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RESEARCH ARTICLES

Navigating the Boundaries of the Scholarship of Engagement at a Regional Comprehensive University

Laura Cruz, Gillian D. Ellern, George Ford, Hollye Moss,
and Barbara Jo White

Abstract

This study analyzes the translation of the Boyer scholarship model (with an emphasis on the scholarship of engagement) into departmental and college-level culture at a regional comprehensive institution. Through an analysis of promotion and tenure documents, the authors concluded that adoption of Boyer's model was a semi-radical process, characterized by unique definitional, conceptual, and logistical challenges that resulted in a diverse array of practices and approaches across the university's departments and colleges.

Introduction

When Ernest Boyer published *Scholarship Reconsidered: Priorities of the Professoriate* in 1990, it sparked a national dialogue that continues to this day. Boyer argued for expanding a definition of scholarship to include not simply traditional research, which he called the scholarship of discovery, but also the scholarships of application, integration, and teaching and learning. Boyer saw his work as calling attention to or enhancing the nature of faculty work that was already taking place, as opposed to displacing or overturning the traditional core of research, teaching, and service. In practice, however, his call for a redefinition of faculty roles evoked changes in practice that were radical for some campus cultures (Johnston, 1998). This article examines the experiences of Western Carolina University, a medium-sized, regional comprehensive institution, with integrating Boyer's model, in particular the scholarship of engagement, into its academic culture.

Literature Review

Nationally, as well as internationally, the work of putting Boyer's vision into practice began with a focus on the scholarship of teaching and learning, one of the four areas of scholarship he advocated (Boyer, 1990; McKinney, 2004). In addition to the leadership provided by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement

of Teaching, the scholarship of teaching and learning benefited from the creation of the International Society for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, a large, active, and multi-disciplinary group of scholars from across the world (McKinney, 2007). Discourse over the years has led to a general understanding of the difference between scholarly teaching and the scholarship of teaching and learning (Huber & Hutchings, 2005).

A universal understanding of the definition of the scholarship of engagement has not evolved (Simpson, 2000). Although movements to create campus-community partnerships and use service-learning projects in teaching (Stanton, Giles, & Cruz, 1999) have made inroads into university culture, the “scholarship of engagement” has not. Boyer himself struggled with the terminology for scholarship that serves the public good. Initially, he used the term “scholarship of application.” Later he modified the model and suggested the centrality of the scholarship of engagement under the broader umbrella of application. In practice the two have become largely synonymous, with slight preference for “the scholarship of engagement” (Boyer, 1996b).

Today, the concept of “the scholarship of engagement” continues to be fraught with definitional issues. To Boyer, the “scholarship of engagement” meant work toward solving “social, civic, and ethical” problems (Boyer, 1996a, p. 11). Some equate the “scholarship of engagement” with that of applied research. Applied research is distinguished from “pure” or “basic” research by its intention (i.e., to solve a practical, as opposed to a theoretical, problem; Collins & Hussey, 2003). Still others use terms such as “public scholarship,” “action research,” “civic liberty scholarship,” and “participatory research” to describe research with this intent (Barker, 2004; Giles, 2008). University administrators have often adopted the term to represent an institution’s increasing leadership in community development with relationships based on stewardship of place, or other partnership models (AASCU, 2002; Bringle, Games, & Malloy, 1999; Brockliss, 2000; Franklin, 2009; Mayfield, 2001; McDonald, 2002).

Some scholars are now redefining the conceptual basis of engagement altogether, preferring the term “engaged scholarship.” They suggest that engaged, civic-minded research crosses the boundaries among teaching, research, and service (Barker, 2004; Finkelstein, 2001). This shift in terminology increases the need for clarity of definitions. The distinction between “scholarship of engagement” and “service” no longer suffices; now “engaged scholarship” must be distinguished from teaching, research, and service (Glass, Doberneck, & Schweitzer, 2010). These definitional issues pose

unique challenges for regional comprehensive universities, like Western Carolina University, with strong regional missions as well as emphases on active and integrated teaching and learning. In this article, the experiences of Western Carolina University serve as an example for these challenges (*O'Meara, 2003*).

Institutional Context

Western Carolina University, nestled in the Appalachian mountains on the western edge of North Carolina, was founded in the late 19th century as a teachers' college in order to produce teachers to serve a rural population. From these foundations, Western Carolina University has evolved into a regional comprehensive university with a student population of almost 10,000 and has been integrated as an institutional partner into the University of North Carolina public higher education system. The faculty are currently divided into six conventional academic colleges, seven if the library is included (see Appendix 1). Because quality teaching is a high priority for the campus, most Western Carolina University faculty carry a 3/3 teaching load and class sizes are relatively small, with an average of just under 25 students in a standard, face-to-face undergraduate class. As Western Carolina University is a Masters Level L institution, many faculty also teach graduate courses and direct master's and Ed.D. theses (*Carnegie Foundation, 2012*). Because of the university's regional classification, faculty are also expected to engage constructively with the needs of the counties composing the western North Carolina region.

Advocates of the "scholarship of engagement" suggest taking several steps to make such work a meaningful part of an institution's culture (*Driscoll & Sandmann, 2004; O'Meara & Jaeger, 2006*). At Western Carolina University, the first phase, recognizing and rewarding multiple forms of scholarship in the tenure and promotion process, came about through the initiative of the faculty senate. Working closely with the Office of the Provost, senate members called for significant revisions of the existing tenure system in 2007. The provost heeded the call and coordinated a process in which each department or program was asked to redesign its requirements around a template (see Appendix 2) created jointly by faculty senate members and the provost. Departments could determine for themselves how to interpret Boyer based on their own disciplinary, pedagogical, and logistical contexts, a method that had been successfully used elsewhere to preserve the balance between departmental autonomy and cohesive institutional culture (*O'Meara & Rice, 2005*). These initial revisions, and the resulting

discussions, took place over the course of the 2007–2008 academic year. Once approved, the documents became the basis for tenure and promotion decisions beginning in 2009.

Assessment Methods

Integrating Boyer's model of scholarship into an academic culture can take many forms. At Western Carolina University, departments were allowed flexibility in incorporating the Boyer model into their own promotion and tenure documents. For this article, the authors explored how the various departments and disciplines operationalized the definition of the scholarship of engagement. Having established this definition, the authors then explored how the various departments recognize, evaluate, and reward scholarship that falls under the category of "engagement."

Sample and Data Collection

The authors performed a qualitative analysis of the promotion and tenure documents across all 33 Western Carolina University departments (see Appendix 1). The typical promotion and tenure document at Western Carolina University is about 20 pages and addresses appropriate levels of teaching, service, and scholarship, with sections devoted to each of the four Boyer categories for the purposes of tenure, promotion, and reappointment.

About the Authors

The authors for this project are part of a faculty learning community whose purpose is to examine the adoption of the Boyer model of scholarship at Western Carolina University in a scholarly way. Initially proposed under the auspices of Western Carolina University's Coulter Faculty Commons, this group of volunteers represented four of the seven colleges, two academic ranks (assistant and associate professor), and a variety of research skills. The group had been working together for several years. To control for potential biases toward home departments or colleges, the group employed a checks and balances system. To ensure the consistency of the values as well as to control for researcher bias, two authors (from different disciplines) independently reviewed each tenure, promotion, and reappointment document. In the case of divergent opinions, a third author assisted. The group resolved questions or concerns collectively.

Data Analysis

The authors began by looking at the integration of the scholarship of teaching and learning but quickly realized that the scholarship of engagement had significant variations in interpretation across the university. Using an emergent content analysis approach (*Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009*), the authors isolated patterns within and among the documents. Those patterns showed four primary points of variation:

- definition(s) of engagement and related terms;
- how appropriate scholarly products were defined;
- how Boyer scholarship of all types was evaluated, relatively and absolutely; and
- how service was defined and valued.

These points of variation were then compared systematically across all departments, using a pattern-coded and cross-indexed spreadsheet. In most cases, departmental documents were assigned values based on the degree to which they moved beyond the template, from low to high differentiation. After reviewing the results, the authors enumerated the emerging patterns using frequency counts and, at appropriate junctures, simple correlations. In short, the study employed textual content analysis of these 33 redesigned documents in order to probe what the scholarship of engagement means, or could mean, to a state or regional comprehensive university.

Limitations of the Study

This study presents distinct limitations, some characteristic of qualitative research in general, and some specific to the study itself. The scope included a single university, and the methods used did not allow for differentiating factors that may be unique to the institution, the departments, or even the individuals who participated in the revision process. The results from this study of a single institution may or may not be representative of other institutions or institutional types. Comparative studies would prove fruitful in the future (*Jordan, 2006*). Further, the quality of the results has not been triangulated with other sources of data (e.g., faculty surveys, tenure decisions), though such efforts are the subject of ongoing research (*Glass, 2008*). Finally, the quality of the conclusions is limited to the extent of the information contained in the documents, which, as noted earlier, are imperfect mirrors for actual practice.

Findings

Although the documents are imperfect mirrors, they do shed light on the process by which theory is translated into reality, in this case the explication of expectations for tenure, promotion, and reappointment. The institutional scope of the study allowed for an analysis of the divergence of interpretation across disciplines and programs, an aspect that has not previously been explored. The results of the study produced four “sticky wickets,” or areas with the greatest degree of differentiation from the baseline (i.e., the template provided by the office of the provost), and thus identified the points of greatest contention within the multiple facets of a single campus.

Point of Contention I: Definition

Under this university’s administrative directive, departments faced their first challenge with the provided descriptions of the Boyer model. Albeit brief, the model stuck closely to Boyer’s original categories and asked faculty to consider this definition of the scholarship of application:

Sometimes called engagement, the scholarship of application goes beyond the provision of service to those within or outside the University. To be considered scholarship, there must be an application of disciplinary expertise with results that can be shared with and/or evaluated by peers such as technical reports, policy statements, guidebooks, economic impact statements, and/or pamphlets. (see Appendix 1, *Western Carolina University Faculty Handbook*, p. 22)

The term suggested was “application,” rather than “engagement,” though potential definitional problems are apparent even in the first sentence. Perhaps because of this, the departmental documents use the terms somewhat interchangeably, in one case adding the term “scholarly engagement” to the mix. Of the 33 departments, only one (History) suggests that public service work be classified as service or outreach rather than scholarship. Eleven (33%) go beyond the general template and explicitly mention public service as a desired emphasis. The Mathematics and Computer Science Department, for example, lists the purpose of this scholarship as to “aid society or discipline in addressing problems.” Several departments include examples of acceptable forms of this scholarship, including leading service-learning projects (Social

Work), participating in programs that enhance health care delivery in the community (Health and Human Services), conducting a study to solve a community problem (Communication Sciences and Disorders), organizing community exhibitions and public art (Art and Design), leading discussions of music for a popular audience (Music), and building “collaborative relationships with their constituencies” (Elementary and Middle Grades Education).

The definition of the scholarship of engagement proved particularly challenging for the departments in the College of Business. The college mission and strategic plan reflect a collective interest in engagement, both in active learning and in regional economic development. Their “business ready” philosophy specifically promotes “academic studies enhanced by practical experience gained from engagement opportunities with businesses and economic and community development agencies in the region and beyond.” In the college, it is expected that faculty who work with organizations will use those experiences to enhance their classroom teaching, but how that work fits into scholarship is less clear. The distinction between application and engagement, for example, invites the open question of whether working with any business, regardless of type, suffices as engagement because of its implications for overall economic development, or whether engaged scholarship must specifically relate to the nonprofit sector.

Point of Contention 2: Scholarly Products

A second disputed area concerns the products of activities such as those from the College of Business described above. Traditionally, scholarship takes written form, largely books or articles, but can also include other documents such as grants. The scholarship of engagement, or engaged scholarship more broadly, often works with less traditional scholarly products (*Ellison & Eatman, 2008*). Not only can engaged scholarship include written work, such as technical reports, guidebooks, funded research grants, client-evaluated consulting engagements, service on boards (with records or products), collaborative work with economic development agencies, or pamphlets, it can also include projects whose public dissemination may or may not include formal documentation, such as presentations, events, mentoring, or facilitation. All but three departments at Western Carolina University suggest that non-traditional products may count toward tenure, but this openness is tempered by a preference for conventional forms. In 16 of the 30 departments (53%) that recognize non-traditional products, at least a foundation of traditional scholarly products is required before a faculty

member may safely consider alternative forms. Some departments suggest examples of non-traditional products, including museum exhibits (History), sponsorship of student research (Engineering and Technology), and assessment of outcomes (Health and Human Sciences), but this was not common. In three cases, the stated examples of non-traditional products included, or focused exclusively on, what would normally be called traditional products, such as journal articles and conference presentations.

Point of Contention 3: Evaluation

With the rise of non-traditional forms of scholarship comes the related task of valuing new products. The standard of scholarly valuation for close to five hundred years has been the double-blind peer-review system (*Spier, 2002*). More recently, the method has increasingly come under attack, especially in the biomedical sciences, for being unreliable, non-standardized, expensive, conservative, or unfair (*Benos et al., 2007; Horrobin, 1990; McCook, 2006; McNutt et al., 1990; Smith, 1997; Suls and Martin, 2009; van Rooyen et al., 1999*), but it can be particularly problematic when dealing with non-traditional scholarly products, as few, if any, established processes or agencies exist to support alternative peer-review. Recognizing this problem, the Carnegie Foundation commissioned and published *Scholarship Assessed: Evaluation of the Professoriate*, which suggests a universal set of review principles to be applied across the Boyer model (*Glassick, Huber, & Maeroff, 1997; Wise, Retzlaff, & Reilly, 2002*). Two departments at Western Carolina University acknowledged and incorporated these standards, and seven more included them in a modified form. Building on Carnegie's work, the National Project for the Documentation of Professional Service and Outreach produced *Making Outreach Visible: A Guide to Documenting Professional Service and Outreach* in 1999 (*Driscoll & Lynton, 1999; Driscoll & Sandmann, 2001*) but this work did not appear anywhere in documentation from the 33 departments, nor did references to its review board. It would appear that despite concerted efforts to establish a universally recognized peer-review framework, this goal has not yet been achieved at Western Carolina University, at least in terms of formal policy and procedures.

On a more positive note, at Western Carolina University, 29 departments included some mechanism for alternative or external peer-review for non-traditional products in the scholarship of engagement category. The major challenge in peer-review of engaged scholarship is the question of who, or what, constitutes a peer. Advocates of engaged scholarship have called for broadening

the definition of “peer” to include non-academic leaders (*Cantor & Lavine, 2007*) or others, such as community members, who might benefit from the scholarly work (*Kennedy et al., 2003*). Establishing a list of qualified reviewers outside academia has proven to be a challenge for engaged scholarship across the country. Although most departments at Western Carolina University do not explicitly exclude non-academic peers, the processes for finding and vetting such reviewers remain fluid, particularly in the rural environment of Western Carolina University.

Peer-review of engagement projects not only occurs as a post-project review process, but can also involve a peer-review prior to completion of the project or even during the planning stages. Nearly a quarter of all departments (8 out of 33, or 24%) offered faculty members an opportunity for prior review of engagement projects through internal feedback processes, often in consultation with fellow faculty members serving on either department or college-level promotion and tenure committees. The Department of Elementary and Middle Grades Education, for example, used a fairly typical statement: “The candidate may request prior review of the proposed project in order to get feedback from the Collegial Review Advisory Committee.” This type of prior review process recognizes that some faculty members may favor, or need, greater clarity than the documents provide, and that they should seek that assurance on a case-by-case basis.

For the more summative purposes of estimating quality, all departments indicated that external peer-review for non-traditional products was either strongly encouraged or desired. The processes for that review, however, varied considerably. Some departments (11 out of 33, or 33%) did not indicate specific procedures for external review. Five departments (15%) suggested that the external review process would be accomplished by the individual faculty member as they saw fit. Others (17 out of 33, or 51%) suggested specific procedures. Of those 17, eight (24%) allowed for modified faculty participation, most commonly in the form of the faculty member drawing up a slate of potential external reviewers and the department head or promotion and tenure committee selecting at least one of the reviewers from those faculty-generated choices. Finally, a similar number of departments (9 out of 33, or 27%) indicated that external reviewers would be chosen by an administrative entity, usually a department head or dean, either unilaterally or in consultation with a promotion and tenure committee. Given that these processes are, for all intents and purposes, without precedent on the campus of Western Carolina University,

it appears that the departments are trying to maintain maximum flexibility in determining the quality of non-traditional scholarship. Advocates of engaged scholarship also call for a re-conceptualization of quality standards, and particularly for increased emphasis on measuring public impact, but this issue arose in only a handful of the documents at Western Carolina University, and in most cases quality standards were largely left to be determined on the same highly flexible, case-by-case basis.

Because so much of the work done by its departments could fall between application and engagement and between teaching, service, and scholarship, the Kimmel School of Construction Management and Technology chose to create a college-level engagement committee, consisting of the dean, representatives from each of the two departments, and at least one external reviewer. The primary purpose of the committee is to provide prior review, that is, to determine what kinds of scholarly products are valued and how and by whom they are valued; however, it is also tasked with providing external review at all levels of evaluation. In 2012, the committee had not been presented with a single case for consideration, but the documents make clear that there is an opportunity to do so.

Engaged scholars have called for broadening the definition of *peer* because their work extends outside the halls of academia and into the real world. Outside the campus, the world does not always fit into the same neat compartments as academic life, which gives rise to the need to also reconsider how scholarship is conducted. Engaged scholarship thrives on collaboration across disciplines (multi-, inter-, and intra-disciplinary work is common) and between academic and community partners. Another challenge to rewarding engaged scholarship is apportioning credit for shared projects and rewarding multidisciplinary research. The majority of departments apportion the highest overall values to publications in the top ranks of discipline-specific journals (in several cases, a list of desired outlets is included in the promotion and tenure documents) or presses, a practice that may preclude some types of inter- or multi-disciplinary work. Several departments at Western Carolina University (12 out of 33, or 36%) indicate a preference for or assign higher values to single author or first author publications. On the other hand, a smaller number (10 out of 33, or 30%) indicate a preference for collaborative work. These departments do not necessarily further elucidate desired collaborators (although three departments do specify a preference for work with students). This issue concerns more than credit, however, and hits at the heart

of deep-rooted assumptions in academia. The postmodernists led the revolt against the concept of authorship well before Boyer's career, and it is likely that this boundary dispute is part of a larger epistemological battle that continues to challenge the relationship between knowledge and its creators (*Barthes, 1977; Foucault, 1977*).

In the School of Construction Management, because faculty come from varied backgrounds (at least in part because it is a relative newcomer to academia), and because of the multi-faceted nature of construction work in the real world, collaboration is explicitly encouraged and rewarded in the department. Faculty can publish the results of collaborative projects in conference proceedings, which are recognized and valued as a convenient way to disseminate best practice information, and in peer-reviewed scholarly and trade journals. Most of the scholarship generated in the department has multiple authors, which can (and do) include community or business partners, and shared scholarship often counts equally with single author publications. According to department members, this has fostered a collegial environment and has also led to an increase in inter-disciplinary scholarship between the department and other colleagues on campus. More research is needed to determine to what extent these opportunities translate into cultural change, but the documents attest to more avenues through which collaboration and integration might be pursued.

Point of Contention 4: Concept

All departments at Western Carolina University had well-developed and generally comprehensive statements and requirements for excellence in teaching. Most had fleshed out scholarship requirements to some degree. In the area of service, however, seven out of 33 (21%) did not move beyond the standard template for explicating expectations, and 15 out of 33 (45%) only modified the baseline slightly, most commonly by providing specific disciplinary examples of exemplary service. The template, or baseline, for the service section makes explicit reference to engagement (as befits the university's mission) and includes the following statement:

Service includes community engagement (e.g., providing disciplinary expertise to a professional, civic, economic, or educational entity at the local, regional, or national level).

Ten departments (30%) displayed a highly developed service ethos, moving far beyond the baseline to include principles, checklists, criteria, and further differentiation of service types or roles.

