline-specific topics, in the  
73 current study we are interested in how students’ experiences in this program might shift their  
74 approach to learning more broadly.

#### 75 **Assessing Improvements in Metacognitive Awareness**

76 If we think that participating in the LA program will help LAs become better learners,  
77 there are a variety of ways that we can assess this improvement. One measure of a ‘good learner’  
78 is their metacognitive awareness. Metacognition, broadly, is the ability to think about one’s own  
79 thoughts (e.g., Flavell, 1979; Veenman et al., 2005; 2006). Metacognition can include a variety  
80 of cognitive processes, such as being able to select an appropriate problem-solving strategy and  
81 being able to monitor progress towards one’s own learning goals. Students that exhibit greater  
82 metacognitive awareness, (i.e., who are better able to reflect on their own thinking and  
83 performance) tend to perform better academically (Kelemen et al., 2007; Nietfeld et al., 2005;  
84 Ohtani & Hisasaka, 2018; Young & Fry, 2008). They also tend to implement more effective  
85 learning strategies like elaboration, organization, and critical thinking (Schraw & Moshman,  
86 1995; Sperling et al., 2004). Given that LAs are trained to think carefully and reflectively about  
87 student learning, participating in the LA program could make LAs more sophisticated learners by

88 improving their metacognitive awareness.

89         There is some evidence to suggest that interventions that teach metacognitive strategies  
90 can be effective at improving both metacognitive awareness (Saenz et al., 2019) and, by  
91 extension, content understanding (Mynlieff et al., 2014; Hensley et al., 2021). We know that  
92 student metacognition can be modified by a variety of different experiences, such as receiving  
93 appropriate feedback or failing to retrieve an item from memory (Miller & Geraci, 2014; Molin  
94 et al., 2020). In one comprehensive study, Saenz et al. (2019) systematically compared the  
95 efficacy of five different interventions aimed at improving metacognition on a logical reasoning  
96 task. The interventions took place between two successive administrations of the reasoning task.  
97 Participants either reviewed test questions, received salient feedback about their performance and  
98 metacognitive accuracy, were shown a warning lecture about how students are often  
99 overconfident, were told that they could earn money if they were well-calibrated, reflected on  
100 their knowledge, or completed a maze activity (control). In this task, the most successful  
101 intervention involved making feedback salient to the participants.

102         Metacognitive growth has also been assessed in a variety of classroom settings (Callender  
103 et al., 2016; Kramarski & Mevarech, 1997; Miller & Geraci, 2011; Molin et al., 2020; Nietfeld et  
104 al., 2006; Sabel et al., 2017). In one study, students in two sections of an introductory biology  
105 class completed the Metacognitive Awareness in Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSII) scale at  
106 the beginning and end of the course (Hill et al., 2014). One section of the class was given two  
107 50-minute study skills lectures which included the Survey-Question-Read-Recite-Review  
108 (SQ3R) method and a discussion about metacognition in-person and the other section watched  
109 the lesson online. Students in both sections were asked to apply the strategies they learned on  
110 homework assignments that followed the lessons. At post-test students in both sections scored

111 higher on the MARSII and measures of reading comprehension. Although students' ability to read  
112 and reflect on academic materials improved, it is unclear whether similar gains would be seen on  
113 broader measures of metacognition (that assess how students approach and solve problems  
114 outside of reading academic materials).

115         When metacognitive interventions are aimed at changing students' thinking about a  
116 specific task (i.e., such as being able to reflect on the strategies needed to complete a specific  
117 task/problem), the metacognitive intervention may be more likely to shift content-specific  
118 metacognition but might have less of an impact on the learner's overall metacognitive awareness.  
119 While some studies focus on shifting metacognition in a specific domain (see for example  
120 Dahlberg et al., 2019; Hill et al., 2014), others studies conceptualize metacognition more broadly  
121 and aim to shift participant's *general* ability to reflect on their learning. In the current study,  
122 given that the course content and specific problem-solving strategies vary depending on the  
123 course that student LAs support (and our LAs support a variety of courses), we examined  
124 metacognitive changes that are not tied to a specific domain.

125         In studies that are interested in examining broad or domain-general metacognition, there  
126 are a number of different ways that researchers have chosen to measure this construct. Some  
127 studies have used self-report measures (e.g., Sperling et al., 2004; Young & Fry, 2008), or  
128 qualitative coding of written reflections (e.g., Huvard et al., 2020). However, questionnaires are  
129 some of the most common methods of measuring metacognition (Dinsmore et al., 2008), which  
130 can be attributed at least in part to the practicality of their use (Berger & Karabenick, 2016).  
131 These questionnaires ask participants to evaluate, for instance, the extent to which they are aware  
132 of what they have learned versus what they need to study more, or whether they have skills to  
133 appropriately troubleshoot when they face difficulties. Questionnaires like the Metacognitive



134 Awareness Inventory (MAI; Schraw & Dennison, 1994) are not as closely tied to problem  
135 solving or learning in a particular subject area as other self-report measures like the  
136 Metacognitive Activities Inventory (which looks at problem solving for chemistry problems;  
137 MCAI; Cooper & Sandi-Urena, 2009) Thus, the MAI allows for a more global assessment of  
138 how reflective the learner is irrespective of the context.