Interestingly, an analysis using Pearson's correlation coefficient indicates a statistically significant linear relationship ($n = 33$, $r = .507$, $p < .003$) between highly developed service expectations and value placed on the scholarship of engagement. No other correlations reached this level of significance. This finding suggests that at Western Carolina University, the boundary between engaged scholarship and service is the most robust.

That being said, there was less consistency in differentiating service activities from scholarship. Some departments, for example, valued work on accreditation or program review documents as scholarship, others as service. At times, this was discipline related. For example, the School of Stage and Screen valued work with community theater as scholarship, but other, non-performance-based departments placed analogous work under service. The most contested area concerned grants. For some departments, an unsuccessful grant application, whether internal or external, counted in the scholarship category. For others, the grant application either had to be external or over a threshold amount (e.g., \$10,000) to count as scholarship. Yet others ascribe a grant to scholarship only if it was successful, and a handful of departments do not mention grants under scholarship at all.

Because of their distinctive service mission, the librarians faced this definitional challenge in a way that other departments did not. Before the rewrite of the university's faculty handbook and the addition of the Boyer model of scholarship, the word "scholarship" was rarely, if ever, used in any of the library's documents. Across the university, the broader term "professional development" included publications but also other activities such as presentations. Unlike most other departments, the library used the term "professional development" with no specific expectation of published scholarship. In their previous documents, for example, librarians were encouraged to find a way to share their knowledge with others, and could do so in a variety of ways, of which publication was only one possibility. With the new Boyer categories, however, many of these activities count as service rather than scholarship, which changed the equation for their tenure processes. Their example suggests that the conceptual link between engagement and scholarship is also subject to differing interpretations.

Implications

David Schon described Boyer's model as an epistemological shift, but emphasized that the shift was particularly challenging to the "technical rationality" found in research institutions (Schon, 1995). Most faculty at Western Carolina University received their training (and scholarly socialization) at research universities (Wu, 2005), but face different circumstances of academic life and work at a state comprehensive university. Boyer's model still presents a fundamental shift, but one that is only semi-radical because research does not hold the same position in the overall balance of faculty load and service (Martinez-Brawley, 2003; Neumann & Terosky, 2007). Research on the status and identity of state comprehensive universities has shown that among the different institutional levels, theirs is the least defined and falls somewhere between the research focus of research institutions and the teaching focus of liberal arts colleges. This role conflict can often translate into increased demands on faculty time. Faculty are expected to do research as if they worked at a research university, teach as if at a liberal arts college, and provide significant service to the region as if at a land-grant institution (Henderson, 2007). It is no wonder Coser (1974) referred to state comprehensive universities as "greedy institutions," and that measures of faculty satisfaction tend to be lower at state comprehensive universities than at other types of institutions (Henderson, 2007). That being said, several state comprehensive universities, including Western Carolina University, introduced the Boyer model in an effort to address this role conflict and to find ways to recognize and reward state comprehensive university faculty for the full range of their scholarly work. In its most robust form, engaged scholarship overlaps with all three areas of faculty work life—teaching, research, and service—and may provide faculty members with a way to integrate different facets of their work life more clearly, a process that research has shown leads to increased faculty well-being (Bloomgarden & O'Meara, 2007; Janke & Colbeck, 2008). Whether this will be the case at Western Carolina University remains to be seen.

The larger cultural, logistical, and even epistemological obstacles to the adoption of Boyer have been noted by nearly all those who have studied the topic, and the ineffability of many of these aspects complicates the process of developing effective solutions (Bloomgarden & O'Meara, 2007; Fear, Rosaen, Foster-Fishman, & Bawden, 2001; Finkelstein, 2001). It can be tempting to point fingers, blaming faculty for knee-jerk conservatism or administration for trifling commitments, but these complaints lack an analytical basis or

constructive goals. At Western Carolina University, the move toward adoption of Boyer, and engaged scholarship in particular, occurred not so much as a revolutionary shift, but as a semi-radical nudge. While administration provided the initial impetus for change, the translation of the Boyer directive into departmental and college-level cultures necessitated traversing a whole range of definitional borders, including discipline, accreditation bodies, custom, local communities, and more, as the examples presented here vividly illustrate. One faculty member commented (anecdotally) that the process resembled a game of bocce ball, with each unit trying to toss its ball closer to the mark, resulting in a seemingly random constellation.

The constellations surrounding engaged scholarship differed markedly from that of the scholarship of teaching and learning, however, suggesting the degree of penetration also depends on an additional (and often overlooked) variable in evaluating the impact of the Boyer model: the type of scholarship. The experience at Western Carolina University shows that the integration of the scholarship of engagement differed considerably from that of the scholarship of teaching and learning, and faced very different obstacles and opportunities (Cruz, Ellern, Ford, Moss, & White, 2010). One of the most marked differences concerned definitional boundaries. To extend the previous analogy, the scholarship of teaching and learning tosses were more closely clumped together, reflecting a greater consensus on definitions and criteria. Efforts to standardize the definition of engaged scholarship have not been as consistent or universal as those applied to the scholarship of teaching and learning, but engaged scholarship also faces definitional boundaries that the scholarship of teaching and learning does not, particularly in terms of integrating new actors, especially the larger community, into the scholarship equation.

Another potential implication can be drawn here. Boyer intended that his categories would reward and recognize faculty for work that they were already doing, placing him in the role of reluctant revolutionary. In the case of the scholarship of teaching and learning, faculty members had already been teaching, particularly at a state comprehensive university with a strong teaching mission, but had not necessarily been engaging in systematic or empirical studies of that teaching. Before Boyer, in other words, there was not a great deal of scholarship of teaching and learning work being done. On the other hand, many departments, especially in applied disciplines, had already integrated engagement into their *raison d'être*, their curriculums, and their research agendas, as seen in

several of the departments described above. At the same time, comprehensive universities had been stepping up to the plate in terms of their own relationships with local communities and rewarding faculty who contributed to civic engagement and development. So, unlike the scholarship of teaching and learning, engaged scholarship faced a well-entrenched set of practices and processes. Thus, the logistical challenge is not to create a set of standards from the bottom up, but rather to negotiate a composite that can please all parties.

As in many exercises of compromise, the results have not been equally acceptable to all. At Western Carolina University, for example, the adoption of the Boyer model has led to the tightening of some boundaries that had previously been more permeable, a process from which not all have equally benefited. In the case of the library, for example, the move from professional development to engaged scholarship has not necessarily resulted in the liberation that Boyer likely imagined his model would yield. The other unintended consequence of the Boyer model is that it places so many activities in the domain of scholarship that it can lead to the inadvertent neglect of the integrative aspects of teaching, research, and service. The most recent models of engaged scholarship attempt to reach beyond the “four boxes” of Boyer scholarship and give this work a broader, more holistic position in faculty work life that transgresses existing boundaries. This dimension was almost wholly lacking in the tenure documents at Western Carolina University, an observation that gives some food for thought about the next stages of amending recognition and reward systems.

The negotiation of tighter boundaries for engaged scholarship does, however, have its positive side. While the move to adopt the scholarship of teaching and learning was certainly contested at Western Carolina University, supporters and detractors were clearly demarcated by a distinct boundary. For administrative purposes, these clear lines are likely viewed as beneficial. Faculty, regardless of discipline, on the other hand, have been highly trained to wrangle less well-defined issues and often revel in the chance to wrap their heads around complex problems without clear solutions or outcomes, a condition that more closely resembles the adoption of scholarship of engagement.

More than any other aspect of Boyer, the scholarship of engagement with its disputed definitional borders, ambiguous points of intersection, overlapping jurisdictions, and epistemological and logistical challenges, has productively challenged the faculty at Western Carolina University to examine and reflect on what they

do, why they do it, and what it means. As Gil Scott Heron famously wrote, “the revolution will not be televised”; that is, profound change does not occur by passivity, but rather by active engagement with the issues. The experiences of Western Carolina University suggest that while we are not a campus of revolutionaries, we are in many exciting and interesting ways a campus of semi-radical revolution.

Conclusion

In summary, when dealing with a cultural shift this radical, it is not surprising to find differentiated degrees of support and understanding for Boyer’s model as a whole, and others may expect to find similar results (O’Meara & Rice, 2005). The experiences of Western Carolina University suggest that a myriad of challenges arise with the use of the term “engaged scholarship,” and further questions arise when applying the term across multiple disciplinary contexts. This study has shown that there is much greater variation and considerably less consensus in definitions of the scholarships of application and engagement than in the definition of the scholarship of teaching and learning. Despite these challenges, the intentional move to change the culture at Western Carolina University has given rise to a campus actively engaged in productive and stimulating conversations to discover what it means to be an engaged institution.

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Appendix I: Academic Departments

At Western Carolina University there are 32 academic departments within six colleges or schools, plus the library, for thirty-three total departments. The academic departments, organized by college, are:

College of Arts and Sciences: Anthropology and Sociology, Biology, Chemistry and Physics, Communication, English, Geoscience and Natural Resources, History, Mathematics and Computer Science, Modern Foreign Languages, Philosophy and Religion, Political Science and Public Affairs

College of Business: Accounting, Finance, Information Systems, and Economics; Business Administration and Law and Sport Management; Center for Entrepreneurship and Innovation; Global Management and Strategy; Sales, Marketing, and Hospitality and Tourism

College of Education and Allied Professions: Educational Leadership and Foundations; Elementary and Middle Grades Education; Health, Physical Education, and Recreation; Human Services; Psychology

College of Fine and Performing Arts: Stage and Screen, Art and Design, Music

College of Health and Human Sciences: Criminology and Criminal Justice; Communication Sciences and Disorders; Health Sciences; Nursing; Physical Therapy; Social Work

Kimmel School of Construction Management and Technology: Construction Management, Engineering and Technology

Appendix 2: Template

Western Carolina University Faculty Handbook Section 4.04:
Standards for Collegial Review

C. University Standards for Collegial Review

Faculty members at WCU are expected to be effective teachers, to be practicing scholars in their disciplines, and to provide meaningful service to the University and the community. The particular mix of these expected activities will vary as a function of departmental missions and the role of the faculty member in the department. Tenure-track or tenured faculty members should be active in all three areas. The following minimum university standards provide the groundwork for departments to establish specific criteria for collegial review.

I. Teaching

Faculty members at WCU are scholarly teachers who provide evidence that their teaching is effective, i.e. their students learn. Effective teaching will be documented through the use of student, peer, and self-evaluations. Students provide reports that teachers are organized, clear, and enthusiastic, provide frequent and fair evaluations, and maintain an appropriate level of communication. Peers provide reports that faculty members design their courses in ways that help students learn, are knowledgeable and reflective about both their subject matter and their teaching, and challenge their students intellectually. Faculty members will also self-report and evaluate their teaching.

2. Scholarship

Faculty members should demonstrate that they are current and scholarly in their disciplines as reflected in the ways they teach and serve. They are also expected to demonstrate regular activity in one or more types of scholarship outlined below. The relative emphasis on each type of scholarship will be determined in the context of departmental and university mission and needs. Expectations of scholarly activity should be consistent with peer institutions. Departments will provide guidelines in AFE/TPR [Annual Faculty Evaluation/Tenure, Promotion, and Reappointment] documents for dissemination and evaluation of scholarship. The four types of scholarship from Ernest Boyer's model include:

- **Scholarship of discovery.** Scholarship of this type includes original research that advances knowl-

edge and may involve publishing journal articles, authoring/editing books, or presenting at conferences. This type of scholarship also includes creative activities such as artistic products, performances, musical, or literary works.

- **Scholarship of integration.** Scholarship of this type involves synthesis of information across disciplines, across topics within a discipline, or across time. Textbooks, bibliographies, and book reviews are examples of this type of scholarship.
- **Scholarship of application.** Sometimes called engagement, the scholarship of application goes beyond the provision of service to those within or outside the University. To be considered scholarship, there must be an application of disciplinary expertise with results that can be shared with and/or evaluated by peers such as technical reports, policy statements, guidebooks, economic impact statements, and/or pamphlets.
- **Scholarship of teaching and learning.** Scholarship of this type is the systematic study of teaching and learning processes. It differs from scholarly teaching in that it requires a format that will allow public sharing and the opportunity for application and evaluation by others.

Departments should recognize and evaluate a wide variety of scholarly activities consistent with the department's and the University's mission. Scholarly activities should not be rigidly categorized. Many activities and products can be classified as more than one type of scholarship.

3. Service

Faculty members are expected to participate in service. Service is expected to increase over a faculty member's employment. Primarily, service requires general expertise and is done as an act of good citizenship. Service at the department, college/school and university levels, includes serving on committees (e.g., search committees, curriculum committees, and collegial review committees), recruiting students, mentoring new faculty members, and advising administrators.

Service may also require special expertise, unusual time commitments, or exceptional leadership. Examples of such service include exercise of special technological, research or pedagogical skills, involvement with students in extracurricular activities, leadership in university governance, or taking on special administrative assignments (e.g., being department head, directing a graduate program, administering a grant obtained by the University).

Service includes community engagement (e.g., providing disciplinary expertise to a professional, civic, economic, or educational entity at the local, regional, or national level).

Advising students is a significant form of service. Advisers are expected to be informed about curriculum and related processes, to be available to those they advise, and to help students in their academic and career planning.

Pecan Research and Outreach in New Mexico: Logic Model Development and Change in Communication Paradigms

Theodore W. Sammis, Manoj K. Shukla, John G. Mexal,
Junming Wang, and David R. Miller

Abstract

Universities develop strategic planning documents, and as part of that planning process, logic models are developed for specific programs within the university. This article examines the long-standing pecan program at New Mexico State University and the deficiencies and successes in the evolution of its logic model. The university's agricultural experiment station's pecan program logic model has evolved along with increased external funding, but never has developed into a complete logic model because the outcome-impact component remains incomplete. With increased assistance from the university, the pecan industry grew and became stronger and more economically viable; however, the incomplete development of a pecan program logic model has prevented development of a complete synergy. The evaluation of outcome-impact is most efficient and accurate when at least part of the evaluation is conducted with methods independent of the growers.

Introduction

Changes in crop management occur through research and extension activities at the national and state levels in the United States. State universities develop strategic planning documents to guide the development of their research and extension activities, with the goal of improving crop management, decreasing environmental degradation, and improving economic return. Consequently, as part of that planning process, logic models are developed for specific agricultural commodity research and extension programs within the university. A logic model defines how a program of agricultural research and extension intends to produce particular results. It consists of input, output, and outcome-impact components. The inputs of the logic model are personnel and economic resources; the output is a communication system; the impacts are the changes in activity of the intended audience. The audience can be producers, marketing systems, government regulators, or government funding agencies. The effectiveness of the communication system is the outcome-impact.

These integrated programs defined by the logic model involved multiple department, research, and extension expertise. The logic model concept was developed during the 1960s and 1970s when the U.S. government needed a method to measure the value and impact of governmental social programs. The government found that programs and measures of outcomes or impacts did not generally correspond to program objectives. Program logic models became a formal part of extension programs only in the 1970s (Weiss, 1972). Penn State University's Cooperative Extension in the College of Agriculture has used logic models to develop 5-year plans of work (Corbin, Kiernan, Koble, Watson, & Jackson, 2004) that involved both research and extension activities.

Inputs to a logic model can change with funding sources and amounts because these external forces affect change in any institution's priorities (Miller, 1992). The outcome component of the logic model is usually the least developed component of the model. New research has been conducted on the use of remote sensing to evaluate the outcome-impact, but this technology has yet to be incorporated into logic models. Remote sensing outcome-impact tools have been developed to determine the increase in crop yield due to the release of new varieties and changes in management (Serrano, Filella, & Penuelas, 2000). Remote sensing also has been used to evaluate the reduction in soil erosion due to changing farming practices (Frazier & Cheng, 1989; Jakubauskas, Legates, & Kastens, 2002).

Currently, even though new proposals to the U.S. government require it, few logic models exist as part of the academic community program development. Generally, only part of a given logic model will be developed and implemented; that part consists of the allocation of personnel and economic resources (inputs) and the implementation of a change in the communication system (output). New Mexico State University has had a pecan program extension/research for growers in the state since the early 1900s. Before the 1970s, the concept of developing a formal logic model did not exist, but part of the process often was followed as common sense plans were made and implemented. The university created inputs and outputs but did not create outcome-impact evaluation to evaluate a change in the way the pecan crop was produced in the state. Outcome-impact did occur but never was evaluated in a formal methodology. Throughout the history of communication between New Mexico State University and the pecan growers, the communication system and the pecan program logic model changed due both to internal actions by the university and to external forces caused by the formation of pecan grower

associations and the acquisition of research grants. Figure 1 shows the current form of the pecan research/extension logic model.

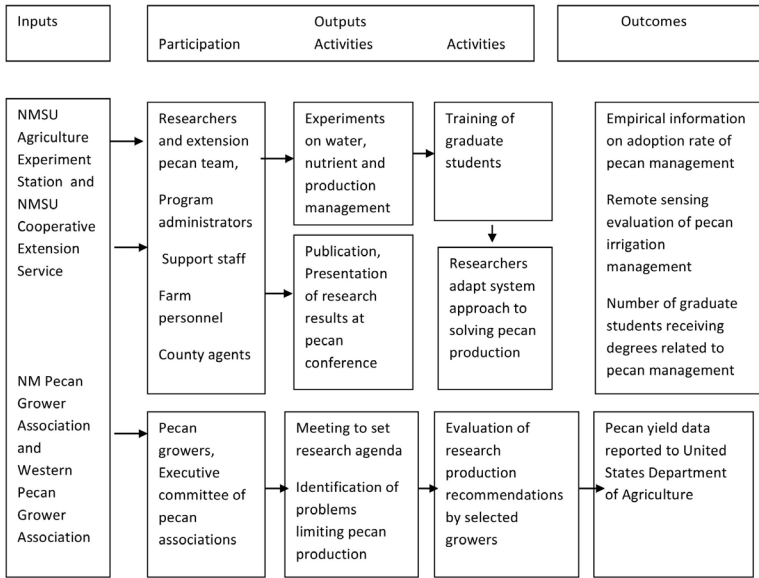


Figure 1. Current Status of Pecan Logic Model

Over time, the output communication component in the activities area of the logic model has undergone the most change. The output communication system is a transfer of documented scientific facts or an interpretation of these facts by the communicator (Fisher, 1989). The methodology can consist of communication by scientific peer review, as well as professional (no review process), interpersonal, and small-group communication.

Objectives

The objectives of this study were to document and understand the evolution of the pecan logic model and the communication system within the logic model of New Mexico State University due to these (external and/or internal) forces. An understanding of how the communication system changed over time and how resource allocation occurred can give guidance on directions for future communication and resource allocation to develop an effective program logic model for the pecan industry as well as other agricultural commodities.

History of the Pecan Program and Communication System Between New Mexico State University and Pecan Growers and Change in the Pecan Logic Model

The basic assumption when developing a logic model is that facilities and personnel needed for the inputs to the model are available and that the inputs are compatible in scope with the desired outputs and outcomes. Consequently, the history of the pecan logic model changed with changing financial resources due to both internal and external funding at New Mexico State University. The first publication by researchers at the university evaluated the pecan varieties planted in the university orchard in 1915 (*Garcia & Fitz, 1925*), and the communication system to the growers was by written for scientific peer-reviewed publications using a scientific expert (formal) vocabulary (Table 1) and researcher-to-grower personal communication. At that time, the inputs to the pecan logic model were university researchers with the agricultural experiment station. This communication resulted in the outcome-impact of growers starting new pecan orchards and the first large-scale commercial planting of pecans in New Mexico in 1934 and 1935 on a farm south of Las Cruces. The variety planted was “Western Schley” with the variety “Burkett” as the pollinator (*Herrera, 2008*). Had it formally existed, the outcome-impact component in the pecan logic model would have been an increase in planted acreage of pecan trees. Pecan acreage was not measured, but pecan production was measured starting in 1920 (*Herrera, 2008*). Total pecan acreage planted can be estimated from total pecan production. The largest pecan farm was the Stahmann farm, which in the 1930s and 1940s planted 4,000 acres of mostly “Western” and “Bradley” trees along the Rio Grande. Currently, the technology is available to measure the increases in pecan acreage by remote sensing (*Masoner, Mladinich, Konduris, & Smith, 2011*), but a user-friendly software tool to analyze the remote sensing data available on the Internet must be developed.