139         Due to its broad applicability and ease of administration, the Metacognitive Awareness  
140 Inventory (MAI) developed by Schraw and Dennison (1994) has become one of the more  
141 popular self-report measures of metacognitive awareness in educational settings. The MAI  
142 assesses two aspects of metacognition: Knowledge of Cognition and Regulation of Cognition.  
143 The Knowledge of Cognition scale assesses the learner's knowledge of strategies and skills to  
144 appropriately solve problems. In contrast, the Regulation of Cognition scale assesses whether the  
145 learner can monitor their progress and allocate attentional resources appropriately. Higher scores  
146 on the MAI have been associated with greater use of learning and study strategies (Sperling et  
147 al., 2004), improved test performance (Schraw & Dennison, 1994; Zulkipli et al., 2008), and  
148 higher course grades and cumulative GPA (Young & Fry, 2008).

149         Across a number of studies designed to improve student metacognition, as indexed by the  
150 MAI, evidence for the effectiveness of interventions is mixed. For example, in one intervention  
151 students completed various "exam wrappers", a type of post exam activity. Some wrappers  
152 included metacognitive reflection, (e.g., *How did your actual score compare to how you thought*  
153 *you did on the exam after taking it?*) and others did not. Overall, students' MAI scores increased  
154 from the beginning to the end of the term. However, the magnitude of this change did not differ  
155 based on the type of wrapper they completed (Soicher & Gurung, 2017). Other studies have been  
156 able to successfully move MAI scores (e.g., Alt & Raichel, 2020; Terlecki & McMahon, 2018).

157 For instance, Terlecki and McMahon (2018) found that enrollment in an interactive  
158 metacognition course was associated with a significant improvement in MAI scores over the  
159 course of a term. In contrast, enrollment in courses in Cognition or Introduction to Psychology,  
160 which included some topics related to memory and problem solving, did not show any  
161 improvement.

162 In the current investigation, the MAI was administered at the beginning and end of each  
163 quarter to determine how the LA experience may impact scores. Given that the pedagogical  
164 seminar explicitly discusses metacognition, and LAs are asked to reflect on their use of problem-  
165 solving strategies to help support their peers' learning, the LA program may improve LAs'  
166 general metacognitive abilities.

### 167 **Assessing Gains in Motivation**

168 In addition to evaluating whether LAs show improvements in metacognition, we  
169 evaluated whether participating in the LA program might increase students' interest and drive to  
170 succeed in STEM. There is a growing body of evidence to suggest that student motivation is  
171 associated with better grades (Lin et al., 2003; Glynn et al., 2011) and greater persistence in  
172 STEM (Simon et al., 2015). Although higher motivation seems to lead to better academic  
173 outcomes, the source of that motivation might also play a role in facilitating success. Some  
174 measures, like the Science Motivation Questionnaire (SMQ-II; Glynn et al., 2011), attempt to  
175 measure the extent to which a student's desire to succeed in STEM is motivated by specific  
176 internal (e.g., intrinsic motivation, self-efficacy, self-determination) or external components  
177 (e.g., career motivation, grade motivation). STEM majors tend to score higher in all five  
178 components compared to non-STEM majors (Glynn et al., 2011), but there is some indication  
179 that more internally driven components, such as higher self-efficacy, are better predictors of

180 future academic success (Austin et al., 2018; Richardson et al., 2012; Robbins et al., 2004).  
181 There is also some evidence suggesting that the source of motivation can vary depending on  
182 student's demographic characteristics (Glynn et al., 2009, Kassae & Rowell, 2016, Young et al.,  
183 2018). For example, some studies have found that women tend to score lower than men on the  
184 self-efficacy scale and higher on the self-determination scale (Glynn et al, 2009; Young et al.,  
185 2018; see however, Kassae & Rowell, 2016 that found no gender differences).

186         Given the association between motivation and success in STEM, examining the effects of  
187 educational interventions on students' motivation is of primary interest. In prior work,  
188 motivational measures are typically not themselves the targets of change but are instead used to  
189 predict which students will gain the most from an education intervention (Goldschmidt &  
190 Bogner, 2016; Hibbard et al., 2016; Schumm & Bogner, 2016). The interventions that do directly  
191 target improvements in motivation as an outcome often consist of short programs or classroom  
192 activities designed to engage students or spark their interest in STEM (Heim & Holt, 2022;  
193 Marth & Bogner, 2017; Evans et al., 2022; Linnenbrink-Garcia et al., 2018). In these studies,  
194 participants are typically asked to complete the motivation measures before and after the  
195 intervention (Heim & Holt, 2022; Marth & Bogner, 2017; Evans et al., 2022), or motivation is  
196 compared between groups that experienced the intervention versus those that did not (Kassae &  
197 Rowell, 2016; Olimpo et al., 2016).

198         The findings of these intervention studies are mixed. Some interventions, like taking  
199 undergraduate biology students to the zoo, have demonstrated long-term increases in self-  
200 efficacy and decreases in grade-based motivation (Heim & Holt, 2022). Other interventions have  
201 shown temporary, but not long-term changes. For example, one study found that giving 6th  
202 graders an outreach module about bionics temporarily increased ratings on items that addressed

203 their intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy (Marth & Bogner, 2017). However, not all  
204 interventions seemed to impact attitudes (Cleveland et al., 2017, Edwards et al., 2021). Some  
205 interventions that have successfully shifted attitudes share a number of characteristics, including  
206 occurring over multiple weeks or months (Feldon et al., 2018; Covert et al., 2019; Dixon &  
207 Wendt, 2021; Muis et al., 2010; Karpudewan & Chong, 2020), and being active or experiential in  
208 nature, such as a summer science program, online laboratory activity, or game-based course  
209 (Linnenbrink-Garcia et al., 2018; Covert et al., 2019; Karpudewan & Chong, 2020; Srisawasdi &  
210 Panjaburee, 2019). Given that the LA program occurs over the course of a quarter (10 weeks)  
211 and requires LAs to be actively engaged, we believe that the program has the potential to  
212 positively impact LAs motivation to succeed in STEM. Although motivation has not been  
213 assessed directly in this population, qualitative analyses of statements made by LAs during  
214 teaching reflections, interviews, and applications to serve as an LA in subsequent semesters  
215 suggest that their experiences in the program made them feel more confident and competent in  
216 Physics (Close et al., 2016). LAs also report higher interest in the subject matter after  
217 participating in the program (Otero et al., 2010). It is possible that these positive attitudes toward  
218 STEM may also be associated with greater motivation to succeed in STEM courses.

### 219 **The Current Study**

220 In the current investigation, we used a pre-test post-test design to explore how  
221 participating in the LA program may benefit LAs. We evaluate changes in both first-time LAs  
222 and in LAs who participated in the program for a second quarter. As the LA program at our  
223 university is large and LAs assist in a variety of courses, our data represent an overall LA  
224 experience—not one that relies on the idiosyncrasies of a particular course. Given this variety of  
225 experiences, we are well-positioned to assess the broad impact of being an LA on metacognitive

226 awareness and motivation to succeed in STEM. The current study addressed the following 2  
227 questions:

228 1) Does the LA program make LAs more effective learners? In particular can it lead to changes  
229 in metacognitive awareness (measured using the MAI)?

230 2) Does the LAs' motivation to succeed in STEM (measured using the SMQ) change over the  
231 course of their enrollment in this program?

232

### 233 **Methods**

234 Learning Assistants apply to serve as LAs in specific courses and individual course instructors  
235 have different criteria for screening and selecting LAs. Over the 2019-2020 school year, an  
236 average of 632 LAs applied to the program each quarter; some of these students had participated  
237 in the program before and others had not. Of those who applied, 70.2 percent were accepted into  
238 the program and the majority (84.9%) of those that were accepted enrolled (Total program  
239 enrollment in Fall 2019 = 341 students, Winter 2020 = 404 students, Spring 2020 = 385  
240 students). All undergraduates participating in the LA program were asked to complete a survey  
241 that included the MAI and SMQ measures at the beginning and end of each quarter. The  
242 methodology of this study as well as linking to student data to demographic data from the  
243 Registrar's office was approved by the UCLA Institutional Review Board (IRB#19-001995).

### 244 **Participants**

245 In total, 505 students served as LAs for the first time in the 2019-2020 academic year. Of  
246 those, 443 students completed the survey before and after their first quarter in the program. Fifty-  
247 eight students were excluded from the final sample; 50 because they only completed one of the

248 two surveys and 8 because they could not be identified or linked to the course roster. In the final  
249 data set (N = 443), 11 students responded to either the pre or post survey more than once. In  
250 these cases, their first set of responses were used. Based on demographic data obtained from the  
251 registrar, the students in the dataset were predominately female (60.2%)<sup>1</sup>, and were admitted into  
252 UCLA as freshman (94.0%)<sup>2</sup>. About a quarter of students were first generation college students  
253 (23.4%) and 16.3% self-identified as Black/African American, Latinx/Hispanic, or Native  
254 American/Alaskan Native<sup>3</sup> (see Table 1 for demographic information). Most students in this  
255 sample were admitted to UCLA in Fall 2017 (31.9%) or Fall 2018 (44.4%), meaning that most  
256 students were in their 2<sup>nd</sup> or 3<sup>rd</sup> year at UCLA. The distribution of participants included in the  
257 dataset by subject area is shown in Table 1. One hundred seventy five of the 443 first time LAs  
258 also completed the measures again at the end of their second quarter participating in the program.  
259 Students received a small amount of course credit in exchange for completing the surveys.

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<sup>1</sup> Demographic data was obtained from the registrar's office. As we did not survey students directly, we are limited in how we can report the data based on the way the questions were asked on the admission survey. On the admissions survey, students were asked to identify their gender as male or female. Unfortunately, this does not allow us to report the percentage of students who would have answered this question differently if other options were provided to them. Demographic data could not be obtained for 11 students.

<sup>2</sup> First-generation college students are defined as students who neither parent has obtained a bachelor's degree based on registrar data.

<sup>3</sup> The data we obtained from the registrar indicates the percentage of students who identified as either Black/African American, Latinx/Hispanic, or Native American/Alaskan Native. We do not have access to the exact breakdown of how many students belong to each group due given the small sizes of some of the groups. This information could not be obtained for 27 students whose ethnicity/race was unstated or unknown.

264 **Table 1**265 *Demographic characteristics of 1<sup>st</sup> time LAs*

	N (%) <sup>a</sup>
<b>Year at UCLA</b>	
1 <sup>st</sup>	27 (6.3%)
2 <sup>nd</sup>	192 (44.4%)
3 <sup>rd</sup>	138 (31.9%)
4 <sup>th</sup>	71 (16.4%)
5 <sup>th</sup>	4(0.9%)
<b>Admit Type</b>	
Freshman	406 (94.0%)
Transfer	26 (6.0%)
<b>Gender</b>	
Male	172 (39.8%)
Female	260 (60.2%)
<b>Identified as Black/African American, Latinx/Hispanic, or Native American/Alaskan Native</b>	
Yes	68 (16.3%)
No	348 (83.7%)
<b>1<sup>st</sup> Generation College student</b>	
Yes	101 (23.4%)
No	324 (75.0%)

266 <sup>a</sup> Note: Demographic information (i.e., Year at UCLA, Admit Type, Gender and 1<sup>st</sup> Generation College student  
 267 status) was not available for 11 participants, total N = 432. Ethnicity/race was not available for 27 participants, total  
 268 N = 416.