Table 1. Description of Communication Systems, Pecan Logic Model Inputs, Outputs, and Outcomes Over Time

Communication type	Inputs	Outputs	Outcomes
1. Written, New Mexico State University Agricultural Experiment Station publication and journal articles (peer-reviewed).	Researcher, New Mexico State University Agricultural Experiment Station and Cooperative Extension Service.	A pecan orchard was established. Research on pecan management started. New Mexico State University Agricultural Experiment Station publication on pecans.	Growers came to know about the feasibility of pecan production in New Mexico. Growers started showing interest in planting pecans. By 1920, 370 acres planted.

Table 1 Continued. Description of Communication Systems, Pecan Logic Model Inputs, Outputs, and Outcomes Over Time

Communication type	Inputs	Outputs	Outcomes
<p>2.</p> <p>Written journal articles (peer-reviewed) and New Mexico State University Agricultural Cooperative Extension Service publications (no review process). Oral presentations to growers.</p>	<p>Growers, researchers, New Mexico State University Agricultural Experiment Station and Cooperative Extension Service. Extension specialist (75% extension, 25% research) for nut trees, grapes, and fruit trees was hired.</p>	<p>Start of Western Pecan Growers Association conference.</p> <p>Presentation at the conference by New Mexico State University Agricultural Experiment Station and Cooperative Extension Service personnel.</p> <p>Proceedings of Western Pecan Growers Association published by New Mexico State University Cooperative Extension Service.</p> <p>Research on pecan management continued.</p>	<p>Pecan orchard acreage increased to 8,200 acres by 1979.</p> <p>Hiring of graduate students to conduct pecan management research.</p>
<p>3.</p> <p>Expansion of oral and personal communication among growers and specialists. Continuation of writing communication through journal articles and New Mexico State University Cooperative Extension Service publications.</p>	<p>Growers, researchers, New Mexico State University Agricultural Experiment Station and Cooperative Extension Service. Extension specialist and executive committee of Western Pecan Growers Association.</p>	<p>Started a dialogue between Western Pecan Growers Association and university involving executive committee (consisting of growers) in setting research priorities every 5 years.</p> <p>Continuation of research presentations at the conferences, proceeding publication, and one-on-one consulting.</p>	<p>Pecan orchard acreage increased to 29,000 acres by 1996.</p> <p>Hiring of graduate students to conduct pecan management research.</p>
<p>4.</p> <p>Small-group communication. Written, oral lecture, and oral personal communication, web-based communication.</p>	<p>Individual team members from New Mexico State University, University of California at Davis, Texas A&M University, including Extension specialist.</p>	<p>Pecan researchers and extension personnel formed a pecan research team.</p> <p>Started research collaboration with other states.</p> <p>Continued with marketing, research, and extension activities.</p>	<p>Team (New Mexico State University, University of California at Davis, Texas A&M University) conference and journal publications.</p> <p>Pecan orchard acreage increased to 36,000 acres by 2009.</p> <p>Hiring of graduate and postdoctoral students to conduct pecan management research.</p>

New Mexico State University between 1953 and 1963 published articles on pecan production management (*Harper & Enzie, 1956*), controlling zinc deficiency in pecans (*Harper, 1960*), economic aspects of pecan production (*Burke & Sydney, 1963*), and a survey of pecans and apples (*Statistical Reporting Service, 1963*). The limited number of publications represented the limited university resources allocated to pecan research and outreach. When the number of pecan growers in the western United States reached a sustainable level in 1966, the Western Pecan Growers Association was formed and set a goal of strengthening collaboration among growers and research and extension personnel involved with pecans. Consequently, the input component of the pecan program logic model was increased to include growers' participation (Figure 1). The professional verbal communication (no review process) between researchers and producers was expanded considerably with the annual conference of the Western Pecan Growers Association, which focused on all aspects of pecan production management. The research findings of the New Mexico State University faculty were, and continue to be, presented at the conference in both oral lecture and written non-peer-reviewed proceedings, including the effect of availability of nitrogen fertilizer on mature pecan trees (*Sullivan, O'Connor, & Herrera-Aguirre, 1976*), marketing of pecans (*Clevenger & Campbell, 1971*), costs and returns to help growers reduce production costs (*Gorman, Landrum, & Hicks, 1980*), and the use of a pecan irrigation scheduling model (*Kallestad, Mexal, Sammis, & Heerema, 2008*).

The attendance of 600 to 700 participants at the annual conferences led to the assumption that some of the research management recommendations presented at the conferences were implemented. No survey was performed nor data collected to substantiate this assumption. The number of presentations varied from nine in 1969 to 33 in 1974. Presentations have covered a wide range of topics, including frost protection, leaf analysis, the effect of chilling and stratification on nut germination, the effect of growing-degree days on the adaptability of pecan varieties, and reduced irregular bearing with mechanical nut thinning (Table 2).

Table 2. Type and Number of Presentations at the Western Pecan Growers Association Annual Meetings from 1966-2007

Topics	Presentations (No.)	Area covered
Insecticide and insects (aphids and case bearer, pecan weevil)	100	Use, impact on beneficial insect types, systemic versus contact, biological control, integrated pest management
Orchard management	52	Harvesting, pruning, pollination
Marketing	47	Marketing organizations, types of promotion, cost, and support
Irrigation	45	Irrigation design and management
Fertilizer	27	Amounts, timing, nitrogen source, zinc, manganese, nutrition
Tree planting	18	Density of planting, new plantings, transplanting, rootstock
Economics	12	Production cost, industry survival, insect control economics
Weeds	9	Type, control
Disease	9	Nematode, pecan shuck, and bunch disease
Salinity	6	Management, impact on yield, root uptake

However, at this time, no formal outcome-impact assessment on the impact of any change in pecan production management was conducted as required by a complete pecan logic program model. Anecdotal evidence was collected that pecan producers changed the way they pruned their trees, that they applied nitrogen more frequently and in smaller amounts, and that a large pecan grower established a retail outlet. However, no survey was conducted to substantiate this information. Only pecan yield data in total pounds for the crop was collected at that time.

Research continued on variety development, and in 1983 the “Sullivan” variety, which is the result of a controlled cross between “Stuart” and “Nugget” pecans, was released by the agricultural experiment station. Another variety, “Salopek,” was released in 1990 (Herrera, 2005). The agricultural experiment station projected that these new releases would be planted in new orchards and would result in increased yield and profits for the pecan growers, and concluded that future research on pecan management should be conducted for these new varieties. However, the communication system lacked a feedback evaluation to inform growers of the new releases. Consequently, no follow-up communications were implemented, and neither variety was planted in any large acreage.

Extension Specialist Impact of Logic Model

The hiring in 1978 of a pecan and fruit specialist by New Mexico State University's Cooperative Extension Service expanded the input to the pecan logic model. The increase in inputs resulted in more extension and research publications, demonstration workshops, and a pecan conference. The output was expanded to include not only New Mexico State University Extension Guide publications, which were a series of management guides on pecan production, but publication in *Pecan South*, a non-peer-reviewed journal. *The Pecan Handbook*, a management handbook on how to produce pecans, first published in 1985, was a compilation of research and extension activities (Herrera, 2009). The hiring of the extension specialist also provided the feedback needed in the logic model as part of the outcome-impact. However, the outcome-impact was communication between only the growers and the extension specialist, and this communication was not documented in any formal manner. Consequently, their communication does not fit the definition of an outcome assessment in the pecan logic model. Because the extension specialist was also part of the research team defining future research needs, the verbal feedback was incorporated to a limited degree in future pecan research proposals, which in turn affected the economic return of the pecan industry to the economy of New Mexico (Evenson, 2000).

External Funding Impact on Logic Model

The first source of external monetary support for pecan research became available in 1983 when a water-use project was funded by the New Mexico Water Research Institute (Sammis, Riley, & Lugg, 1988). This external funding increased the New Mexico State University Agricultural Experiment Station's input efforts in the logic model. By 1995, the resulting output activity of the logic model expanded to include lobbying the U.S. congressman representing southern New Mexico to influence the allocation of federal research dollars for pecan research management in the western United States through a specific cooperative agreement between the U.S. Department of Agriculture, the Agricultural Research Southeast Fruit and Nut Research Laboratory, the agricultural experiment stations at New Mexico State University, and the University of Arizona. This new funding resulted in research on pecan growth, pecan yield, and management of pecan orchards through the development of a pecan growth model (Andales et al., 2006), as well as a pecan irrigation scheduling model (Kallestad et al., 2008). These funds continue to support research to date, albeit at a diminished level. But again, no formal tool has been developed and used to evaluate the logic model outcome-impact, which may

have been part of the reason for a decrease in the allocated research funds in the current 5-year funding cycle.

In 1995 pecan growers initiated a new communication system. Pecan growers and the research and extension personnel began meeting once every 5 years at the renewal of the Agricultural Research Service project to set research priorities (Table 1). At the meeting between the researchers and growers, the vocabulary tended to be at the expert level of use by the researchers, which at times caused communication problems. The traditional extension oral and written professional communication system was not intended for setting research priorities, but was mainly for conveying research results at the intermediate vocabulary level. Growers wanted research results for immediate problems. Researchers wanted to conduct research that would lead to journal articles and research funds. The funding requests from government agencies may not be in areas directly related to many pecan growers' immediate needs. The pecan growers in New Mexico, unlike other commodity groups, would not support a check-off system to support research activities, but were frustrated when their research priorities did not always match university activities.

By the time the pecan extension and fruit specialist retired in 2002, pecans had become one of the most important crops in the state. The inputs to the logic model had to be expanded because New Mexico State University (internal force) believed the pecan industry had expanded to a size requiring a dedicated specialist and decided to hire a pecan specialist whose job description was limited to nut-tree extension activities. This led to an increase in the output of the logic model via more extensive oral lectures and oral professional and interpersonal communication, as well as through web-based communication, all at the intermediate vocabulary level. The result was a more focused communication system between New Mexico State University and pecan growers. Even with this increased communication, the outcome-impact assessment did not occur in a formal manner but continued to be based only on verbal communication between the pecan growers and the specialist. However, communication among pecan growers of New Mexico increased, and in 2005, with help from the New Mexico State University Agricultural Experiment Station and the university's Cooperative Extension System, the New Mexico Pecan Growers Association was formed as a spin-off of the Western Pecan Growers Association. Its objectives are the presentation and coordination of information on all aspects of pecan production in New Mexico.

In 2008, a new grant by the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Specialty Crop Research Initiative was secured to conduct research appropriate to almond and pecan growers. This grant greatly

increased the input resources in the logic model and brought about a change in the logic model output through the addition of a small-group communication system. The research and extension group formed a pecan research team similar to the university chile research team (*Sammis, Shukla, Mexal, Bosland, & Daugherty, 2009*). In addition to expanding the collaboration of researchers and growers in California and Texas, the research team, mostly through an extension team member, communicated to the growers.

Outcome-Impact Evaluation of Pecan Management Recommendations

The change in the logic model outcomes as a result of this change in the communication system with the formation of the pecan research extension team remains under evaluation because, again, no formal outcome-impact methodology has been identified except for the use of remote sensing to evaluate irrigation management of pecan orchards. Current research is developing the automation of the remote sensing tool needed for this impact assessment. As part of the pecan research project, the university has added the requirement of including, in all program logic models needed for research funding, the training of future pecan researchers by employing graduate students. When this part of the outcome-impact component is missing from a program logic model, federal and state research funds will be difficult to acquire. Consequently, with inputs of agricultural experiment station personnel, additional research funding was initiated through the writing of grants and lobbying of congressmen for earmarked federal funds. From 1995 through 2007, funding from these sources for pecan research resulted in 102 publications and 10 master's degree and doctoral graduates (Table 3).

Table 3. Summary statistics of pecan publications supported by the U.S. Department of Agriculture, Agriculture Research Service research program at New Mexico State University, from 1995 through 2007.

Category	Pest mgt.	Water mgt.	Nutrient mgt.	Waste mgt.	Misc.	Total
Journal articles	12	11	3	1	6	33
Proceedings	13	5	7	2	3	30
Cooperative Extension Service pubs	5	0	1	0	1	7
MS/Ph.D. theses	2	3	2	1	2	10
Misc. pubs.	5	3	6	4	4	22
Total	37	22	19	8	16	102

The number of trained scientists graduating is a formal outcome-impact indicator that has been used in the pecan logic model. This information is readily available because it is part of the ongoing outcome assessment tool for the university. Other outcome-impact evaluations also are needed. For example, anecdotal evidence indicates that New Mexico State University research on pruning residue management has resulted in reduced burning of the residue, with much of the pruning residue now being incorporated back into the soil. This practice can improve air quality in the pecan-growing areas of New Mexico, but no study on changes in pecan acreage using this management procedure has been implemented, and no evaluation of air quality has been undertaken since this orchard management procedure was promoted. This is an example of how remote sensing can be used to determine the decrease in the number of pecan trash-burn piles over the years during the winter months to measure the reduction in burning and the increase of residue incorporation into the soil.

The current logic model must include, other than simple surveys, research and implementation of the development of outcome-impact assessment tools. Researchers at New Mexico State University have used remote sensing to determine what the farmers are doing and how they are changing their actions (*Samani et al., 2009*). The Regional Evapotranspiration Estimation Model (REEM) tool was used to evaluate the outcome-impact of a pecan irrigation scheduling tool (*Kallestad et al., 2008*) that was based on pecan evapotranspiration research in New Mexico's Mesilla Valley (*Sammis, Mexal, & Miller, 2004; Simmons et al., 2007*). Samani et al. (2009) measured the growing season evapotranspiration of 279 pecan orchards and determined that 15% of the farmers were practicing proper irrigation management under non-stress conditions, whereas the rest of the farmers were practicing deficit irrigation. This outcome-impact assessment tool presented a way to measure the change in irrigation management and the adoption rate of irrigation scheduling tools by pecan growers. If the use of this REEM tool is incorporated in the future logic model, then the tool will be used to evaluate the economic impact of increased pecan yield through proper irrigation management. However, the remote sensing outcome-impact evaluation tool cannot be used to explain why pecan growers change their irrigation practices. Farmers' motives for change probably can be ascertained only by surveys.

The development of a remote sensing evapotranspiration outcome-impact tool has propelled the university on the road to a more complete logic model, but until this tool is implemented

using a regular time interval (every 3 to 5 years) and other independent measurement tools are developed, the logic model will remain incomplete.

Summary of New Mexico State University's Public Relations Project

An informal pecan program logic model was started with the planting in 1915 of the first pecan orchard in New Mexico. As acreage and research efforts have increased, the pecan program logic model has developed; changes in inputs have led output communication systems to evolve from a single communication between New Mexico State University and a large number of pecan growers to a communication system between western pecan growers, New Mexico pecan growers, and New Mexico State University, with the emphasis changing from growing the crop to marketing it as well. External funding determined the evolution of the logic model input and output and the expansion of inputs to include research from other states.

Currently, New Mexico State University researchers are collaborating with researchers and growers in California, Texas, and New Mexico through a grant funded by the U.S. Department of Agriculture's Specialty Crop Research Initiative program that would not have been funded if pecan research and outreach had not evolved to the current level. Increased communication, along with changing communication systems, has resulted in a stronger and economically more viable industry. However, increased inputs to the logic model resulted in increased outputs, but no measured outcomes. This is the main shortfall of the current logic model. To generate additional research funding in the future, the logic model must include methods to measure outcomes. Consequently, implementing a complete formal pecan program logic model was again identified as a goal of the New Mexico State University Agricultural Experiment Station. Because of the difficulty of measuring outcomes, development of this part of the logic model will be the most difficult in the future. The university has developed one remote sensing outcome-impact tool, but it has not been incorporated in a formal pecan logic model. The history of the pecan industry in New Mexico is a success story, but the programs were better at changing and expanding communication systems than they were at documenting outcome-impacts. Inclusion of more formal, independent, well-designed research to supply feedback and to better evaluate impact will lead to a more productive research-extension program. The history of the pecan industry in New Mexico

highlights the need for a more complete logic model as New Mexico State University pecan research and extension activities progress into the future.

Conclusion

It is difficult to design and execute a research and extension program that continues for over 90 years and results in the documented outcomes for the short- and long-term needed by a logic model. Even when information is transferred by the new web technology, it is difficult to document how many people use the information to change their methods of farming. Generally, it is assumed in the current web-based technology and the old paper technology that page counts of information accessed have some relationship to user changes in farming practices that reflect this information. However, no research supports this assumption, and independent remote sensing data or farmer surveys are needed to document outcomes. The future for universities should include more time in evaluating the outcome of research and extension activities and less time just presenting technical information. Changing current methods of farming to adopt a new technology involves financial risk, and only external forces that are not available to the university will cause that change. Consequently, more collaboration among universities, private industry, and government that can supply the external forces to cause change is needed, both to document outcomes and to improve the adoption rate of technology change.

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PROJECT WITH PROMISE

A Telephone Support Program for Adult Day Center Caregivers: Early Indications of Impact

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Abstract

The Virginia Commonwealth University/A Grace Place Caregiver Telephone Support Pilot Program was developed as a service-learning experience for graduate students to address the need for family caregiver support services. The Telephone Support Program was developed by the Virginia Commonwealth University Department of Gerontology, in collaboration with A Grace Place Adult Day Center, as a pilot project that introduced a low-tech telephone outreach initiative in which trained students provided weekly caregiver support through active listening. Uniting students with family caregivers provided a challenging learning experience for students that enriched students' personal and professional development, provided an important service for caregivers, and met a critical community need. The findings demonstrate that a telephone support format offers a positive educational experience for graduate students and essential psychosocial support for family caregivers.

Setting the Context

Virginia Commonwealth University is a large, urban, public, doctorate-granting research university with more than 32,000 students enrolled in 208 certificate and degree programs. Located in the heart of the capital city of Richmond, Virginia, on two downtown campuses, Virginia Commonwealth University has a long history of commitment to community partnerships and was one of the first universities in the nation to be recognized by the Carnegie Foundation as a community-engaged campus. The university's strategic vision, as outlined in *VCU Quest for Distinction (2011)*, is built on four core themes, one of which is to become a national model for community engagement and regional impact.

The Department of Gerontology at Virginia Commonwealth University offers a variety of graduate degree programs emphasizing interdisciplinary interaction and a biopsychosocial approach to the aging process. The Department of Gerontology focuses on the development of career and professional identity of students through community engagement, experiential learning

opportunities, and service-learning courses. Experiential and service-learning opportunities are developed through partnerships with community agencies and organizations that serve older adults and their family members. The Virginia Commonwealth University/A Grace Place Telephone Support Program is one such partnership that strives to meet a community-identified need while providing a hands-on service-learning experience for graduate students.

A Grace Place Adult Day Center is a Richmond-based 501(c)(3) nonprofit organization that provides essential health and social services to adults 18 years of age and older with significant disabilities or functional decline. The goal is to maintain the highest level of independence and quality of life for adults while providing respite and support to their caregivers. In conversations between staff members at A Grace Place and Gerontology faculty members at Virginia Commonwealth University, A Grace Place staff members identified a need to increase emotional support for caregivers, identify at-risk caregivers, and provide education and resources for family members. In response to this need, an evidence-based (*Chang, Nitta, Carter, & Markham, 2004*), caregiver-centered support program was designed to address the stress and burden faced by caregivers of older adults. The goals of the Virginia Commonwealth University/A Grace Place collaboration included reducing burden and stress and connecting caregivers to needed resources, while respecting caregivers' busy schedules and responsibilities. To meet these goals, a telephone outreach support system was collaboratively developed by A Grace Place staff and Virginia Commonwealth University faculty, whereby trained graduate students provided telephone-based support through active listening on a weekly basis. The program responded to caregiver needs by providing referrals to the staff at A Grace Place Adult Day Center, who provided targeted assistance that met the caregivers' needs.