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274 **Table 2**275 *Distribution of new LAs by subject area*

Subject Area	Fall 2019	Winter 2020	Spring 2020
Life Sciences	71	42	36
Chemistry	61	39	36
Physics	25	17	12
Computer Science	12	10	15
Mathematics	16	8	14
Psychology	7	9	7
Other STEM <sup>a</sup>	2	4	n/a
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>194</b>	<b>129</b>	<b>120</b>

276 <sup>a</sup>Including Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences, Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, Physical Sciences, and General  
 277 Education Cluster classes.

278

279 **Measures**

280 **Metacognitive Awareness Inventory (MAI).** In this study, we administered the  
 281 shortened 19-item version of the MAI developed by Harrison and Vallin (2018) which had two  
 282 subscales: Knowledge of Cognition (8 items) and Regulation of Cognition (11 items). As in the  
 283 longer 52-item version (Schraw & Dennison, 1994), the Knowledge of Cognition subscale  
 284 assesses the extent to which students are aware of their own thought processes and contains  
 285 items such as “*I am aware of what strategies I use when I study*”. The Regulation of Cognition  
 286 subscale assesses students’ ability to allocate resources to cognitive tasks and contains items  
 287 such as “*I change strategies when I fail to understand*”. Participants responded to each question  
 288 on a five-point Likert scale from *1 - not at all typical of me* to *5 - very typical of me*. The items  
 289 on the Knowledge (range 8 - 40 points) and Regulation (range 11 - 55 points) subscales were



290 summed separately, and were combined to create a composite MAI score (range 19 – 95 points).  
291 Higher scores indicate a greater degree of metacognitive awareness. As in previous work  
292 (Harrison & Vallin, 2018), the composite MAI had good internal consistency in our sample  
293 (Cronbach's alpha for Pre-data = .898; Cronbach's alpha for Post-data = .914). Internal  
294 consistency was similarly high for each of the subscales (Pre-data: Cronbach's alpha for  
295 Knowledge = .862; Regulation = .819; Post-data: Cronbach's alpha for Knowledge = .870;  
296 Regulation = .853). Harrison & Vallin (2018) found that the shorter 19-item two factor version  
297 of the MAI had the best fit to their data collected from an undergraduate sample. In our sample,  
298 confirmatory factor analysis<sup>4</sup> indicated that a two-factor model did not fit our data particularly  
299 well (according to the recommendations of Hu & Bentler, 1999), thus we were cautious in our  
300 interpretation of the separate subscales (Pre data: CFI = .856, TLI = .837, RMSEA = .079; Post  
301 data, CFI = .877, TLI = .861, RMSEA = .079).

302 **Science Motivation Questionnaire (SMQ).** The SMQ-II (Glynn et al., 2011) is a 25-  
303 item scale designed to measure the degree to which students' motivation to learn science is  
304 driven by five dimensions: Intrinsic motivation, or learning for its own sake (e.g., "*I am curious*  
305 *about discoveries of STEM*"), Career motivation (e.g., "*Understanding STEM will benefit me in*  
306 *my career*"), Self-determination, or a sense of responsibility for their own learning (e.g., "*I put*  
307 *enough effort into learning STEM*"), Self-efficacy, or confidence in learning science (e.g. "*I*  
308 *believe I can master STEM knowledge and skills*"), and Grade-based motivation (e.g., "*I like to*  
309 *do better than other students on STEM tests*")<sup>5</sup>. Students indicated how much each statement  
310 applied to them on a five-point Likert scale from 0 - *Never* to 4 - *Always*. Each subscale contains

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<sup>4</sup> Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted using the Lavaan package in R (Rosseel, 2012).

<sup>5</sup> In order to make the SMQ items applicable to all LAs (some of which were LAing in Engineering and Math courses) the word "science" (i.e., I am curious about the discoveries of science) was replaced with "STEM" for all SMQ items.

311 5 items total and has a possible score of 0 – 20. A higher score on each subscale indicates a  
312 greater motivation from that source (i.e., scoring higher on the Intrinsic motivation subscale  
313 indicates greater motivation to learn science for its own sake). All five subscales had good  
314 internal consistency in our sample (Pre-data: Cronbach's alpha for Intrinsic Motivation = .792,  
315 Career Motivation = .788, Self-determination =.805, Self-efficacy = .866, Grade-based  
316 Motivation = .831; Post-data Cronbach's alpha for Intrinsic Motivation = .858, Career  
317 Motivation = .868, Self-determination =.865, Self-efficacy = .903, Grade-based Motivation =  
318 .860). The 5-factor model fit relatively well to our pre dataset (CFI = .905, TLI = .892, RMSEA  
319 = .062) and our post dataset (CFI= .900, TLI = .887, RMSEA =.077). The fit of the 5-factor  
320 model to our data was similar to Glynn et al., (2011) (i.e., Glynn's CFI = 0.91, RMSEA= 0.07).

321

## 322 **Procedure**

323 At the beginning of each quarter LAs were asked to complete a survey containing the  
324 MAI and the SMQ. In their first quarter as an LA, students attended a 10-week pedagogy  
325 seminar. The major topics included: asking open questions to help students build understanding,  
326 fostering collaboration and growth mindset, recognizing and working to counteract systemic  
327 issues in education, and metacognition. Although the seminar is large (~180 students), there is an  
328 emphasis placed on active learning. As part of the seminar, LAs are given opportunities to role  
329 play and practice applying the teaching strategies that they are learning about.