This article details the development of the Virginia Commonwealth University/A Grace Place Telephone Support Program for Caregivers. The article begins with a review of the caregiver support literature, specifically highlighting telecommunication interventions, and then discusses the benefits of a caregiver/student support model as an important educational tool and learning experience for students. The development of the Telephone Support Program is then described, and the findings on student learning and benefits to the community and caregivers are reported.

Literature Review

Family caregivers of frail elders report significant stress as a result of the increased burdens and responsibilities they face on a daily basis. There is ample evidence in the literature that caregiver burden has a negative impact on both the caregiver, in terms of mental health and physical illness (*Kiecolt-Glaser & Glaser, 2001*), and the care recipient, who may subsequently be at greater risk for institutional placement (*Zarit, Bottigi, & Gaugler, 2007*). Recent research has suggested that programs such as respite, support groups, counseling, and educational sessions have little effect on decreasing the burden that many caregivers experience (*Winslow, 2003*). In addition, many caregivers are unable to utilize support services due to logistical complications, including arranging alternative help for their loved one, scheduling conflicts, work conflicts, physicians' appointments, and managing personal responsibilities (*Wright, Lund, Pett, & Caserta, 1987*).

An emerging literature has begun to explore how technology, such as the telephone and Internet, can be used to facilitate caregiver intervention (*Bank, Arguelles, Rubert, Esorfer, Czaja, 2006; Czaja & Rubert, 2002; Finkel, Czaja, Martinovich, Harris, & Pexxuto, 2007*). Unlike standard support groups, which require participation away from the caregiver's home, distance support programs allow the caregiver to remain at home while receiving support through telephone conversations, e-mail exchange, or other forms of electronic communication. Caregiver telephone support programs provide psychosocial support, information, and education to caregivers while taking into account the caregivers' limited time and resources. Finkel et al. (2007) conducted a pilot study examining the efficacy of a psychoeducational intervention via telephone utilizing health care professionals. Study results indicated a significant decrease in caregiver burden and depression. According to Colantonio, Cohen, and Corlett (1998), caregivers express a preference for telephone support over in-person group settings. In addition, Smith and Toseland (2006) found that telephone support decreased the amount of strain and depression for adult caregivers. Telecommunication strategies can effectively address the problems of non-use, irregular attendance, and attrition seen with caregivers in a standard support group format. Research on caregiver support models has examined implementation, long-term sustainability, and the impact on caregiver stress. However, little research has focused on the potential benefits of caregiver education for students.

Spier and Yurick (1998) conducted a caregiver support program aimed at influencing the learning outcomes of undergraduate nursing students. In this program, nursing students worked with community-based caregivers in order to develop sensitivity and improve skills in assessment and communication. Students preparing to work in the health or allied professions will, in all likelihood, work with informal family caregivers during the course of their careers. To address this need for increased knowledge about caregiving, Middle Tennessee State University developed a specific online caregiving course for social work students (Taylor, 2004). The Virginia Commonwealth University/A Grace Place collaborative builds on these two projects by developing an innovative high-touch, low-tech caregiver telephone support program that concurrently provides hands-on caregiver education for students as well as an essential psychosocial intervention for caregivers.

The Virginia Commonwealth University/A Grace Place Caregiver Telephone Support Program

The Virginia Commonwealth University/A Grace Place Caregiver Telephone Support Program aims to increase university graduate students' awareness of the challenges faced by home-based caregivers. The training component of the program requires graduate students to participate in a 6-hour training session that introduces caregiving concepts and develops skills in long-distance relationship building and active listening. The curriculum was developed by Virginia Commonwealth University Department of Gerontology faculty, who had expertise in the biopsychosocial aspects of aging and caregiver education, as a toolkit to address long-term sustainability and ease of replication. The training toolkit was developed as a compilation of best practice approaches to active listening and long distance relationship building (Chang *et al.*, 2004; Mason & Harrison, 2009). The five training modules contained in the toolkit involve readings, didactic instruction, and group activities (Table 1). The curriculum was specifically designed to address individual differences in the caregiving experience; for example, Module 5 details cultural perspectives on caregiving. The training toolkit includes fact sheets on diverse ethnicities and provides reference sheets on culture and cultural norms related to caregiving. Understanding and respecting diversity was a cornerstone of the training and was integral to the overall effectiveness of the Caregiver Telephone Support Program.

Table 1. Overview of Training Toolkit

Module	Student Learning Outcomes	Description
1: Caregivers Sharing Their Stories	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raise awareness of caregiver experiences • Introduce students to the mission of the community partner 	The training program began with two caregivers from A Grace Place sharing their experiences. Varied speaker experiences underscored the diversity of caregiver situations.
2: The Caregiver Experience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learn terminology for caregiver stress/burden/burnout • Students learn ways to promote caregiver health in body, mind, and spirit 	Caregivers must experience person-centered care as surely as care recipients. If “caregiver burden” becomes overwhelming, it may lead to “burnout,” making the caregiver unable to function.
3: Telephone Support Programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learn the importance of the low-tech and high-touch approach for working with caregivers 	Overview of the literature on success of technological support programs. Overview of the evidence base and the value in providing social and emotional support to caregivers.
4: Relationship Building and Active Listening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learn active listening strategies • Learn culturally competent communication strategies 	Relationship building through phone interaction. Active listening strategies and roadblocks were presented and students participated in role play exercises to demonstrate these strategies.
5: Empathy and Support: Respecting Individual Differences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learn strategies to respect individual differences • Discuss potential topics for discussion with caregivers • Discuss how to identify caregiver needs 	This module emphasized the uniqueness of the caregiver experience. Emphasized active listening as an empathic response. Encouraging freedom to communicate experiences without fear of judgment.

Pilot Program

A 14-week Caregiver Telephone Support Program pilot took place from January to May 2010 with 32 caregivers, four graduate students from the Department of Gerontology, and four graduate students from the Department of Occupational Therapy. After all 32 caregivers were contacted, 21 elected to participate in the program. The caregivers ranged in age from early 40s to late 80s.

Twenty-five percent of the caregivers were caring for a parent, 25% were caring for a sibling, 25% were caring for other relatives, 15% were caring for a child, 5% were caring for a spouse, and 5% were unreported. Graduate students in the pilot project ranged in age from early 20s to late 50s and consisted of seven females and one male. Students received the 6-hour training prior to beginning the telephone support calls.

From Pilot Program to Graduate-Level Service-Learning Course

After the pilot project was completed in May 2010, the Caregiver Telephone Support Program format was used in the fall 2010 semester as a service-learning project for a graduate-level class titled *The Biology and Physiology of Aging*. During this 15-week service-learning course, 22 gerontology and certificate in aging studies graduate students, and 22 caregivers participated in the project. The curriculum was modified due to time constraints, and excluded the group activities. The participating students represented both master's in gerontology and certificate in aging studies students who live locally ($n = 8$) as well as students who took the course as an online, distance education class ($n = 14$).

Evaluation Methods

This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the participating university. Data collected during the pilot project focused primarily on measuring student learning. Student learning was evaluated using detailed case notes collected by the students after each phone call with a caregiver, as well as student journals. Student case notes were analyzed to generate categories and themes that reflected student learning throughout the course of the semester.

Caregiver outcomes and satisfaction with the Telephone Support Program were evaluated through interviews with the caregivers that were completed at the end of the pilot program. Interviews were conducted by a student via telephone with each caregiver participating in the pilot program. In addition, the students completed intake forms in order to track topics discussed and student perceptions of the emotions exhibited during the support calls. Intake forms were used to help students track caregiver needs and were shared with A Grace Place staff on a monthly basis. Finally, community partner outcomes were evaluated through interviews with A Grace Place staff conducted at the end of the pilot program by Virginia Commonwealth University faculty.

Student Learning Outcomes

Analysis of call notes and journals indicated a valuable learning experience for students that improved both relationship building and listening skills. The success of this program, in terms of student learning, was anchored by the students' perception of benefits provided to the caregivers through social support and triaging provided to A Grace Place staff. Many of the students had positive attitudes toward the program because they felt that they were providing valuable help to the caregivers.

Most valuable experiences.

The students were able to develop meaningful relationships with some of the caregivers and felt that they were able to offer help and emotional support through the weekly phone calls. Students learned about the daily struggles of caregiving and the emotional and physical strain that caregivers often endure. Students reflected on the caregivers' overwhelming responsibilities to the care recipient, to outside jobs, and to additional family members. These responsibilities created a lack of time and resources to seek needed services, and students developed an increased awareness of these caregiver stressors as a result of the program. As future gerontologists and gerontological specialists, students felt that they gained valuable knowledge that would benefit them both personally and professionally.

Being a part of this program, even if for a short time, will greatly impact my future practice . . . Family and caregivers can be overlooked, and their importance in the entire process was solidified for me in this program . . . In my future practice, I will take the time to collaborate and listen to the caregiver. I will also make sure that they are able to take respite time and take care of themselves . . . I have enjoyed talking to my caregivers. I learned that the caregiver is just as important as the loved one they are taking care of . . . I also learned that small gains can be huge to the caregiver . . . I also learned that listening can be hard at times.

There is one caregiver that I have talked to every other week consistently. I know that I have made a difference in this caregiver's life and that he deeply appreciates the opportunity to vent his concerns, frustrations, and triumphs to me. I have thoroughly enjoyed my phone calls

with this caregiver, and feel that he has really taught me the importance of being an advocate for those who cannot advocate for themselves.

Barriers and challenges.

Overall, the biggest barrier students experienced with the Caregiver Telephone Support program was trying to contact the caregiver over the phone in order to set up support calls. Students were unable to reach some caregivers as much as several weeks into the program. Sometimes, when the student was able to reach the caregiver, the caregiver was unaware of the nature of the program, and in several cases did not recall signing up to receive these services. Additionally, in a few instances student and caregiver personalities did not match.

The caregiver was very negative, almost rude, as if I should have known that it is not appropriate to call her after 8:00. Staff support indicated that this caregiver is extremely stressed right now and may consider talking to me a burdensome responsibility.

I learned that although the caregivers signed up to receive telephone support service, most of them have little to no knowledge about the program. Many of them show reservations about the contact.

These findings emphasize the importance of clear and consistent processes for communication between the university and the community agency and between the community agency and the caregiver throughout the program.

Caregiver outcomes.

Overall, the caregivers reported positive experiences engaging with students. In most cases, the caregivers reported that they enjoyed having someone to talk to, not only about their caregiving difficulties, but about their lives in general. Many of the caregivers felt that these calls provided therapeutic value, allowing them to digress from their daily obligations. Others felt that they were helping the students learn more about what it means to be a caregiver. Caregivers indicated that it was helpful to verbalize

their frustrations and concerns to someone removed from their personal situation.

It was good to be able to articulate the difficulties of caregiving. The student showed interest in what I wanted to say. Sometimes it seemed helpful to just talk about the situation and the challenges.

It was an emotional time for me because my mother had just gone into a nursing home. I cried all the time. My student did not judge me. I had a lot of guilt, and talking helped.

I am stressed because I have a job, and I take care of my 88-year-old mother. It gave me a break and helped my stress. I remember the first call I had was when I was having a bad day. It really helped.

I really enjoy the phone calls that I have been receiving from the support service and I told my co-workers how nice it has been to have someone to talk to.

Student intake notes reported that frustration, guilt, and sadness were the most frequent emotions displayed by the caregivers during the course of the phone conversations (Table 2). Intake notes also demonstrated that health issues, resources, and time for self were the most frequently talked-about topics during the course of the phone conversations (Table 3).

Table 2. Emotions Exhibited by Caregivers During Support: All Calls

Emotion	%
Frustration	33
Guilt	15
Sadness	10
Resentment	9
Hopelessness	5

Table 3. Topics Discussed by Caregivers During Support: All Calls

Topic	%
Health Issues	56
Resources	54
Time for Self	54
Family Support	32
Financial Responsibilities	32
Children Responsibilities	29
Job Constraints	28
Sleep Problems	10

Community partner outcomes.

End-of-semester interviews with A Grace Place staff were conducted by the first author. One staff member reported increased knowledge about their clients' caregivers, including both personal characteristics and specific needs. Other staff members indicated that through the information gained from the student and caregiver conversations, they were able to assist some of the caregivers with the resolution of specific identified stressors. Feedback from A Grace Place staff included:

It can be difficult to maintain an objective balance, especially when things get hectic, input from the caregivers and students during this program have [sic] been good for my perspective.

I know that I have learned a great deal about both the clients and caregivers through their dialog with the volunteers. This has been so helpful, since I just don't have the time available to give everyone the attention that I would like to give them.

Lessons Learned

Several important lessons were learned during the development and implementation of this program. First, student training was critical to the success of the program. Exposure to best practice, evidence-based information on relationship building, and empathic listening enabled students to provide appropriate discussions and outreach to caregivers. Second, communication between faculty members, students, and staff members from A Grace Place

was also a critical element of the program. A systematic approach for providing updates on caregiver issues and concerns that arise during support calls proved to be a critical best practice. As in previous research, the telecommunication outreach strategy in this program was well-received by caregivers, and did not pose a barrier to the development of good rapport between students and caregivers.

Program Challenges

Implementation of the Telephone Support Program posed several challenges. Students in both the pilot project and service-learning class were discouraged from providing caregivers with their personal phone numbers. This policy was established in order to protect the students from unstructured or impromptu phone conversations, but also resulted in a slower start to the student-caregiver dialogue in instances when the caregiver missed the student's first few telephone call attempts. In the future, this phone connection issue can be resolved through programs such as Google voice accounts, which provide options for using secure phone numbers rather than personal phone numbers. Another challenge was the additional burden placed on A Grace Place staff to manage caregiver problems reported to them by students, problems that would have otherwise gone unreported.

Implications and Future Directions

The Virginia Commonwealth University/A Grace Place Caregiver Telephone Support Program involved a collaborative relationship between the Virginia Commonwealth University Department of Gerontology and A Grace Place Adult Care Center. The primary benefit of participation in the program for A Grace Place Adult Care Center was increased volunteer staffing resources to meet critical needs in the community. For the Department of Gerontology, the Caregiver Telephone Support Program offered an important educational and experiential learning opportunity for students and facilitated the development of stronger relationships between the university and community-based service providers while upholding the department's mission to "Improve Eldercare through Education" and ultimately improve lives of older adults and their caregivers.

The Caregiver Telephone Support Program was designed to provide an educational experience for students while concurrently addressing an important need for family caregivers. As a

service-learning class, the Caregiver Telephone Support Program holds great promise for both graduate and undergraduate students across a wide variety of disciplines from psychology and sociology to geography and communications. The model can also be utilized as a service-learning project within distance education classes. Beyond providing active listening support to caregivers of aging or sick family members, service-learning students could provide telephone support to other community members, such as new teen parents or at-risk youth.

Low-tech technology, such as telephone support, can also be combined with newer technology, such as smartphones, blogging, texting, and tweeting for both caregivers and university students. In the pilot project, students could blog about their experiences in the program and share information with each other through a private social website. In The Biology and Physiology of Aging service-learning class, students were able to meet weekly to discuss their experiences with the caregivers, so blogging was not necessary. Future directions for university students can include the use of smartphone technology to complete the orientation training, and texting or e-mailing to communicate with caregivers. Technologies, both high- and low-tech, appear to hold great promise for improving home-based caregiving.

The Virginia Commonwealth University/A Grace Place Caregiver Telephone Support program will continue to be utilized as a service-learning experience for graduate students. Program impact will be evaluated longitudinally using a mixed-methods design. Through this study, the relationship between students' professional identity development and their experience in the Telephone Support Program will be explored, as will the effect of program participation on caregiver mental health.

The Virginia Commonwealth University/A Grace Place Caregiver Telephone Support program was specifically designed as a high-touch and low-tech program in order to make the program both effective and accessible to all family caregivers and students. This and similar programs promise to provide a 21st century, technologically friendly learning experience for students while still providing caregivers with the high-touch, hands-on care that they require.

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REFLECTIVE ESSAY

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Inside Out, Outside In: A Comparative Analysis of Service-Learning's Development in the United States and South Africa

Timothy K. Stanton and Mabel A. Erasmus

Abstract

In this article, two service-learning practitioners reflect on the development of the pedagogy of service-learning within higher education in two different contexts: the United States and South Africa. They examine and compare service-learning's evolution in these two different, distant parts of the world from the vantage points of their long involvement in this work, noting the institutional locations and motivations of early pioneers and the important, often enabling influence of higher education's social context. They conclude with theory-building speculation on how these service-learning stories may illuminate some of the complexities of institutional change in higher education.

Introduction

Theories of social and institutional change animate debates across many fields. Scholars seek to know whether and how change comes from the top—from those in leadership roles and positions—or from the bottom—from those who first see and feel the need for change and experiment with innovative forms and approaches to their work. Others suggest that regardless of whether reform is led from the bottom or the top, the impetus for change within an institution comes from its outside environment—from externally organized constituencies, competitors, or authorities. What follows here are two related tales from opposite ends of the earth—the United States and South Africa—that illuminate the complexities of these debates as they relate to institutions of higher education. They are stories of service-learning's development within higher education, which we (one an overseas studies program director at Stanford University, the other an associate professor at the University of the Free State) have come to know over long, university-based careers. In telling and comparing the stories, we hope to contribute modestly to discussions of higher education change. Perhaps more important, we seek to contribute to the understanding of how service-learning obtained its first toe-holds within the academy, and then evolved—slowly in one national context and more rapidly in the other—to become a critical pedagogy across the curriculum.

Tale One: Service-Learning in the United States: In a Context of Social Movements, Education Reform, and Institutional Change

We start our overview with the longer, drawn-out story from the United States, where service-learning was first practiced, defined, and described in the 1960s and 1970s. Where did this rather ambitious, often complicated, community-based approach to teaching and learning come from? What enabled it to develop and spread across higher education? In the late 1990s, Timothy Stanton researched service-learning's early history in the United States with two colleagues (*Stanton, Giles, & Cruz, 1999*). They identified a group of 33 "pioneers" who represented strands of related work in universities, community colleges, and secondary education in the 1960s and 1970s, some aspects of which came to be known as "service-learning." The three researchers convened this group for a 3-day conference at which they interviewed each other, reviewed the stories told, and collectively tried to understand what the stories were about. A major question was: What motivated these pioneers to engage in an educational practice that in those days usually led to dead ends in one's career (e.g., program closures, job loss)? For that, in fact, was what had happened to many of these individuals in spite of their having innovated an exciting, experiential approach to integrating community service and higher learning.

Seth Pollack (*1999*), a research associate on the project, examined the interview transcripts around this motivation question and came up with a triangular scheme representing three central concepts, the relationships among which the reflected fundamental social policy debates of the time (see Figure 1). He labeled the three points of the triangle with these concepts: democracy, education, and service. The relationships between the concepts along the triangle's three axes were posed as questions, the answers to which could help resolve policy and practice tensions between them, as follows:

Education <==> Service

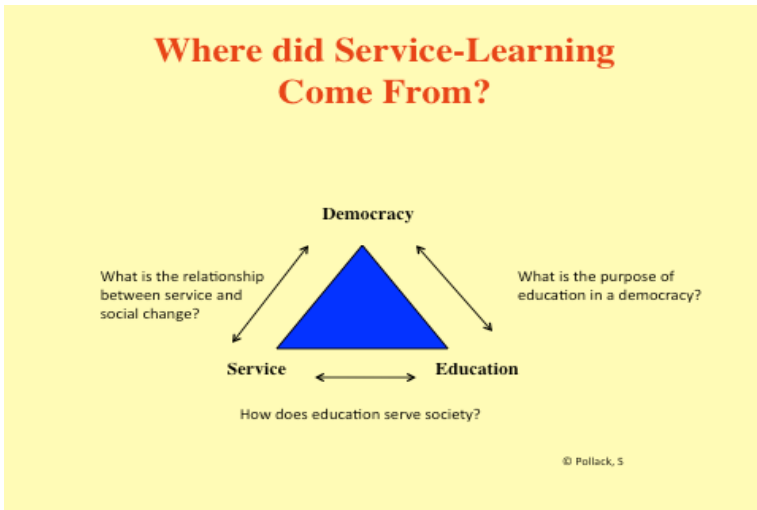
How does education serve society?