330

---Insert Figure 1 about here----

331 *Figure 1.* Diagram used to explain the metacognitive problem-solving process during the lesson  
332 on metacognition. This figure was adapted from Figure 7.1 of Ambrose et al., (2010).

333

334 Notably, the seminar included one explicit lesson about metacognition. In this lesson,  
335 students were introduced to a metacognitive problem-solving process modeled after Ambrose et  
336 al., (2010) (see Figure 1). The LAs discussed how they could apply this method to their own  
337 experiences and in their LA classrooms.

338 In some courses, LAs supported students in labs and in others, they assisted with learning  
339 activities that were part of the lecture. LAs may have also had the opportunity to work with  
340 students during office hours. Finally, all LAs completed written reflections each week. The  
341 reflection topics varied, but in general they were asked to reflect on their experience as an LA  
342 and on the topics that they discussed in the seminar course.

343 LAs were asked to complete a survey containing the MAI and the SMQ again at the end  
344 of each quarter.

### 345 **Analyses**

346 Changes in MAI and SMQ scores were assessed from the beginning to the end of  
347 student's first quarter in the program using repeated measures ANOVAs and t-tests conducted  
348 using SPSS Version 28. For the SMQ, since there are multiple subscales, t-tests were Bonferroni  
349 corrected to adjust for the fact that there were multiple comparisons. Similar analyses were  
350 conducted to examine changes in MAI and SMQ scores from the end of LA's first quarter to the  
351 end of their second quarter in the program.

## 352 **Results**

### 353 **First Quarter LAs**

354 **Metacognition.** A repeated-measures ANOVA was used to compare LAs' total MAI  
355 scores at the beginning and end of their first quarter participating in the program. Given that

356 there may have been differences in LAs' experiences in Fall and Winter (where instruction was  
357 in person) compared to Spring (which was online), Quarter (Fall, Winter, Spring) was included  
358 in the ANOVA as a between-subjects factor. Overall, we find an increase in MAI scores after  
359 participating for the first time in the program,  $F(1, 440) = 22.42, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .05$ . There was  
360 no difference in MAI scores across quarters,  $F(2, 440) = 1.73, p = .179, \eta_p^2 = .01$ , and no  
361 interaction between Quarter and MAI scores,  $F(2,440) = 2.14, p = .119, \eta_p^2 = .01$ , indicating that  
362 the magnitude of the change in MAI scores that occurred from pre to post did not vary  
363 significantly across quarters.

364 Overall, MAI scores increased by 1.92 points (out of a possible 95 points) after students'  
365 first quarter in the LA program (see Figure 2). In line with Harrison and Vallin (2018), we also  
366 evaluated the change in each of the two subscales individually. Here we find that both the  
367 Knowledge of Cognition scores (Mean difference = 0.55, SD = 4.23),  $t(442) = 2.73, p = .007, d =$   
368 .13 and Regulation of Cognition scores (Mean difference = 1.37, SD = 5.42),  $t(442) = 5.34, p <$   
369 .001,  $d = .25$ , increased from the beginning to the end of the quarter. It does not seem to be the  
370 case that the increases observed in MAI scores were driven primarily by changes in one or two  
371 items, as the mean scores of 15 out of the 19 items increased. Numerically, the largest mean  
372 increases were observed on the following three items, "*I ask myself if I learned as much as I*  
373 *could have once I finish a task*" (Mean increase = 0.25 pts, SD = 1.18), "*I know when each*  
374 *strategy I use will be most effective*" (Mean increase = 0.21 pts, SD = 0.93) and "*I use the*  
375 *organizational structure of the text to help me learn*" (Mean increase = 0.20 pts, SD = 1.06).  
376 Multiple aspects of the program could have led LAs to indicate that these (or other) items were  
377 more typical of them. The LA program focuses heavily on reflection; each week students are  
378 asked to reflect on what they learned in the seminar and on their experiences working with

379 students. The act of continuously reflecting on one's own learning and the learning of others may  
380 have helped LAs to see themselves as people who *typically* assess their own learning at the end  
381 of each task.

382         Items that specifically pertain to applying appropriate problem-solving strategies could be  
383 influenced by the training that LAs receive to support students during class time. The strategies  
384 LAs are given are not discipline specific, but rather general strategies that could be applied to  
385 any problem or question, such as, guiding the learner to make connections to the lecture material  
386 or reflect on their prior knowledge that they could apply to the current problem (or the types of  
387 problems they have previously seen). The LA program may be particularly effective in moving  
388 these kinds of items because not only do LAs explicitly learn about these metacognitive  
389 strategies, but they also practice helping other students apply these strategies to solve problems  
390 in class each week.

391

392         --- Insert Figure 2 about here-----

393 *Figure 2.* MAI total scores at the beginning and end of students' first quarter LAing. Error bars  
394 represent 95% confidence intervals.

395

396         **Stem Motivation.** To assess whether participating in the LA program led to differences  
397 in students' STEM motivation, a series of paired sample t-tests<sup>6</sup> were performed to compare  
398 students' pre and post scores on each SMQ subscale (i.e., Intrinsic motivation, Career  
399 motivation, Self-efficacy, Self-determination, Grade-based motivation; see Table 3). LAs  
400 reported higher intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy at the end of the quarter compared to the

---

<sup>6</sup> To correct for multiple comparisons, the alpha level was Bonferroni adjusted. Tests where  $p < .01$  were considered statistically significant.

401 beginning of the quarter. Scores on the Career motivation and Self-determination subscales also  
 402 tended to increase, however neither change reached significance. Students also numerically  
 403 decreased in their grade-based motivation.

404 **Table 3**

405 *Comparison of SMQ Subscale Scores at the beginning and end of the 1<sup>st</sup> quarter in the LA*  
 406 *program*

	Pre 1 <sup>st</sup> quarter <i>M (SD)</i>	Post 1 <sup>st</sup> quarter <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
Intrinsic motivation	15.80 (2.72)	16.18 (2.96)	3.33	<.001	.16
Career motivation	17.39 (2.39)	17.46 (2.74)	0.65	.517	.03
Self-determination	16.23 (2.72)	16.36 (2.95)	1.13	.260	.05
Self-efficacy	14.53 (3.33)	15.09 (3.52)	4.36	<.001	.21
Grade-based motivation	17.37 (2.83)	17.17 (2.97)	-1.90	.058	.09

407

408 An exploratory post hoc analysis examined whether being an LA improved motivation  
 409 for particular groups of students that, based on previous, work might be at higher risk for leaving  
 410 STEM fields (in particular female students and students from underrepresented groups; see for  
 411 example Chen, 2013). To assess this, we conducted a MANOVA with the difference in each  
 412 SMQ subscale from pre to post included as dependent variables. Gender and race/ethnicity<sup>7</sup> were  
 413 included as independent variables. We found no significant differences in the amount of change  
 414 observed in each of the five subscales depending on LA's gender  $F(5, 409) = 1.45, p = .205, \eta_p^2$   
 415  $= .02$  or whether they identified as either Black/African American, Latinx/Hispanic, or Native  
 416 American/Alaskan Native,  $F(5,409) = 0.60, p = .704, \eta_p^2 = .01$ . Given previous work suggesting  
 417 that there might be demographic differences in SMQ scores (e.g., Glynn, 2011), we also

<sup>7</sup> In the data we obtained from the registrar, race/ethnicity was a dichotomous variable that categorizes the sample into two groups: students who identify as either Black/African American, Latinx/Hispanic, or Native American/Alaskan Native and students who did not. We do not have access to the exact breakdown of how many students belong to each ethnicity/race group due given the small sizes of some of the groups.

418 explored whether there were any baseline differences in SMQ scores in our sample prior to  
419 program participation. The results of a MANOVA predicting pre-SMQ subscale scores revealed  
420 a main effect of gender,  $F(5, 409) = 11.65, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .13$  but not race/ethnicity,  $F(5, 409) =$   
421  $1.13, p = .343, \eta_p^2 = .01$ . Separate univariate ANOVAs on the outcome variables indicated that  
422 there were baseline differences in self-efficacy,  $F(1, 413) = 31.82, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .07$ , with  
423 female students reporting lower self-efficacy prior to participating in the program than male  
424 students. Taken together, these findings suggest that although participating in the LA program  
425 may lead to overall improvements in intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy, the program does not  
426 seem to have a larger impact on the SMQ scores of female students or students who identified as  
427 Black/African American, Latinx/Hispanic, or Native American/Alaskan Native.

#### 428 **Returning LAs**

429 **Metacognition.** Given that many students are involved in the LA program for more than  
430 one quarter, we were interested in examining whether there were longer-term changes in MAI  
431 and SMQ scores. A total of 175 of the 443 LAs that completed pre and post measures in their  
432 first quarter in the program also completed the same survey at the end of their second quarter.  
433 We conducted a repeated measures ANOVA with MAI scores at three time points: the beginning  
434 of their first quarter, the end of their first quarter and the end of their second quarter. There was a  
435 significant main effect of experience in the program,  $F(2,348) = 9.80, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .05$ .  
436 Bonferroni corrected pairwise comparisons indicated that there were increases in MAI scores  
437 from the end of their first quarter to the end of the second quarter (Mean difference = 1.41,  $p$   
438 = .046). There was also an increase from the beginning of LAs' first quarter to the end of their  
439 second quarter (Mean difference = 2.66,  $p < .001$ ). Note that in this subset of the original sample,  
440 the change in MAI scores from the beginning to the end of their first quarter increased but did

441 not reach statistical significance (Mean difference = 1.25,  $p = .103$ ). Overall, these findings  
442 suggest that metacognitive awareness continued to improve after serving as an LA for a second  
443 quarter. This increase occurred even though students did not take the pedagogy seminar again. It  
444 is possible that other aspects of their experience, for example, scaffolding student's learning  
445 during the lecture/labs, could have helped to foster these continued gains in metacognitive  
446 awareness.

447       Importantly, it does not seem to be the case that the LAs who chose to continue in the  
448 program for a second quarter were different in terms of their MAI scores compared to the  
449 students who left the program after their first quarter.<sup>8</sup> The initial MAI scores of LAs who  
450 continued into their second quarter ( $M = 72.98$ ,  $SD = 9.77$ ) were similar to those who only  
451 participated for one quarter ( $M = 71.11$ ,  $SD = 11.60$ ),  $t(299) = 1.52$ ,  $p = .131$ ,  $d = .18$ . We also  
452 did not observe differences in post-1<sup>st</sup> quarter MAI scores,  $t(299) = 1.17$ ,  $p = .244$ ,  $d = .14$ , or in  
453 the difference between pre-test to post-test in the first quarter,  $t(220.31) = 0.39$ ,  $p = .700$ ,  $d =$   
454  $.05$ <sup>9</sup>. Numerically, the LAs that did not participate again actually showed slightly larger gains in  
455 metacognitive awareness across their first quarter as an LA (1.67 points vs 1.25). In addition to  
456 students who graduated or did not have the opportunity to continue (as their first quarter was in  
457 Spring), there are several logistical reasons why first time LAs may have not continued on with  
458 the program (for example, they may not have had room in their academic schedules).