Service <==> Democracy

What is the relationship between service and social change?

Democracy <==> Service

What is the purpose of education in a democracy?



Source: Pollack, 1999, p. 19.

Figure 1: Debate Along the Axes

Pollack found that these service-learning pioneers articulated their central motivations to engage in and develop service-learning as desires to address one or more of these questions. This was true whether they worked from a campus or in the community, whether they focused on preparation of students for effective social engagement or more narrowly on students as service resources for communities. Whatever their differences, each of the pioneers was to some extent driven by social change and/or social justice ends related to the academy and the academy's relationship to community, issues prevalent in the turmoil of their time.

Thus, the United States service-learning story begins with a loosely coupled, highly motivated group of independent, and independently thinking, activists. Only a few of them were traditional academics. In fact, most started out in community-based work or secondary education. For example, the first concrete expression of practice that was labeled "service-learning" can be traced back to the Oak Ridge Institute of Nuclear Studies in Tennessee in 1968.

The Oak Ridge program developed by pioneers Bill Ramsay and Bob Sigmon, employees of the institute, provided student learning opportunities that were integrally connected to workforce development needs in the communities surrounding the institute. The earliest definition of *service-learning*, "the accomplishment of tasks which meet genuine human needs in combination with conscious educational growth," can be found in publications of the

Southern Regional Education Board (1969), which took over the Oak Ridge program.

The drive for social change and justice was soon made explicit in service-learning literature that began to surface. Pioneer Jane Kendall, who directed the National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE)¹ from 1979 to 1990, noted that “a good service-learning program helps participants see their [service] questions in the larger context of issues of social justice and social policy—rather than in the context of charity” (1990, p. 20). It should help students consider the broader social structures that underlie the problems they address when they volunteer. For example, service-learning should not just enable students to volunteer in soup kitchens. It should also stimulate them to reflect on why people are hungry.

Service-learning’s early advocates also differentiated their practice from volunteer service, questioning the nature of the service act itself, and evoking the concept of reciprocity between server and served. Such an exchange “avoids the traditionally paternalistic, one-way approach to service in which one group or person has resources which they share ‘charitably’ . . . with a person or group that lacks resources” (Kendall, 1990, p. 22). In service-learning the needs of the community, rather than of the academy, determine the nature of the service provided.

Service-learning thus developed a values-oriented character *and* community development philosophy of reciprocal learning that was integrated with curriculum reform goals and an activist, social change orientation to society. This view is summarized by a slogan first used at Stanford University, “I serve you in order that I may learn from you. You accept my service in order that you may teach me” (Stanton, 1992). Service-learning is reciprocal learning—everyone is in service and everyone can learn.

A Context of Change: Reforming Curriculum and Pedagogy and Restoring Civic Values in the United States

An additional point to be made about this history is the importance of social context, in other words, the outside environment in which higher education institutions function. By the 1980s, new service-learning programs had taken root across higher education, including community colleges. Consortia such as the Great Lakes Colleges Association and Higher Education Consortium for Urban Affairs developed and sponsored both domestic and international service-learning programs. Programs launched in the 1970s, such

as field study programs at Cornell University; the University of California, Los Angeles; the University of Southern California; and the federally funded University Year for Action matured, setting practice standards for the field. An experienced practitioner group, many of Stanton et al.'s pioneers among them, articulated and agreed upon "principles of good practice" (*Honnet & Paulsen, personal communication, 1989*), writing one of the most sought-after publications of the Johnson Foundation (*Stanton, personal communication with Honnet, Spring 1992*).

In spite of these considerable advances, however, service-learning programs remained few and far between. The 1970s saw higher education pedagogy largely unchanged and under the purview of academic departments. Student moral development and community participation were left with student affairs professionals, residence hall staff, religious groups, or other nonacademic administrators. Service-learning remained marginal, if not invisible, at most institutions.

Service-learning's condition within higher education began to advance when it gained support and legitimacy from two broad, largely unconnected education reform movements that arose in the 1980s. Both movements were concerned with student development. One movement was largely generated by scholars and advocates outside the academy who were concerned about education. They questioned the value and impact of both curriculum content and the passive, didactic process of postsecondary teaching and learning. The other movement was the response of individuals in government, public policy think tanks, and the nonprofit sector to reports of students' increasingly self-centered attitudes. Ronald Reagan was U.S. president then, and young people were dubbed by the media as "the me generation." A few university presidents shared these concerns and joined the effort to reinvigorate higher education's obligation to challenge students to lead more socially responsible lives.

Due in great part to these movements, U.S. higher education in the 1980s experienced intense self-examination, external criticism, and debate regarding basic goals and purposes. Scholars produced a series of national reports that questioned whether curricula met their defined objectives, and suggested a fundamental re-evaluation of the structure and pedagogy of undergraduate education. The national and campus-based initiatives that resulted set a promising stage for educators who advocated for service-learning. This in turn fueled service-learning's expansion in both practice and research.

The Movement for Curriculum Reform

Curriculum reform advocates focused on the teaching/learning process and the importance of active, experience-based learning. For example, the National Institute of Education's Study Group on the Conditions of Excellence in American Higher Education (1984) recommended that faculty increase their use of "internships and other forms of carefully monitored experiential learning." Kaston and Heffernan (1984), in a study undertaken for the National Endowment for the Humanities, indicated widespread acceptance by faculty of internships and field studies as integral parts of liberal arts education. The National Society for Experiential Education reported growing numbers of requests for assistance from institutions interested in linking classroom instruction to supervised field experience in the community (*personal communication, Kendall, 1981, 1982*). With greater acceptance and utilization of internships, field studies, and other forms of off-campus learning, the issue for advocates of experiential education became not so much whether faculty would utilize these methods, but rather how well they would use them, both inside and outside the classroom, and how they could effectively assess the learning their students achieved (*Kendall, Duley, Little, Permaul & Rubin, 1986*).

This debate on pedagogy and the role of experience began to affect the core liberal arts as well as applied, practical disciplines. In debates about which content areas should compose "common learning" or general education, for liberal arts students, educators began to shift their focus from knowledge acquisition to cognitive skill development—"abilities that last a lifetime" (*Mentkowski & Doherty, 1984*). Research into the undergraduate experience reinforced this focus, stressing the importance of cognitive skills and the ability to apply one's learning as benchmarks for student assessment (*Loacker, Cromwell, & O'Brien, 1986*). The national education reports criticized the passive, impersonal nature of instructional methodologies and called for a pedagogy that was more active and involving, that enabled learners to take more responsibility for their education, and that brought them into direct contact with the subjects of their study. According to these reports, instructional research demonstrated that learning activities which require learners to solve problems by applying knowledge and skills more often develop higher cognitive skills than do traditional classroom methods (*Cross, 1987*). The National Institute of Education's Study Group (1984) recommended use of internships and other forms of monitored experiential learning to enable students to become creators, as well as receivers, of knowledge. The learning that

students obtained from such experiential education opportunities was increasingly seen as linking and integrating their intellectual growth with their moral, personal, and career development.

Restoring Civic Values

During this same period, individuals outside the academy began to question whether higher education was adequately preparing students to live in a society that faced complex and seemingly intractable problems (Boyer, 1987). They worried about research reports that showed students as increasingly isolated and holding narrow, self-centered attitudes.²

Advocates of stronger civic participation by students called on educational institutions to focus on graduating a citizenry with a broad understanding of the interdependencies of peoples, social institutions, and communities; an enhanced ability both to draw upon and further develop this knowledge as they confront and solve human problems (Newman, 1985); and a strong commitment to ethically and thoughtfully fulfilling the democratic compact, which was articulated by John Gardner as "Freedom and responsibility, liberty and duty, that's the deal" (O'Connell, 1999, p. 126).

In *Higher Education and the American Resurgence* (1985), Education Commission of the States president Frank Newman identified a failure in the structure and content of the U.S. educational system. Structurally, it did not provide a means of linking classroom study with students' direct experience of social problems and issues. In content areas, it failed to effectively educate students with both an understanding of these social problems and an awareness of the traditional responsibilities of democratic citizenship.

In response, college presidents, education scholars, politicians, students, and others began to call for integration of the ethic and practice of civic involvement, critique, and analysis into the mission and values of higher education.³ The presidents of Brown, Georgetown, and Stanford universities joined President Newman to found Campus Compact, a consortium of college and university presidents committed to increasing the level of public service activity among students. In so doing, they sought to renew and reinvigorate the public service mission of higher education (Jencks & Riesman, 1968; Waring, 1988).

Soon universities and colleges began to establish public service centers and other structures to enable students to become involved as volunteers. Such activities served both to provide community service and to develop awareness of public issues and community

needs, as well as enabling students to cultivate leadership skills and a lifelong commitment to social responsibility.

Mutual Concerns, Mutual Benefits

Although these two movements—for education reform and for public service—shared a common concern with the basic aims of higher education, they engaged in little sustained, cross-group dialogue. Neither group seriously considered the explicit relationship between public service and the core, *academic* missions of higher education institutions. In the early days of both movements, only a few lonely voices addressed the place of community service and what students learn from it within the academic curriculum (*Couto, 1982; Stanton 1988*).

As the public service initiative matured, however, it began to include the goals and values of service-learning within its agenda. The existing separation of service from learning was viewed as reflecting higher education's traditional distinction between theory and practice, and between teaching and research (*Wagner, 1986*), and as inhibiting both the effectiveness of students' service efforts and the depth of their learning while they were involved (*Stanton, 1990*).

Campus Compact: Project on Integrating Service With Academic Study

Thus, in 1988 Campus Compact commissioned a study to examine how faculty might play a stronger role in promoting civic responsibility (*Stanton, 1990*). It organized three regional conferences where goals and action steps were discussed. These conversations led the Compact's leadership to launch its Project on Integrating Service With Academic Study in 1990. A national advisory board was established, made up of advocates for linking service with the curriculum, who had stature within the higher education community, and who were in positions to influence change at the national level. A 3-year grant was obtained from the Ford Foundation to support implementation of three summer institutes to bring together faculty teams from Campus Compact member institutions for a week-long workshop on combining service with academic study. Historians of this movement view these institutes, organized by a new nonprofit organization outside the academy, as perhaps the most pivotal events in service-learning's movement from the margins to the mainstream of higher education (*Harkavy, 2006*).

Until the mid-1980s, service-learning advocates and practitioners were a small, marginal group within higher education. Indeed, at annual conferences of the National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE), workshops were offered on “working on the margins,” or on “life as a marginal professional” for several years. However, with legitimacy and support conveyed by the 1980s’ education reform and public service initiatives, interest in service-learning began to grow. What was once a suspect, little-understood form of alternative education was by 1990 suddenly on the front burner of numerous higher education organizations and on the minds of a growing number of campus administrators and faculty. Both Campus Compact and NSEE reported large increases in inquiries about service-learning. The National Youth Leadership Council developed a national service-learning training program. Disciplinary organizations (e.g., American Sociology Association, American Political Science Association) organized service-learning workshops at their conferences.

In addition to its exponential growth during the 1990s, service-learning practice diversified. For example, at research universities such as Stanford and Duke, practitioners began developing service-learning research programs, enabling students to undertake “public scholarship” in cooperation with and for community-based groups. Other efforts focused on service-learning in capstone education (Portland State University), as diversity training (City Year), and increasingly as civic learning, which is most strongly exemplified at California State University, Monterey Bay (CSUMB). CSUMB’s service-learning institute works to see that elements of this curriculum—democratic citizenship learning, political learning, public leadership learning, inter- and intra-personal learning, diversity learning/cultural versatility, and social justice learning—are central elements to its service-learning agenda, which is required of all students. Today the service-learning field has turned its attention to international settings and global education.

A Literature of Evaluation and Research

Service-learning’s maturation as a field is also indicated by a change in focus of professional meeting discussions and publications, from “How to do the work?” to “How to sustain and institutionalize it?” Significantly, both practitioners and researchers began calling for and carrying out evaluation and research on service-learning outcomes on students, faculty, institutions, and, occasionally, on community partners.

During this time, resources from the Fund for the Improvement of PostSecondary Education (FIPSE) helped produce some of the more important documents in the field, including one of the most influential books, *Where's the Learning in Service-Learning* (Eyler & Giles, 1999). This publication is considered by many to be the foundation of evidence that service-learning has multiple impacts on everything from academic knowledge and critical thinking to civic awareness and development of students' interpersonal skills and abilities. Growth of research funded by FIPSE and other foundations (e.g., Kellogg, DeWitt Wallace, Kettering, Pew, Ford) also led to the establishment of the field's own scholarly journal, *The Michigan Journal for Community Service Learning*, in 1994.

Campus Compact's Evolution

Campus Compact also evolved in the late 1980s and early 1990s through offering regional and national institutes, advocacy at state and national levels, and increasingly useful resource publications. The organization became the main resource and network for the growing number of service-learning practitioners. By the end of the century, Campus Compact's mission had evolved to a broader focus on institution-wide "civic and community engagement." Service and service-learning remained critically important, but they were now viewed as two components of the overall effort to infuse civic and community engagement values throughout institutions' practices—from the classroom to the procurement office.

One example of an institution that took this plunge was Tufts University. Its president established the Jonathan M. Tisch College for Citizenship and Public Service in 1999 (*Tufts University, 2011a*), a virtual college designed "to integrate the values and skills of active citizenship in all fields of study" across the entire university (*Hollister, Mead, & Wilson, 2006*). In 2005, President Lawrence Bacow advanced Tufts' institutional leadership by convening 29 university presidents, rectors, and vice chancellors from 23 countries in Talloires, France, "to catalyze and support a worldwide movement of individuals and institutions dedicated to promoting the civic roles and social responsibilities of higher education." The conference participants signed the Talloires Declaration on the Civic Roles and Social Responsibilities of Higher Education, committing to a series of action steps and demonstrating the signatories' commitment to elevating the civic and social mission of their universities (*Tufts University, 2011b*).

In 2006, California's Campus Compact organized its member campuses on behalf of engaged scholarship and service-learning for graduate students through a position paper (*Stanton & Wagner, 2006*), an institute at Stanford University, and annual, regional colloquia. Most recently, Campus Compact helped establish The Research Universities Civic Engagement Network (TRUCEN) to promote both service-learning and community-engaged scholarship at research intensive institutions across the United States (*Gibson, 2006; Stanton, 2007*). In response to the explosion of research and literature in the field, TRUCEN members posted an online Research University Engaged Scholarship Toolkit (*Stanton & Howard, 2009; Stanton, Howard, & Connolly, 2011*) on Campus Compact's website: www.compact.org (*Campus Compact, 2011*).

The Importance of Partnerships

In recent years, a distinguishing feature in service-learning's development has been increasing emphasis on partnerships as the basis for program development and sustainability. Principles of effective community-university partnerships have been articulated and disseminated by Community-Campus Partnerships for Health (2011) and other organizations that guide practitioners in their work with community-based organizations for service-learning and community-based research. This is helping to ensure a strong community voice in program design, development, and evaluation. The partnership concept also stresses long-term engagement between campuses and community groups to help ensure positive and progressive community impact from the work of students and faculty.

Students as Allies and Collaborators

One additional element to the U.S. service-learning story that merits attention is students themselves—those who were involved in and advocated for service-learning from its earliest days. The Society for Field Experience Education (SFEE), service-learning's first professional practitioners' organization, included students in its annual conference and as one third of the members of the board of directors (along with one third campus-based practitioners, and one third community placement organization staff members).

Students' response to the 1980s call to public service was an "if you ask them, they will come" phenomenon. They threw themselves in great numbers into volunteer work across the spectrum of human service and public policy activities. On campuses across the

country they worked as project organizers and as important allies to faculty and staff seeking to change teaching practice. For example, by 1990 students at Stanford University had organized scores of student service organizations focused on the widest variety of community needs locally, across the United States, and overseas. Stanton recalls from his many years advocating and establishing service-learning across Stanford's curriculum that there were few important strategy meetings at which students were not present. For many years, students would go door-to-door, speaking with faculty about the need for study-service connections.

Students wanted their own national network (cf. Campus Compact) of support as well. So, in the mid-1980s, a small band of recent graduates organized nationally to establish the Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL) "to educate, connect and mobilize students and their campuses to strengthen communities through service and action." COOL held regional and national meetings to network and galvanize student leaders for the movement, and spawned other national student groups that focused on particular topical areas (e.g., tutoring, mentoring, "alternative breaks" for service-learning). In 2004, COOL merged with Action Without Borders to form idealists.org (see *Stern*, 2011).

In summary, this is a necessarily abbreviated chronology of service-learning's long, thorny development history in the United States. It illustrates, however, the role of innovative pioneers in igniting a movement; the importance of the social environmental context in nurturing it and influencing conditions such that it can thrive; and the role that students played as allies and willing collaborators. Service-learning, which began as a pedagogy created by a loosely coupled group of social-change-oriented education reformers, was increasingly embraced, strengthened, and ultimately institutionalized in the context of and by riding the waves of larger, national reform efforts, which were driven by broader, but related, concerns similar to those of the pioneers. Students greased the wheels all along the way.

Although all of the actors in this story are critical to its outcome, the script would be much different were it not for the two external-to-the-academy reform movements described above that rose up and ultimately shifted the environment within institutions such that service-learning could take its rightful place as a legitimate, widely-practiced pedagogy. United States universities are now ranked nationally by the extent to which they offer and support service-learning. As part of recent revisions to its widely-used institution classification system, the Carnegie Foundation for the

Advancement of Teaching (2011) developed a new elective classification that focuses on community engagement, and includes service-learning as a central arena in which institutions can demonstrate engagement through the curriculum.

Debates continue about where service-learning ultimately fits within U.S. higher education—as a discipline (Butin, 2010), in the disciplines (Zlotkowski, 1995), or across disciplines (Connors & Seifer, 2005). Moreover, is service-learning's proliferation a story of institutional adaptation or transformation (Hartley, Saltmarsh, & Clayton, 2010; Stanton, 1998)? Still, the progress achieved to date could not have been imagined by service-learning pioneers in the early days.

Tale Two: Service-Learning in South Africa: In a Context of Social and Political Transformation

Halfway around the world in South Africa, the service-learning story is shorter than the United States one. The speed of change, however, has made it more dramatic. Soon after the fall of apartheid and the country's first democratic election in 1994, the African National Congress (ANC) government's Ministry of Education issued Education White Paper 3, in which "A Programme for Higher Education Transformation" is outlined (Department of Education, 1997). As noted in Section 1.10 of the white paper,

The [South African] nation is confronted with the challenge of reconstructing domestic social and economic relations to eradicate and redress the inequitable patterns of ownership, wealth, and social and economic practices that were shaped by segregation and apartheid . . . [South Africa's history] has resulted in the emergence of a sophisticated urban core economy with a relatively well-developed technological infrastructure and an increasingly highly educated, skilled labour force existing side-by-side with a peripheral, rural and informal economy from which the majority of the population, previously denied access to education and training, and restricted to unskilled labour, eke out a living. (p. 9)

In such a dichotomous society, issues like unemployment, inadequate housing, violent crime, and the HIV/AIDS epidemic further augment the divide.

The white paper called for transformation within the education sector, in terms of maximizing its engagement with, and

contributions to, the resolution of the hugely complex issues that an emergent South Africa faced internally after years of systematic, external isolation. Higher education institutions were called upon to “demonstrate social responsibility . . . and their commitment to the common good by making available expertise and infrastructure for community service programmes” (p. 11). Although the emphasis was on community development through the extension of university resources, the role of students and their development was included. The white paper further stated that a major goal of higher education should be to “promote and develop the social responsibility and awareness amongst students of the role of higher education in social and economic development” (p. 10). Interestingly, however, the paper did not address the development of students’ individual responsibilities to contribute.