459       **STEM Motivation.** Using the same subset of 175 LAs, we assessed whether there were

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<sup>8</sup> In order to compare students who "continued" to those that "did not", we excluded the first time Spring quarter LAs who did not have the opportunity to "continue" in the program during the 2019-2020 academic year. We also excluded those who did continue as LAs in Winter 2020 or Spring 2020 but did not complete the survey post-second quarter.

<sup>9</sup> Levene's test for equality of variances indicated the equal variances could not be assumed. A Welch's t-test is reported here.



460 continued changes in students' STEM motivation across their second quarter as an LA. To assess  
 461 this, we conducted a series of paired sample t-tests<sup>10</sup> to compare SMQ subscale scores (i.e.,  
 462 Intrinsic motivation, Career motivation, Self-efficacy, Self-determination, Grade-based  
 463 motivation) from the end of LAs' first quarter to the end of their second quarter. Paired samples  
 464 t-tests revealed no significant differences. However, we observed numeric gains in the same  
 465 subscales (i.e., Intrinsic motivation and Self-efficacy) that showed changes across the first  
 466 quarter. These results suggest that gains from the first quarter in the program are sustained across  
 467 the second quarter, but do not substantially increase. Similar to our analysis of MAI scores, we  
 468 might wonder whether the students who continued in the program were more motivated than  
 469 those who did not. Here we do not see any differences in the motivation of these two groups  
 470 before (all  $|t| < 1.12$ ,  $p > .262$ ) or after (all  $|t| < 1.41$ ,  $p > .161$ ) their first quarter in the program.<sup>11</sup>

471

472 **Table 3**

473 *Comparison of Post-first quarter and Post-second quarter SMQ Subscale Scores for LAs who*  
 474 *completed surveys for two quarters*

	Post 1 <sup>st</sup> quarter <i>M (SD)</i>	Post 2 <sup>nd</sup> quarter <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
Intrinsic Motivation	16.10 (2.95)	16.49 (2.59)	2.01	.046	.15
Career Motivation	17.46 (2.84)	17.52 (2.73)	0.31	.759	.02
Self-Determination	16.48 (2.99)	16.69 (2.76)	1.02	.310	.08
Self-efficacy	15.11 (3.37)	15.58 (3.09)	2.16	.032	.16
Grade Motivation	17.01 (3.11)	17.13 (2.83)	0.62	.539	.05

475

<sup>10</sup> To correct for multiple comparisons the alpha level was Bonferroni adjusted. Tests where  $p < .01$  were considered statistically significant.

<sup>11</sup> In order to compare students who "continued" to those that "did not", we excluded the first time Spring quarter LAs who did not have the opportunity to "continue" in the program during the 2019-2020 academic year. We also excluded those who did continue as LAs in Winter 2020 or Spring 2020 but did not complete the survey post-second quarter.

476

**Discussion**

477 Learning Assistant programs improve outcomes for students enrolled in LA supported  
478 courses (Otero et al., 2010; Talbot et al., 2015; White et al., 2016). However, few studies have  
479 examined the impact that participating in an LA program has on the LAs themselves. After  
480 students' first quarter participating in a large, multi-course LA program, we observed small but  
481 promising improvements in metacognitive awareness, intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy.  
482 Metacognitive awareness continued to increase after students' second quarter in the program,  
483 while gains in motivation were maintained. Given these results, LA programs have the potential  
484 to bolster success in STEM for both the students enrolled in LA supported courses as well as the  
485 LAs themselves.

486 The current investigation takes a broad approach to studying the benefits of being an LA  
487 by following a large cohort of students who supported a variety of courses. Given the inherent  
488 variability in the courses and types of activities that LAs assisted with, the active ingredient that  
489 led to the observed changes in motivation and metacognition is not necessarily clear. In fact, it is  
490 difficult to imagine that one specific activity could have driven these results. Instead, we propose  
491 that the gains we observe likely result from multiple aspects of students' experiences in this  
492 program. The present findings align with other interventions showing that explicit instruction in  
493 metacognition in a term-length course can improve in metacognitive awareness (Terlecki &  
494 McMahan, 2018). Similar to programs that have increased students' metacognition (Santangelo  
495 et al., 2021; Sandi-Urena et al., 2011), the LA program occurred over the course of a quarter, and  
496 is a highly interactive experience. We also assume that students' role in preparing to teach and  
497 support their peers (see Fiorella & Mayer, 2013) may have also contributed to these gains.  
498 Finally, the act of writing weekly reflections on their experience as an LA might have led to

499 beneficial gains in metacognition but also might have increased their interest and motivation to  
500 succeed in STEM. Although students were not instructed to specifically write about the utility of  
501 the course material or in-class lab activities they supported, previous work has suggested that  
502 utility-based reflections can lead to improvements in student's motivation and retention in STEM  
503 courses (Canning et al., 2018; Erickson et al., 2021). Future work is needed to tease apart the  
504 unique contributions of different components of the students' experience in this program.