The Community–Higher Education–Service Partnerships Initiative

In 1997–1998, partly in response to the white paper, the Ford Foundation made a grant to a nongovernmental organization, then called the Joint Education Trust, to conduct a survey of community service in South African higher education (Perold, 1998). Several key findings were obtained through the survey: (1) most higher education institutions included community service in their mission statement; (2) few institutions had an explicit policy or strategy to operationalize the community service component of their mission statement; (3) most of the institutions had a wide range of community service projects; and (4) generally, community service projects were initiated by innovative faculty members, staff, and students and not as deliberate institutional strategies. Building on the results of the survey, the Ford Foundation made a further grant to the Joint Education Trust in 1998 to establish the Community–Higher Education–Service Partnerships (CHESP) initiative. Given the central role of teaching and learning in all higher education institutions in South Africa, it was decided that service-learning would be the initial focus for community engagement efforts (Lazarus, Erasmus, Hendricks, Nduna, & Slamati, 2008, p. 62), and CHESP would be the vehicle for implementing it.

With guidance by, and considerable academic support from, several prominent U.S. scholars in the field of service-learning, CHESP established a program aimed at piloting service-learning courses (referred to as “modules” in the South African context) within academic programs, which would give expression to the reconstruction and development mandate of the white paper.

Community, higher education, and service sector partnerships would contribute to the empowerment and development of local communities; make higher education policy and practice more relevant to community needs; and enhance service delivery to participating communities. The Joint Education Trust had been established in 1992 by corporate leaders, the country's major political parties, trade unions, and representative organizations of Black business to assist the new democracy in restructuring the country's education system. With funding from the Ford Foundation playing a key support role in South Africa, just as it did in the United States, CHESP was to become the Joint Education Trust's primary initiative in the higher education sector (*Lazarus, 1999*).

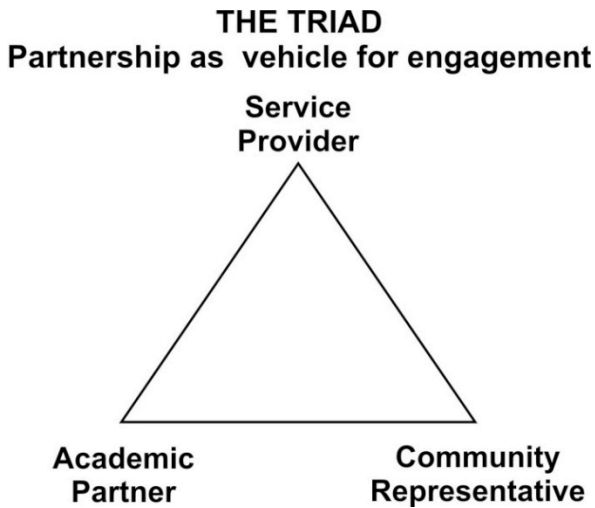
In April 1999 the Joint Education Trust approved a Planning Grant to eight South African higher education institutions to develop institution-wide policies and strategies for community engagement through mainstream academic programs (i.e., in the form of service-learning modules). Specific outcomes of the grant were to include

1. identifying community and service sector partners,
2. forming partnership structures to facilitate the planning and implementation of pilot programs,
3. identifying the assets and development priorities of participating communities,
4. conducting an audit of existing community service activities at the higher education institutions,
5. drafting of an institution-wide policy on community engagement, and
6. drafting of strategic plans to operationalize the new institutional policies.

The 5-year grant also provided significant fiscal incentives for faculty members and administrators to use service-learning for integrating service with students' learning (*Erasmus, 2010, p. 348*). As is almost invariably the case when grants are awarded in "developing countries," the assumption was that either the respective higher education institutions or the South African government, or both, would eventually pick up the bill. In this case, however, community engagement in all its curricular forms remains an unfunded mandate. That the Department of Education's funding formula for service-learning modules currently lacks provision for additional expenditure is but one of several barriers to the growth of service-learning in South Africa.

Partnerships as Core Practice

From the start, a distinguishing feature of what came to be known as the “CHESP service-learning model” was that all participating higher education institutions had to identify at least one community and one service sector partner. Generally, community partners were defined as specific geographic communities to be represented by identified community leaders. Service sector partners included nongovernmental organizations and local, metropolitan, and provincial authorities (see Figure 2).



Source: Lazarus, 2001.

Figure 2. The CHESP Partnership Triad

This CHESP design declaration is an interesting departure from U.S. practice in two key ways. The first difference relates to the importance of community voice in service-learning partnerships. U.S. practitioners did not come to appreciate the importance of partnerships until late in service-learning’s development, when they began to consider more seriously the community impacts of student work, how best to plan and maximize it, and that this would be best accomplished through more democratic, collaborative, sustained relationships with community partners. Perhaps due to political organizing and alliance building across communities and sectors that took place in South Africa during the “struggle years,” the concepts of democratic participation and inclusive partnerships were viewed more seriously there, and were linked to national development challenges that the government required in its higher education transformation agenda.

A second difference is CHESP's explicit inclusion of community members in the South African service-learning triad. In the United States, practitioners tend to think of service-learning as bipolar—between university and community—with community represented by a service provider. In South Africa, during the struggle years, tensions often arose between service provider organizations and members of their host communities. Under apartheid, charitable organizations, funded largely by international governments and funders, may often have been the only service resources in communities, but they were rarely accountable to community members. In the new South Africa, these same organizations found themselves challenged by antagonistic relationships with the new government, which itself wanted to take on the role of primary service provider. Given these complexities, CHESP's designers felt that both groups—service providers and community residents or their representatives—needed to be at the table at all stages of partnership and program development.

In the United States, on the other hand, it appears that service provider organizations are often perceived by outsiders as allies to communities in their struggles to get the local, state, or federal levels of government to address needs. These service provider organizations are thus perceived as representing communities or being knowledgeable about their challenges and possibilities. However, this is not always the case. As in South Africa, relationships between residents and service providers can be conflictual. In apartheid South Africa, oppressed communities were often forced to establish their own civic infrastructure in the absence of a benign, publicly sanctioned one. Because many U.S. communities lack such a history, they tend to be less organized, or their organization is at least less visible to outsiders, who rely on service provider organizations for gaining community perspectives.

Thus, in South Africa when CHESP pilot teams went looking for community partners, there were old African National Congress-inspired neighborhood councils and numerous voluntary "civics" to consider. In the United States, in contrast, there has been a tendency to not look for such partners, and to gloss over the sometimes complex and challenging relationships that exist between community members and service provider organizations.

In summary, during CHESP's early planning phase, it became apparent that operationalizing the reconstruction and development mandate of the White Paper actually required partnerships between communities, higher education institutions, and the

service sector. Examples of the *three different levels*, each with its own particular discourse, are described below.

- National level: Partnerships among national civic organizations, such as trade unions (*community*); the Department of Education (*higher education*); other public sector departments (e.g., the Department of Labor); nongovernmental organization coalitions, national trade and industry organizations (*service provider*). Discourse at the national level would focus on policies for human resource development related to community-university partnership development and sustainability, and service-learning and community-based research.
- Institutional level: Partnerships among local civic organizations (*community*); higher education institutions (*higher education*); local authorities, nongovernmental organizations, and the private sector (*service provider*). The discourse at the institutional level would focus on strategies for human resource development aimed at similar objectives within each institution's region.
- Programmatic level: Partnerships among community members, such as schoolchildren and their parents or other caregivers (*community*); faculty members and staff (*higher education*); and the service sector, including individuals such as school principals and educators (*service provider*). The discourse at the programmatic level would be *instrumental*, aimed at the development of specific academic programs for community engagement-focused human resource development.

To implement the pilot project at all three levels, staff of the Joint Education Trust and CHESP worked with the South African Department of Education to develop policy guidelines that would encourage community engagement. They also worked with the Higher Education Qualifications Authority to develop criteria for assessing institutional progress.

The CHESP Capacity-Building Program

Once CHESP staff had identified eight pilot higher education institutions for the project, these institutions had to identify service

provider and community partners and sign them on to a team, which included university, community, and service provider organization representatives. CHESP staff considered and addressed the knowledge and skills that the team members would require to carry out programming designed to address the education and development outcomes that the team proposed. What was especially needed by all team members, who previously had focused their work within their respective sectors, was to learn how to work collaboratively across sectors.

During 1999 and 2000, CHESP staff addressed these “capacity-building” needs of the pilot teams through a service-learning/community development, partnership-focused training program. The goals of the CHESP capacity-building program are outlined below.

- Development support: To support the development of CHESP pilot projects within participating historically disadvantaged communities, higher education institutions, and service provider organizations.
- Capacity building: To equip CHESP initiative team members to facilitate the conceptualization, planning, implementation, and management of the CHESP pilot project partnerships.
- Leadership development: To develop a cadre of leaders with the necessary knowledge, practical experience, skills, and attitudes to implement new policies that would cross community, university, and service sector boundaries.
- New knowledge: To create a “learning laboratory” to generate new knowledge about community–higher education–service sector partnerships. This new knowledge would be used to assist in the reconstruction and development of civil society and higher education institutions.
- Publications: To generate research publications, monographs, and learning materials on community–higher education–service partnerships.
- Advocacy: To use the knowledge and information generated through the program to inform institutional and national policy development.

Members of the eight pilot teams participated in the CHESP leadership capacity-building program (Lazarus, 1999), which was structured and delivered through 12 3–4 day modules. The modules were spaced 6 to 8 weeks apart to enable participants to carry out assigned development work arising from each module, and to undertake assigned readings and prepare for the next module session.

Modules 1–7 were intended to provide participants with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required to facilitate the *conceptualization* and *planning* of community–higher education–service partnerships. The desired outcome after modules 1–7 were completed was that each university would have an institution-wide strategic plan or intervention strategy for implementing community–higher education–service partnerships as an integral part of the university’s community service, teaching, and research missions.

Modules 8–12 were intended to provide participants with the knowledge, skills, and attitudes required to *implement* their partnership projects through service-learning opportunities for students and related activities. Module content included information about project management, community empowerment and development, community-based service-learning, and curriculum development.

Given the intent to integrate program development and human resource capacity-building within the CHESP initiative, each module in the capacity-building program had both *development* and *learning* objectives. Development objectives were the outcomes specified in a given module that the CHESP teams should develop for their pilot project. The learning objectives were the knowledge, skills, and attitudes participants would require to carry out their development objectives. CHESP staff hoped that through this action learning design the capacity-building program curriculum would give participants a service-learning-type experience as well as the opportunity to learn about the structures and processes needed to support such modules.

Because the pilot institutions’ participant teams represented the academy, the service sector (e.g., the Department of Health), one or more non-governmental organizations, and/or partner communities, they also represented the large racial, ethnic, and educational diversity of South Africa. Some participants had a Ph.D. or other advanced formal schooling. Few community members or staff of non-governmental organizations had had opportunities to acquire bachelor’s or postgraduate degrees in the “old” South

Africa. Thus the CHESP staff registered the capacity-building program as a postgraduate certification program with the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The certification provided multiple “graduation levels” tailored to the needs and aspirations of the diverse nature of the program’s participants.

Service-Learning Course Offerings: Growth Between 2000 and 2006

By 2004, due to the training provided by the capacity-building program and the dedication of the regional teams, 182 service-learning courses (or modules) had been developed, offered, and evaluated. The courses represented 39 academic disciplines and involved 6,930 students. At about the same time, the Joint Education Trust began to offer financial support to faculty members to engage in service-learning-related research. The research was to focus on the role of community, faculty, and service agencies in community-higher education engagement; student development and assessment in service-learning; organizational structures conducive to service-learning and community engagement; and quality assurance related to service-learning course offerings (Lazarus, 2004). One result of this research is literature on service-learning that is embedded in the South African context.

A significant component of the legacy of the CHESP initiative is represented by the series of resources published under its guidance. Between 2006 and 2008 the Higher Education Quality Committee of the Council on Higher Education, in collaboration with JET Education Services (formerly Joint Education Trust) and CHESP, published *Service-Learning in the Curriculum: A Resource for Higher Education Institutions* (2006a); *A Good Practice Guide and Self-evaluation Instruments for Managing the Quality of Service-Learning* (2006b); and a compilation of South African case studies from the CHESP era in *Service-Learning in the Disciplines: Lessons from the Field* (2008).

Since 2004, an increasing number of higher education institutions, which did not form part of the initial group, have joined the CHESP initiative. In 2006, CHESP and the Higher Education Qualifications Authority of the Council on Higher Education hosted the first national conference on community engagement in higher education. The conference, held in Cape Town, was attended by more than 200 delegates representing all 23 higher education institutions in the country, as well as external partners of these universities. In 10 years, as envisioned in the 1997 White

Paper, service-learning and community-based research through community-university partnerships seemed to have become important elements in the transformation of higher education in South Africa.

However, in 2007, when CHESP funding concluded and the responsibility for driving community engagement was handed over to the Council on Higher Education, there was a lull in service-learning activities. The contention of Lazarus et al. (2008, p. 81) is that although the impact of the CHESP initiative had been significant, it was a small-scale pilot project. The program's achievements had only scratched the surface of the challenge to embed community engagement in South African higher education. Lazarus et al. observed:

At best it has created an awareness of community engagement and service learning as an integral part of the academy and laid the foundations for their advancement in all South African universities. (p. 81)

Service-Learning in South Africa: Post-2007

Service-learning's development in South Africa may have stalled after the CHESP initiative pilot project, but debate on its value to and place within higher education has continued unabated. Some considered the CHESP grant guidelines for the implementation, monitoring, and evaluation of service-learning modules too prescriptive. Others had misgivings about the wisdom behind importing an educational approach from the United States; one author referred to service-learning as an "intellectual MacDonalds burger that has travelled to Africa as a consequence of Americanization and/or globalization" (Le Grange, 2007, p. 4). It remains an open question whether South African faculty members will successfully adapt U.S.-based models of service-learning to a South African context. In a comparison of Western-oriented and more Africanized expressions of service-learning, Hatcher and Erasmus (2008) utilize the educational theories of John Dewey and Julius Nyerere to better understand the similarities and differences between U.S.-based and Africanized service-learning. Both Dewey and Nyerere expected education to enable individuals to understand and relate to the world in which they live in ways that would ultimately contribute to its transformation for the better, a commonality that Hatcher and Erasmus consider relevant to the foundations of service-learning (p. 52). Even with this com-

parison, it is difficult to refute Mahlomaholo and Matobako's (2006) contention that service-learning in South Africa might be "held terminally captive by legacies of the past" (p. 203). One of the key challenges is to "develop contextualized expressions of service-learning through free selection of aspects that will support self-definition and uniquely South African aspirations for social development," as Hatcher and Erasmus (2008, p. 58) point out.

In the post-CHESP-initiative era, notions like "problematization," "interrogation," and "contestation" are often associated with aspects of service-learning. Terms used in the service-learning context, such as "service," "partnership," "community," "responsible citizenship," and "knowledge," receive vigorous scrutiny. One of the promising developments toward redefining and contextualizing several concepts related to service-learning is represented by the recent study of Smith-Tolken (2010). With an extensive investigation into the nature of "scholarly-based service-related processes" at a higher education institution in South Africa as a basis, Smith-Tolken (2010) defines scholarly service activity in a curricular context as "the act of applying implicit and codified knowledge in a community setting, directly or indirectly, focused on the agreed goals or needs while ascertaining growth through the acquisition of skills and an enhanced understanding of the meaning-making content by all actors involved" (p. 124).

Smith-Tolken (2010) argues for establishing community engagement as a disciplinary field within higher education studies, and incorporating scholarly service activities such as service-learning into the subfield of curriculum design. This line of argument resonates with what Butin (2010), in his relentless critique of service-learning (mainly aimed at manifestations in the U.S. context), proposes in terms of a fundamental rethinking of "engaged scholarship" and a "scholarship of engagement." He also argues for a rethinking of service-learning as "an academic undertaking that truly belongs within higher education" (p. 152) and proposes the "disciplining" of service-learning by developing an "academic home"—a disciplinary "home base"—for service-learning within the framework of an academic program.

By linking rigorous academic coursework with deeply embedded and consequential community-based learning, academic programs embody the connection and engagement desired between institutions of higher education and their local and global communities. (p. 69)

In South Africa, much more so than in the United States, convincingly embedding service-learning within academia is a work in progress (see Badat, 2011, pp. 9–10; Erasmus, 2009). Recent literature provides evidence of overt misgivings about whether those who consider service-learning an ideal tool for bridging the gap between higher education and society are fully cognizant of the complexities inherent in such an endeavor. In a theoretical exploration of the possibilities of infusing service-learning in curricula, Hlengwa (2010) discusses possibilities and constraints from a perspective of “vertical discourses” and “horizontal discourses.” In Hlengwa’s opinion, it is crucial to consider issues of power and control in relation to how knowledge is structured when examining the capacity for transferability of knowledge across disciplinary boundaries and between “the vertical discourses of the academy and the horizontal discourses of the community” (p. 11). Badat (2011) points out that community engagement gives rise to numerous and diverse challenges, including the “value-base of service-learning—whether interaction with communities is in order to *maintain* the status quo, or to contribute to *reforming* or *transforming* social structure and social relations” (p. 10).

Erasmus (2007) contends that the service-learning curriculum offers a mechanism to increase the permeability of boundaries among disciplines and sectors of society and seeks to theorize (pp. 4–11) how service-learning students may be guided to participate in contextualized knowledge creation in the *agora* where socially robust knowledge is constructed collaboratively. Moreover, service-learning offers possibilities for preparing a new generation of scientists who will be able to engage in more socially accountable research, as required by the growing complexity and uncertainty of the current “Mode 2 society” to which Michael Gibbons referred in his keynote address at the 2006 conference on community engagement mentioned above (Gibbons, 2006, pp. 23–25). McMillan (2009) builds on Gibbons’ urge to work at the boundaries of higher education and society, conceptualizing service-learning through the lens of activity theory as “boundary” work. She introduces tools aimed at facilitating better understanding of the nature of the complex social practices “at the boundary where the ‘knowledge of differently positioned people’ intersect through social responsiveness practices such as service learning” (p. 57).

From Service-Learning to Community Engagement in South Africa

It is encouraging that the broader, inclusive notion of “community engagement” has now entered the South African higher education discourse in ways that cannot be ignored as easily as was the “service-learning phenomenon.” Some South African institutions have chosen alternative concepts such as “community interaction” and “social responsiveness” to depict this aspect of their work, but in most instances the term “community engagement” is utilized. Focused attention to ways in which this “third” core responsibility of higher education may be integrated with research and teaching-learning is currently creating exciting deliberative spaces within the field of South African higher education studies. One example is a recent publication of the South African Council on Higher Education, *Community Engagement in South African Higher Education (CHE, 2010)*, a collection of invited papers from a Council on Higher Education–sponsored colloquium. Another noteworthy development is the establishment of the South African Higher Education Community Engagement Forum (SAHECEF) in 2009. This organization is similar to the Australian Universities Community Engagement Alliance (AUCEA). The appointment of community engagement directors and managers at a number of universities is another promising development. Still, only two universities have appointed vice-rectors with “community engagement” or “community interaction” as part of their title. Offices for community engagement and/or service-learning are routinely understaffed and underfunded.

The gap between reality and rhetoric related to service-learning and community engagement may never close in South Africa. Hall (2010) reflects that community engagement has been one of the three founding principles of the post-apartheid reconstruction of the South African higher education system (along with teaching and research). The principle is clearly captured in policy documents and the like. “Why then, is the imperative of community engagement regarded as radical, risqué and anything other than taken for granted?” (Hall, 2010, pp. 1–2). To ameliorate this puzzle, Hall recommends that incentives be provided “through the state subsidy for teaching to ensure that the models of good practice for service learning developed through the CHESP Program are established and resourced as integral parts of teaching and learning across the Higher Education sector” (p. 48). Hall also recommends (p. 48) encouraging the National Research Foundation to make recurrent funding allocations for research on third sector engagement. In fact, in August 2010, the National Research Foundation

launched a Community Engagement Program, which provides fiscal incentives for engaged forms of scholarship.

The Status of Service-Learning in South Africa: 2011

In 2011, the first community engagement conference of the post-CHESP initiative era was held. It is noteworthy that service-learning featured prominently at the conference in keynote addresses, papers, symposia, and workshops. A considerable number of faculty members reported on service-learning-related master's and Ph.D. studies that they had recently completed. It appears that service-learning has emerged as the most significant form of curricular community engagement of the current South African higher education context. It is also fast gaining prominence as a form of engaged scholarship. In his keynote address, Saleem Badat, contributor to the original documents calling for the transformation of higher education in South Africa and currently vice-chancellor of Rhodes University, observed that the intersection between teaching and learning, research and community engagement currently constituted "the specific activity of service-learning" (2001, p. 5) in South African universities. As the body of postgraduate studies and scholarly publications grows, an increasingly more legitimate space is created for service-learning within South African academia.

The quest for creating some level of consensus regarding the various aspects of service-learning for the South African context continues. These aspects include policy-related matters; philosophical and theoretical underpinnings; conceptualization; partnerships, participation, and community development; curriculum development; reflection and student development; assessment of student learning; risk management and ethical issues; quality management (monitoring, evaluation, and impact studies); and last but certainly not least, research into and through service-learning. In an effort to build shared discourses around these complex aspects, credit-bearing service-learning capacity-building courses for faculty and other staff members have been established at three South African universities. These courses can be regarded as a continuation of the CHESP capacity-building program outlined above. Two of the courses are offered, either as modules within master's programs in higher education studies, or as short learning programs to faculty from other higher education institutions. The University of the Free State offers a Short Learning Program in Service-Learning Capacity Building (SPSLCB), and the University of Stellenbosch offers a

Short Program in Service-Learning and Community Engagement (SPSLCE). The University of Pretoria offers a similar course at the advanced diploma level. It is hoped that these courses will help to embed service-learning at many higher education institutions across South Africa—one faculty member at a time.

South African students represent a largely untapped source of support for the various forms of community engagement, especially service-learning. In comparison with the United States, there is still a dire lack of student “grease” to oil the wheels of the service-learning movement in South Africa. Getting students more actively involved as service-learning advocates who will demand a service component in all their academic programs is another challenge, especially since students often appreciate the value of such courses only after they have completed them. In a plea for new student politics in South Africa, Lange (2011) reminds students that they are a privileged minority constituting only about 20% of the appropriate age group who access university education (p. 3). This creates a special responsibility for both the university and students. One of the university’s responsibilities is to teach students “to do useful things and to help them to be good,” Lange points out. However, since a student is the knower, the agent of change, only students can help the university succeed in this mission, by co-constructing the quality of their education (p. 3). Lange’s arguments serve as a wake-up call for service-learning advocates. Unless innovative (including online) ways can be created to utilize service-learning as a means to connect students to a larger purpose, beyond their immediate personal interests, much of the transformative potential of this pedagogy will remain unfulfilled.

Conclusion: Bottom-Up and Inside-Out Versus Top-Down and Outside-In

Comparing these two stories of service-learning’s development on two continents reveals interesting similarities and differences worthy of further consideration.

A major contextual factor service-learning pioneers faced in both countries regardless of the different times in which they worked has been the social conditions that animated them. These social conditions included enforced segregation, racial discrimination, persistent poverty and inequality, and the movements to address these conditions.

Initiatives to undertake service-learning arose at different levels of the two countries’ higher education systems. Service-learning’s

development in the United States was a grassroots, bottom-up innovation, which in its early days received little support and often antagonism from the upper ranks of institutions. It rode partially on the backs of already engaged and committed students, and on larger waves of education reform that focused on students' cognitive, emotional, and moral development. Once they had a toe-hold in the academy, the U.S. service-learning pioneers, as one of them put it, were able to "throw open the windows" of their institutions to make resources—primarily students—available to communities (Stanton, Giles, & Cruz, 1999, p. 132).

In South Africa, the service-learning initiative seems to have been more of a top-down, policy-driven movement, instigated and legitimized by the new government's education ministry, and catalyzed by an outside organization, the Joint Education Trust. In this way, it was an "outside-in" approach to the academy process. Although those pushing the initiative were concerned with developing South African students' awareness of and capacity to deal with the many pressing problems of the new democracy, their focus was primarily on extending university resources to assist previously disadvantaged communities. Students were rarely involved in policy-making, planning, and program implementation and evaluation. They rarely organized, nor were they invited to organize, to advocate for outcomes for the academy and communities.

These different approaches to education innovation relate to differences in each nation's higher education system, and to their social/political environments at critical moments. For example, South Africa's higher education sector is more regulated from the government's side, and much more centralized than that of the United States, making a top-down approach both possible and desirable. It would be difficult for such an approach to take place in the United States, given its intensely fragmented higher education sector and that state and federal education departments focus only minimally on higher education, with weak or non-existent initiatives to advance education reform.

Other differences also require further research and analysis. One difference, for example, is the European heritage and traditions of many South African universities, and their epistemological assumptions about knowledge and knowledge acquisition. Challenges to an engaged, collaborative pedagogy such as service-learning are relatively weak in the United States because of an emphasis on applied problem-solving education, service mandated by the federal government's implementation of a land-grant university system in the 19th century, and by changes in students and disciplines brought about by the social and cultural ferment of the 1960s and 1970s.

In summary, this essay reveals the importance of social context in relation to the evolution of service-learning in two countries. Successful innovation strategies, whether instigated from above or below, or from inside or outside higher education institutions, ultimately gain traction when they find ways to enable these universities to respond to and better serve their changing external environments. In addition, as is evident in these two stories, the innovators (in this case service-learning pioneers) working the boundaries between campus and community help transform higher education's social context, in general, while simultaneously assisting their universities to respond to change.

Endnotes

1. The National Society for Experiential Education (NSEE) came into being through a merger of two professional organizations. One of these, the Society for Field Experience Education (SFEE), was started in the late 1960s by early service-learning practitioners to support their work. SFEE focused on service-learning and was the main support network for these early pioneers.
2. According to annual ACE-UCLA surveys of freshmen, since 1972 students had been attaching decreasing importance to values such as helping others, promoting racial understanding, cleaning up the environment, participation in community action, and keeping up with political affairs. During the same period, the percentage of students placing high priority on being well off financially jumped from 40% to 73%. The goal of "developing a meaningful quality of life" showed the greatest decline, almost 50%. Surveys by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and the Independent Sector indicated similar trends.
3. For example, the American Association for Higher Education in 1986 convened an "action community" of faculty and administrators to examine strategies to increase student involvement in community service. The Council for Liberal Learning of the American Association of Colleges and Universities examined the importance of combining academic study with structured community experiences in the development of student insight into the nature of public leadership. The Kettering Foundation expanded its series of Campus Conversations on the Civic Arts, and organized regional faculty seminars and training events. Responding to a directive from the state legislature, the California State University and University of California systems prepared plans for implementing "Human Corps," which strongly encouraged all students to engage in community service.

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DISSERTATION OVERVIEWS

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From Outreach to Engaged Placemaking: Understanding Public Land-grant University Involvement with Tourism Planning and Development

Rolando D. Herts

Abstract

This dissertation research project aimed to identify benefits and drawbacks of public land-grant university involvement with tourism planning and development, an emergent form of university-community engagement. Using qualitative methodology, the study's findings led to the codification of levels of university tourism planning and development capacity. It is hoped that the overall project—a portion of which is summarized in this dissertation overview—lays the groundwork for further research on public land-grant university tourism planning and development as potentially both a beneficial and a disempowering form of university-community engagement.

Research Purpose

The purpose of this dissertation research project was to explore how public land-grant university involvement with tourism planning and development reflects a national shift from outreach to engagement modes of public service in higher education (*Weerts & Sandmann, 2008*). Indeed, public land-grant universities have become involved with tourism planning and development efforts in their communities as forms of education and public service through academic programs and cooperative tourism extension, as well as through conference and event services and campus-based visitor information centers. Public land-grant university involvement with tourism planning and development signals a trend toward university placemaking, place promotion, and place marketing that coincides with the national university-community engagement movement (*Connell, 1996, 2000; Gunn, 2002; Markusen & Gadwa, 2010; Schneekloth & Shibley, 1995; Sidhu, 2006*).

Do tourism planning and development activities advance or detract from the tripartite mission (i.e., public service, research, and teaching) of public land-grant universities? In an era of scrutiny regarding the value of higher education to broader society, public land-grant universities, as well as other research universities, are being called upon to show greater accountability to the

public that supports them through taxes and tuition (*Commission on the Future of Higher Education, 2006; McDowell, 2001; Taylor, 2010; Weerts, 2007*).

If public land-grant university involvement with tourism planning and development is a new form of university-community engagement, is the practice a viable way for public land-grant universities to advance a community engagement agenda in an era of public accountability? With growing skepticism regarding universities' contributions to society, why would public land-grant universities opt to administer public service through tourism planning and development instead of through what may be viewed as more pressing regional and community development topic areas (e.g., workforce development, public health and nutrition, access to information technology, housing)? Is the phenomenon more about promoting institutional interests than it is about improving community prosperity?

To address these questions, this dissertation research project sought to identify benefits and drawbacks of public land-grant university involvement with tourism planning and development as an emergent form of university-community engagement.

Concepts Underlying the Research

Two primary concepts underpinned the research project: university capacity for tourism planning and development, and university promotion of tourism planning and development as community-engaged placemaking.

University Capacity for Tourism Planning and Development

The tourism planning and development capacity concept derives from two fields: community-based tourism planning and community development. From a tourism planning perspective, Moscardo (2008) defines such capacity as a community's readiness to participate in tourism development based on its level of collective, collaborative tourism knowledge. From a community development perspective, Glickman and Servon (1998) identify aspects of organizational capacity, including programming and networking capabilities. For example, programming capacity was understood as a public land-grant university's ability to provide tourism planning and development services that fulfill its education, research, and public service missions (e.g., offering technical assistance to small businesses; planning and/or hosting cultural events and educational conferences). Networking capacity was understood as a

public land-grant university's ability to create and manage partnerships with external entities (e.g., municipal- and county-level destination marketing organizations; state tourism departments; national tourism-oriented professional organizations).

University Tourism Planning and Development as Community-Engaged Placemaking

Today, public land-grant universities appear to be inculcating principles of placemaking in their public service activities and missions. Placemaking is a holistic approach to planning and development that integrates natural, built, and sociocultural environments through interorganizational collaboration and citizen participation. Urban scholars argue that place competitiveness, place quality, and place attachment are critical in a global-network society in which the fortunes and misfortunes of individuals, organizations, cities, and regions have become tied to the types of places that they are perceived as coming from, currently occupying, and/or moving toward (Bonner, 2002; Castells, 2000; Corcoran, 2002; Drier, Mollenkopf, & Swanstrom, 2005; Florida, 2002). Professions and institutions with expert-level influence over placemaking processes—including planning, public policy, historic preservation, architecture, engineering, and now, community-engaged universities—are viewed as having increasingly significant power in determining how places are perceived by residents and visitors, as well as where communities rank in regional, national, and global place hierarchies (Florida, 2008; Nelson, Butler, & Wall, 1999; Schneekloth & Shibley, 1995).

Research Methods

Little published research exists on university involvement with tourism planning and development, particularly as a form of public service. Thus, for this emerging area of inquiry, this dissertation project employed a non-linear, inductive design that incorporated three qualitative methodological frameworks: grounded theory, case study, and institutional ethnography (Glaser, 1998; Leonard & McAdam, 2001; Smith, 2002; Strauss & Corbin, 1998; Yin, 2003).

Grounded Theory to Explore and Analyze the Literature and University Websites: Phases I and II

Due to lack of theory related to the benefits and drawbacks of public land-grant university involvement with tourism planning

and development as an emergent form of university-community engagement, the study progressed through three phases of discovery. The first phase proposed the integration of three bodies of literature for examining university-community tourism engagement phenomena. The three bodies of literature were planning, tourism planning, and higher education public service. As with other grounded theory efforts, the literature review not only identified theoretical gaps, but also provided data for establishing a theoretical space for examining university-community tourism engagement critically (Connell & Lowe, 1997; Heath, 2006). The literature review, therefore, provided a basis for developing and refining the study's research questions, two of which are addressed in this brief dissertation overview:

- How are public land-grant universities with greater tourism planning and development capacities distinguished from public land-grant universities with lower capacities?
- What are reciprocal benefits and drawbacks of university-community tourism planning and development? Do benefits and drawbacks differ based on institutional capacity?

The second phase identified and characterized five levels of public land-grant university tourism planning and development capacity. Visual and textual data were gathered from over 150 websites for university-based cooperative tourism extension departments, conference and event services operations, and campus-based visitor information centers. Data gathered from websites were interpreted using semiotic analysis, a method of deconstructing language and images as texts (Bourdieu, 1991; Thurlow & Jaworski, 2006), to determine levels of tourism planning and development capacity among the 69 public land-grant universities included in the study. The semiotic analysis also led to the identification of distinguishing characteristics for each capacity level. In addition, over 150 in-person and phone survey interviews were conducted with university and community leaders (e.g., academic administrators, extension and academic faculty, local tourism professionals) to verify the interpretation of the website data. The five-tiered capacity classification system emerged from this analysis.

Case Study and Institutional Ethnography Methods: Phase III

For the third research phase, the public land-grant university tourism planning and development classification system developed in the second phase served as a basis for conducting two case study institutional ethnographies. The two institutions were Rutgers University, a public land-grant university located in New Jersey's Gateway Tourism Region, and Alcorn State University, a historically Black 1890 public land-grant university and a legislatively designated partner in the Mississippi Delta National Heritage Area. The institutions were selected for their contrasting capacity levels. Based on the classification system developed in Phase II, Rutgers University was classified as a high capacity Level 3 university, and Alcorn State University was classified as a low capacity Level 1 university. They also were selected based on the investigator's familiarity with tourism planning and development characteristics and initiatives within the institutions' respective regions.

Three data collection and verification techniques were used to achieve in-depth, critical comparative analyses of the institutions' involvement with tourism planning and development initiatives: (1) participant observation of university-community tourism engagement meetings; (2) material review (e.g., case study university websites; community planning meeting minutes; local tourism promotion websites and marketing materials); and (3) approximately 15 semi-structured on-site interviews with university-based and community-based leaders.

The Findings

The study had two primary findings related to the benefits and drawbacks of public land-grant university involvement with tourism planning and development as an emergent form of university-community engagement.

Finding I: University Tourism Marketing Reinforces Historic Institutional Hierarchies

The study found that public land-grant university tourism engagement marketing reinforces hierarchies that have existed historically among public land-grant universities based on geographic location, institutional type based on race (i.e., 1862 land-grant institution vs. historically Black 1890 land-grant institution), and perceived institutional prestige. The five-tiered classification system that evolved from the findings of this study is a basis for this finding (see Table 1).

Table 1. Proposed Classification System of Public Land-grant University Tourism Planning and Development Capacity

	Tier	Description	Examples (alphabetized by state)	General characteristics
High capacity (42 total)	Level 4	Public land-grant universities that feature all four tourism planning and development mechanisms (13 total)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • University of Florida-Gainesville • Purdue University (Indiana) • Iowa State University • Cornell University (New York) • Texas A&M University 	Institutional types <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 38% are members of the AAU (Association of American Universities) • 31% are considered “Public Ivies” • One (2%) is a historically Black university • 33% serve states located in the Mississippi Delta and Great Plains regions; none of these are historically Black public land-grant universities
	Level 3	Public land-grant universities that feature three of the four tourism planning and development mechanisms (29 total)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • University of Arizona • University of Maryland-Eastern Shore • University of Minnesota-Twin Cities • Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey • University of Wisconsin-Madison 	Perceived commitment to community engagement <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 71% are members of Campus Compact • 19% received the 2010 Carnegie Community Engagement Classification designation
	Level 2	Public land-grant universities that feature two of the four tourism planning and development mechanisms (11 total)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • University of Connecticut-Storrs • Fort Valley State University (Georgia) • Kansas State University • Montana State University • Virginia State University 	Institutional types <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • None are members of AAU (Association of American Universities) • One (9%) is considered a “Public Ivy” • 36% are historically Black public land-grant universities • Three (27%) serve states located in the Great Plains of Mississippi Delta regions; one of these is a historically Black public land-grant university Perceived commitment to community engagement <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 72% are members of Campus Compact • 36% received the 2010 Carnegie Community Engagement Classification designation
Low capacity (16 total)	Level 1	Public land-grant universities that feature one of the four tourism planning and development mechanisms (9 total)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alabama A&M University • Tuskegee University (Alabama) • Alcorn State University (Mississippi) • South Dakota State University • University of Wyoming 	Institutional types <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • None are members of the AAU (Association of American Universities) • None are considered “Public Ivies” • 88% are historically Black public land-grant universities • 69% serve states located in the Great Plains or Mississippi Delta regions; 81% of these are historically Black public land-grant universities
	“Not applicable”	Public land-grant universities that feature none of the four tourism planning and development mechanisms (7 total)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Southern University (Louisiana) • North Carolina A&T University • Langston University (Oklahoma) • South Carolina State University • Tennessee State University 	Perceived commitment to community engagement <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 56% are members of Campus Compact • One (6%) received the 2010 Carnegie Community Engagement Classification designation

High capacity universities.

Public land-grant universities ranking in the classification's Level 3 and 4 categories were determined to be high capacity institutions. The data analysis found that high capacity public land-grant universities tend to promote their involvement with tourism planning and development as community engagement, thereby advancing themselves as powerful placemakers that help to make their communities more competitive destinations in regional and national place hierarchies. Moreover, over one third of high capacity public land-grant universities (38%) are members of the prestigious Association of American Universities and/or have been identified as "Public Ivies" by Greene and Greene (2001). Cooperative tourism extension departments, conference and event services operations, and campus-based visitor information centers at these institutions also tend to be affiliated with national professional organizations and scholarly networks (e.g., Association of Collegiate Conference and Event Directors-International, Collegiate Information and Visitor Services Association, National Extension Tourism Conference). They also tend to maintain relationships with local tourism marketing and policy entities (e.g., state tourism offices, destination marketing organizations, chambers of commerce). Such affiliations afford these university-based entities opportunities to enhance institutional programming and networking capacity for tourism planning and development activity.

Medium capacity universities.

Public land-grant universities ranking in the classification's Level 2 category were identified as medium capacity institutions. This category featured a mix of institutional types that, when viewed collectively, appeared to have levels of commitment to community engagement comparable to and perhaps even greater than high capacity public land-grant universities, as evidenced by membership levels with Campus Compact, and designation as community-engaged institutions by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. The Level 2 category, however, contained more historically Black 1890 public land-grant universities than Level 3 and Level 4 combined. The study found that medium capacity public land-grant universities collectively were perceived as less prestigious than their high capacity counterparts. Overall, their cooperative tourism extension departments, conference and event services operations, and campus-based visitor information centers had fewer affiliations with national professional organizations and scholarly networks, and were less likely to maintain relationships with local tourism marketing and policy entities.

Low capacity universities.

Public land-grant universities ranking in the classification's Level 1 and "Not Applicable" categories were identified as low capacity institutions. These public land-grant universities appeared less equipped to participate in tourism planning and development as community engagement and, thus, also appeared to lack place-making power in their communities. Collectively, low capacity public land-grant universities appeared to have less commitment to community engagement than institutions in the high and medium capacity categories. Because most of these institutions lack cooperative tourism extension departments, conference and event services operations, or campus-based visitor information centers, overall they tend not to affiliate with national professional organizations and scholarly networks related to tourism. Moreover, relationships with local tourism marketing and policy entities are much less evident among these institutions than they are among their high and medium capacity counterparts. The study found that historically Black 1890 public land-grant universities are the most common institutional type in the low capacity category (88%). Also, unlike high and medium capacity institutions, a majority of low capacity public land-grant universities (69%) serve states that are located in historically depopulating and chronically poor regions—particularly the Great Plains and the Mississippi Delta—where tourism is being considered as a key economic development strategy (Popper & Popper, 2006). In contrast to the high and medium capacity categories, the vast majority (81%) of public land-grant universities that serve these regions are historically Black 1890 institutions.