505         It is particularly promising to observe that metacognitive awareness continues to increase  
506 across LAs' second quarter in the program. We also see that the changes in motivation (i.e.,  
507 intrinsic motivation and self-efficacy) are sustained across students' second quarter. This is  
508 particularly impressive given that student motivation typically decreases over the course of the  
509 academic term (Young et al., 2018). Given the nature of our data, we cannot rule out the  
510 possibility that the continued growth could also be attributed to changes that occur as students'  
511 progress through their degree. In order to rule out this possibility, we would need to study a  
512 sample of similarly motivated non-LAs longitudinally, a difficult task given the highly selective  
513 nature of the program. Additional work is needed to examine whether the gains observed here in  
514 metacognition and motivation are sustained even after students leave the program.

### 515 **Limitations**

516         Although we observe improvements in MAI scores, similar to other educational  
517 interventions, (for example interventions aimed at fostering a growth mind set to improve  
518 academic achievement; Sisk et al., 2018), the size of these effects tends to be small (see Kraft et  
519 al., 2020 for a discussion). On average we observe a 1.9 point change on the MAI scale which  
520 would indicate that LAs are endorsing that one or two items are "more typical of them" as  
521 learners after participating in the program.

522           It is important to consider that there may be limitations to using self-report  
523 questionnaires to study metacognition (see Boekaerts & Corno, 2005; Cromley & Azevedo, 2006  
524 for a discussion). One potential issue with this approach is that it relies on the learner's ability to  
525 reflect on their use of strategies that may be largely unconscious (Veenman et al., 2006). It is  
526 plausible that the metacognitive processes of more advanced learners are more automated and  
527 thus they may be less aware of their use of these strategies. It is also difficult to ascertain how  
528 small (1 or 2 point) increases in MAI scores might translate into "real world" changes in  
529 behavior. We know from previous work that MAI scores do correlate with academic outcomes  
530 like course grades ( $r = .19$ ) and GPA ( $r = .23$ ), however, these correlations are relatively small  
531 (Young & Fry, 2008).

532           Even though we used the MAI, a broad measure of metacognition, it is possible that  
533 students' metacognitive abilities were primarily growing in the specific subject area covered by  
534 their LA assigned course. That is, when answering questions on the MAI, they could have been  
535 thinking of themselves as a "physics student" or "biology student". Most studies do not combine  
536 broader measures of metacognitive awareness (like the MAI) with measures that are specific to  
537 course content (i.e., the strategies they are using to solve particular types of problems). This type  
538 of research is necessary to begin to understand the links between domain-general and domain-  
539 specific metacognitive awareness and the degree to which domain-specific experiences impact  
540 the way learners think about their learning more broadly.

541           In prior work and in the present data set, motivation and MAI scores are treated as  
542 separate measures. However, we acknowledge that there is some overlap between these  
543 constructs (e.g., Sperling et al., 2004). In our sample, MAI scores before participating in the  
544 program are correlated with students' Intrinsic motivation ( $r = .42$ ), Career motivation ( $r = .38$ ),

545 Self-efficacy ( $r = .55$ ), Self-determination ( $r = .57$ ), and Grade-based motivation ( $r = .17$ ).  
546 Successful learners likely possess both the motivation and the cognitive skills to succeed. An  
547 important contribution of this work is showing that programs that train student to work with  
548 peers can actually support student's growth in both of these areas. However, given that the  
549 students who choose to enroll in our LA program are already highly motivated and highly  
550 reflective students to begin with, many participants were already using responses at the top of the  
551 scales. In comparison to Glynn et al., (2011)'s sample of stem majors on the pre-1<sup>st</sup> quarter  
552 survey, our sample is almost one point higher on average on each SMQ subscale. Thus, in most  
553 areas there might have been less room to "grow" compared to other studies. Although male and  
554 female students demonstrated similar overall motivation, female LAs did, as reported in previous  
555 work (Glynn et al, 2009; Young et al., 2018), begin the LA program with lower self-efficacy  
556 than male LAs. However, unlike other types of experiences that strengthen student's science  
557 identity (e.g., having the opportunity to develop and test their own hypothesis; Starr et al., 2020)  
558 we did not find evidence that participating in the LA program led to a larger motivational boost  
559 for women or students from underrepresented groups. It follows that we might see even larger  
560 improvements if an LA program was implemented in a sample that had lower baseline  
561 motivation and metacognitive awareness scores.

### 562 **Instructional Implications**

563 As the goal of the LA program is to support the learning and success of undergraduate  
564 STEM students, it is important to consider the potential benefits to students who offer their time  
565 and energy to serve as LAs. Our findings suggest that the LA program does have a positive  
566 impact on these students by supporting the development of their metacognitive awareness and  
567 improving their motivation to succeed in STEM. Although we were unable to assess whether the

568 changes we observed were associated with other future outcomes, in other studies MAI scores  
569 have been positively associated with GPA and course grades (Young & Fry, 2008). We are  
570 hopeful, then that the learning strategies developed in the LA program likely have broader  
571 impacts on student LAs as they progress towards their degree.

572 Many of the individual items on the MAI align with the broader problem-solving and  
573 inquiry-based skills that STEM education aims to foster, such as learning how to solve a  
574 problem, how to search for resources when you get stuck, and how to ask questions to help  
575 further their understanding. Although we did not directly manipulate aspects of the LA program  
576 to determine which components led to these changes, our findings highlight the potential  
577 importance of emphasizing problem-solving strategies in the LA seminar, and having students  
578 reflect on their experiences applying these techniques when working with their peers.

### 579 **Conclusion**

580 The current domain of research presents rich possibilities for assessing the outcomes of  
581 LA program participation. Longer-term changes to other meaningful outcomes such as success in  
582 future STEM courses and retention in STEM majors should be of prime interest.

### 583 **Accessing Materials**

584 No additional materials are available online.

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589

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