Finding 2: Placemaking Power Is an Indicator of Institutional Competitiveness

The study revealed that the adoption of tourism engagement marketing strategies among high capacity public land-grant universities creates a "new playing field." Low capacity public land-grant universities and their communities are disadvantaged when trying to compete with high capacity universities and their communities. This new playing field is driven largely by sophisticated, collaborative tourism engagement programs that shape perceptions of public land-grant university placemaking power.

High capacity public land-grant universities collaborate with others within their ranks on tourism development projects (see Figure 1), thus codifying prestige and socioeconomic power structures that distinguish not only the institutions, but also the

geographic places surrounding them, as competitive destinations. These high capacity institutions also add value to community and regional tourism planning and development capacity, as they promulgate tourism knowledge through Cooperative Extension and academic programs. For example, the University of Minnesota Tourism Center promotes tourism “research, facilitation, and consultation services,” including “festival and event management” and “tourism development” (*University of Minnesota Tourism Center, 2011*). High capacity institutions also provide event spaces and visitor information services that aim to strengthen local and regional social capital networks and enhance community destination image. One example is the Kellogg Hotel and Conference Center at Michigan State University, which “fit[s] with the land grant mission of the University” of “service beyond the campus boundaries” (*Kellogg Hotel and Conference Center, n.d.a*) and is billed as “the jewel of hotels in Lansing and East Lansing, Michigan” (*Kellogg Hotel and Conference Center, n.d.b*). Another example is the visitor and information program at the University of Wisconsin–Madison, which promotes “popular destinations,” “landmarks,” and other attractions on campus and in the city of Madison (2011).

The screenshot shows the website for the Pee Dee AgriTourism Passport. At the top, it is powered by AgriTourism Market Maker. The navigation menu includes Home, What Is Agritourism?, Events, Photo Gallery, and Online Resources. The main content area is titled "ABOUT AGRITOURISM PASSPORT" and includes a sub-heading "What is the AgriTourism Passport?" followed by a paragraph explaining that the passport is a collaborative initiative supported by Clemson University Cooperative Extension, the University of Illinois Extension, and USDA Rural Development grants. A "Sponsors" section lists AgMRC, USDA, Farm Credit, Clemson Public Service, and Rural Development. The footer contains contact information for Clemson University (BLAKEL@clemson.edu) and copyright information for the University of Illinois (2011).

Figure 1. The Cooperative Extension tourism departments at Clemson University, a Level 4 public land-grant university, and the University of Illinois, a Level 3 public land-grant university, collaboratively offer the Pee Dee Agritourism Passport, a web-based marketing portal advertising a variety of agritourism businesses and attractions in the northeastern Pee Dee region of South Carolina. The portal promotes farmers markets, agricultural festivals, pick-your-own farm experiences, farm-based bed and breakfast inns, and a farm-based museum. Retrieved October 11, 2012, from <http://peedee.agritourism.illinois.edu/agri/about>

Conversely, public land-grant universities with low tourism engagement capacity tend to be separate (read: divested) from, rather than embedded (read: invested) in their communities. Indeed, historically Black 1890 universities, which, in this study, were over-represented among low capacity public land-grant universities, generally are members of the national university-community engagement organization Campus Compact, and their students and faculty commit many hours of service to their communities. Moreover, some of the historically Black 1890 universities highlighted in this study, particularly those at high and medium capacity levels, do, in fact, promote their cultural heritage and event facilities as mechanisms of institutional public service. For example, Fort Valley State University, a medium capacity institution, describes its historic Anderson House Museum and Welcome Center “as a viable university and public information center that responds to the education and facility usage needs of small groups” (*Jordan, n.d.*) as well as promotes its C. W. Pettigrew Farm and Community Life Center as “a full-service conference, convention, and fine arts facility” that is an “outreach program” of the institution (*Boston, n.d.a*). Low capacity public land-grant universities—whether they are historically Black 1890 universities or not—provide utilitarian and, in some cases, incomplete and/or outdated promotional information about their cooperative tourism extension projects and their conference and event services and campus-based visitor information operations. Programming and networking capacity are important factors in promoting public land-grant university involvement with tourism planning and development as university-community engagement.

The two case study institutions in this dissertation research project, Rutgers University and Alcorn State University, were found to have quite different levels of involvement and perceived place-making power in their respective regional tourism planning and development initiatives. With its flagship New Brunswick campus promoted for having “an arts and culture powerhouse” location (*New Jersey Department of State Division of Travel & Tourism, 2012, p. 117*), Rutgers University, a high capacity Level 3 institution, emerged in the study as one of 20 “trendsetters” at the forefront of advancing public land-grant university tourism engagement. Conversely, as of the completion of the study, Alcorn State University, a low capacity Level 1 institution, was perceived by study respondents as having limited involvement with Mississippi Delta National Heritage Area planning activities when compared with other non-land-grant

partner institutions (i.e., Delta State University, Mississippi Valley State University).

Summary of the Findings

This study examined public land-grant university tourism planning and development activity throughout the United States in general, and at two universities in particular. The findings led the author to propose a five-tiered classification system of public land-grant university tourism planning and development capacity. The proposed classification system establishes a framework for analyzing how this activity is being promoted as a form of community-engaged placemaking.

Conclusion

The overarching conclusion of this dissertation research project is that public land-grant university involvement with tourism planning and development may be more aptly referred to as “university-community tourism engagement,” especially since many leading public land-grant universities are framing it as such. Numerous institutions practice university-community tourism engagement despite the lack of scholarly attention to this phenomenon.

This dissertation research project also concluded that university-community tourism engagement illuminates placemaking power differentials between and among public land-grant universities. These power differentials include geographic location, institutional type based on race, and perceived institutional prestige. Elite public land-grant universities that are adept at promoting themselves as placemakers through tourism planning and development are positioning themselves for sustained public support as well as long-term survival. If state budget reduction trends continue, and public entities demand further proof that higher education institutions are contributing to the common good, high capacity public land-grant universities that are perceived as placemakers—the ones actively enhancing quality of life in surrounding communities and helping make them more competitive in regional, national, and global destination marketplaces—will likely have an advantage over low capacity public land-grant universities that are not perceived in this way. Ironically, university-community tourism engagement among public land-grant universities reinforces class, race, and power hegemonies that the university-community engagement movement seeks to address.

As high capacity public land-grant universities innovate continuously through programmatic enhancements and professional information networks, the efforts of low capacity institutions pale by comparison. Invariably, the likelihood decreases that low capacity public land-grant universities can offer the level of place-making resources that will enable their communities to compete in regional, national, and global place hierarchies, which high capacity institutions and their communities appear to define and command through monetary resources; through political and social capital relationships with external tourism organizations and other universities involved in tourism-related activities; and through specialized expertise and facilities for bringing together faculty, staff, students, community stakeholders, and national and global visitors. Indeed, the greater a university's contributions to the attractiveness of surrounding communities as destinations, the more engaged a university may appear to be. Thus, placemaking power may gain in importance as public land-grant universities and other higher education institutions are expected to demonstrate their contributions and worth to society.

Contribution to the Literature

This dissertation research aimed to fill a gap in the university-community engagement literature that has been addressed chiefly by Connell (2000), whose work asserts that university involvement with tourism planning and development provides a "socially responsible way" (p. 8) for universities to fulfill the educational and public service aspects of their missions. The study demonstrates that the marketing and promotion of university-community tourism engagement activities has become more salient in recent years. The study findings support further observation and analysis of the implications of university involvement with tourism planning and development as a form of university-community engagement.

Specifically, the study has established groundwork for further research on public land-grant university tourism engagement as a concomitantly beneficial and disempowering form of university-community engagement. Connell (2000) observes, "At first glance, the terms 'tourism' and 'university' may sit rather uncomfortably together" (p. 1). Though it is being framed as community engagement, public land-grant university tourism planning and development indeed may be an unsettling concept, because it can be viewed as fueling another, perhaps more controversial, trend: the intensifying commercialization of higher education. Bok (2003) asserts that commercial activity (i.e., revenue generation) in higher

education has “clearly helped make universities more attentive to public needs . . . causing universities to become less stodgy and elitist and more vigorous in their efforts to aid economic growth” (pp. 15–16). University-community engagement scholars should consider investigating whether public land-grant university tourism engagement genuinely advances non-elitist public service and community-based action, or if this emerging practice actually reifies institutional prestige, and geographic and race-based hierarchies, to the detriment of low capacity public land-grant universities and the communities that such universities are mandated to serve.

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About the Author

Rolando D. Herts is the associate director of the Office of University-Community Partnerships at Rutgers-Newark. In 2009, Herts participated in the Emerging Engagement Scholars Workshop with the National Outreach Scholarship Conference. In addition to university-community engagement, his research interests include community-based tourism planning, place promotion/marketing, community and regional development, and inter-organizational collaboration. He earned his bachelor's degree in English from Morehouse College, his master's degree in social science from the University of Chicago, and his Ph.D. in planning and public policy from Rutgers, The State University of New Jersey in New Brunswick.

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Pedagogical Catalysts of Civic Competence: The Development of a Critical Epistemological Model for Community-Based Learning

Stephanie Stokamer

Abstract

Democratic problem-solving necessitates an active and informed citizenry, but existing research on service-learning has shed little light on the relationship between pedagogical practices and civic competence outcomes. This study developed and tested a model to represent that relationship and identified pedagogical catalysts of civic competence using five years of survey data from over 10,000 students in approximately 700 courses. The results strongly substantiate the proposed model, with knowledge, skills, attitudes, and actions as epistemological components of civic competence. Most importantly for the social justice aims of service-learning, the study found that diversity significantly enhances all civic competence outcomes. Finally, the results demonstrated that service must be thoroughly integrated into a course through the syllabus and community partnership to maximize civic competence. These findings and the new Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence through Service-Learning provide direction for faculty development and future research related to cultivating competent citizens through service-learning.

Introduction

A thriving pluralistic, democratic society depends upon the civic competence of its citizens, characterized by informed deliberation and collaboration to address public problems and work toward common goals (Bowen, 1977; Colby, Beaumont, Ehrlich, & Corngold, 2007). Developing the knowledge, skills, and motivations for effective democratic participation is a national and global imperative that many higher education institutions have embraced through the teaching strategies of service-learning and community-based learning (Battistoni, 1997; Colby, Ehrlich, Beaumont, & Stephens, 2003; Ehrlich, 2000). Previous research has consistently found that community-based learning has modest but positive effects on students' academic, personal, and civic development (Cress, Burack, Giles, Elkins, & Stevens, 2010; Eyer & Giles, 1999; Gallini & Moely, 2003), yet has not focused on the relationship between pedagogical approaches and outcomes. Thus, instructors have

relatively little evidence-based guidance on how to craft their courses for civic competence in the unique context of community-based learning. The purpose of this study was to empirically test a new theoretically constructed model of civic competence development in community-based learning courses

Conceptual Framework

The new model builds on the work of Saltmarsh (1996, 2005), Eyler and Giles (1999), Wang and Jackson (2005), and others who have discussed knowledge, skills, values, efficacy, commitment, and responsibility as civic outcomes of service-learning, as well as its social justice aims. As illustrated in Figure 1, the proposed pedagogical model of civic competence includes four components with eight overlapping and interactive epistemological domains that emerged from existing scholarship (e.g. Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000; Bandura, 1997; Mitchell 2008; Moely, McFarland, Miron, Mercer, & Ilustre, 2002; Perry & Katula, 2001). This epistemological model incorporates service as the conceptual linchpin, recognizing that action is not just the culmination of competence, but an integral part of it. Through community-based learning, students can develop civic competence that is tested in action and therefore becomes more than an acquired capacity for civic engagement—it is a way of knowing civic engagement.

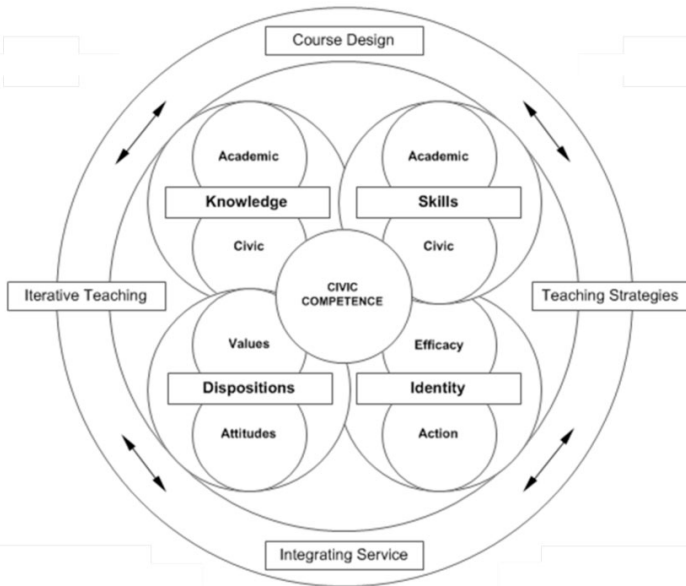


Figure 1. A pedagogical model of civic competence

Moreover, civic competence must be deliberately integrated into educational practices in order to achieve desired civic outcomes (Howard, 2001). How community-based learning faculty align their teaching with the goal of civic competence, however, is largely unexplored. Figure 1 also depicts the elements of pedagogical practices associated with civic competence: course design, teaching strategies, integration of service into the course, and the iterative process of assessing and revising a course (Ash & Clayton, 2004; Gelmon, Holland, Driscoll, Spring, & Kerrigan, 2000; Heffernan, 2001; Pribbenow, 2005). This study identified specific strategies leading to the development of civic competence in each stage of the pedagogical process.

Methods

The overarching research question guiding the study was: What are the pedagogical catalysts of civic competence in community-based learning courses? Specifically, in community-based learning courses, (1) what are the student characteristics of civic competence, and (2) are there identifiable patterns of relationship between elements of pedagogy and development of civic competence? The data came from the required interdisciplinary community-based learning program at an urban research university. The sample consisted of 10,974 students from 2005 to 2010, representing about 150 courses a year or approximately 700 sections. The instrument was the course evaluation survey in which students assess the course and report their learning. This survey includes indicators of student learning and of teaching methods, offering the opportunity to both test the proposed model and examine the relationships between pedagogical elements and civic competence outcomes. Item analysis and factor analysis were used to examine the data. The pedagogical elements were correlated with outcomes using cross tabulations and the Pearson correlation coefficient, revealing associations between instructional techniques and students' civic competence.

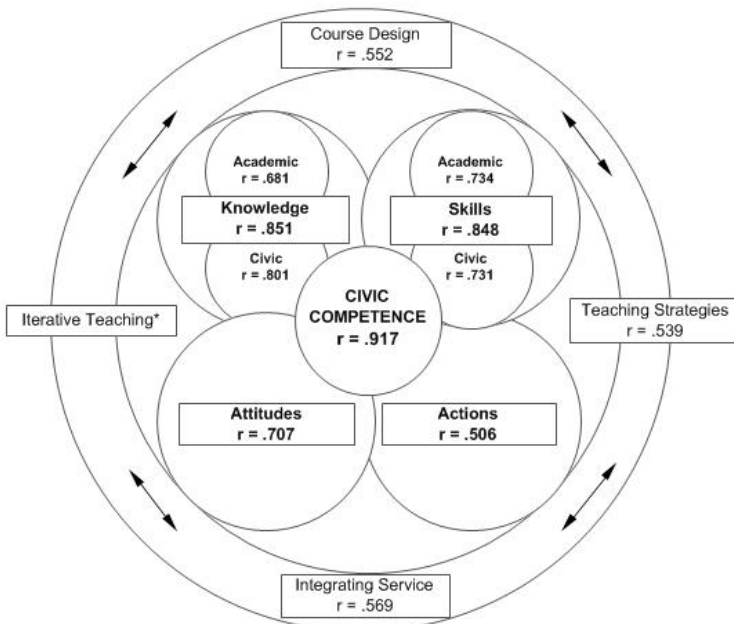
Findings

The course evaluation instrument used for this study provided material for analysis. The quantitative data were both a representation of civic competence that helped clarify the constructs proposed, and a measurement of civic competence that elucidated pedagogical catalysts. This section reports the results of analysis and suggests points for further discussion. The results supported

the epistemological model of civic competence and specific pedagogical approaches that can increase civic competence outcomes.

Student Characteristics of Civic Competence

Results indicated that the epistemological conceptualization of civic competence was sound as proposed; however, it was strengthened by slight revision, such as realigning items and simplifying constructs. The 14 outcome items held together conceptually as a representation of civic competence and for the individual components and domains. Cronbach's alpha values ranged from $r = .592$ for efficacy to $r = .848$ for skills, indicating moderately strong relationships among the items. Principal component analysis determined how the items group together without the researcher's imposed constructs (Field, 2009; Green, Salkind, & Akey, 2000). This approach retained four factors that offered strong confirmation of the proposed epistemology of civic competence, although slight variations in how items combined further informed the model (see Figure 2).



*Iterative teaching was not analyzed in this study.

Figure 2. The Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence through Service-Learning

Patterns of Relationship Between Community-Based Learning Pedagogy and Civic Competence

Correlations were run between the instructional items and each of the components, domains, and the overall construct of civic competence using outcome variables computed from mean scores. The pedagogical practices with the strongest relationships to civic competence were exploration of diversity ($r = .552$) and a syllabus that clearly connects service work to course content ($r = .569$). The results showed effective faculty strategies (e.g., 80% of those attaining knowledge outcomes indicated that their instructors used class discussion) as well as elements that might enhance outcomes if utilized more frequently (e.g., topics such as race or political issues, used by only half of faculty but associated with civic competence), strongly substantiating the pedagogical components of the model (including course design, teaching strategies, integrating service, and iterative teaching). The exploration of diversity significantly enhances all civic competence outcomes, reinforcing the connection between competent participation in a pluralistic democracy and service-learning for social justice, and suggesting alignment with critical pedagogy. Thus this new conceptualization is termed the Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence through service-learning.

Significance

The results of this study have important implications for community-based learning theory, practice, and research, and further Kuh's (2008) claim that service-learning is a high-impact educational practice.

A Model of Civic Competence

The data supported the structure and defining features of the proposed model of civic competence, such as the mutual reinforcement among components and domains and the epistemological conceptualization of civic competence as efficacy in action. Knowledge, skills, attitudes, and actions together can bring students to a new way of knowing. Understanding civic competence as an epistemological construct is an important theoretical advancement. This study's findings also maintained the pedagogical ring encompassing civic competence. The critical pedagogy model of civic competence therefore offers a comprehensive but straightforward approach for conceptualizing the relationship between pedagogy and civic outcomes.

Diversity Is Essential

This finding suggests that diversity should be creatively woven into all types of community-based learning to enhance civic competence. Moreover, critical pedagogy is necessary to most deeply and effectively help students understand community-based learning in the broader spectrum of civic participation for social change, to create space for dialogue around issues of privilege and difference, and to challenge systems of oppression (Kitano, 1997; Souza, 2007; Yep, 2011). If democratic society is to thrive, faculty must be willing to delve into the topics of diversity and social justice, and institutions must be willing to support them in doing so, lest they risk reinforcing the systems of oppression that community-based learning could otherwise help dismantle (Freire, 1970; Mitchell, 2008).

Course Integration of Service

For more than 10 years, scholars have maintained that in order to maximize benefits and make genuine contributions to community, service-learning must be well integrated into coursework (Cress, 2011; Eyster, 2002; Hatcher, Bringle, & Muthia, 2004; Howard, 1998). This study offered a practical rubric adapted from Kitano (1997) for revising syllabi to most effectively catalyze civic competence. This rubric, the Stokamer taxonomy of course and syllabus change for civic competence, delineates integration of civic competence into elements of a course syllabus at three different levels: exclusive (not likely to enhance civic competence), inclusive (some opportunities for development of civic competence), and transformed (optimal integration of service for civic competence). This taxonomy could be used for faculty professional development workshops, program assessment, or individual review of course syllabi, and could be adjusted for co-curricular programming.

Conclusion

Future research using multiple institutions, refined instruments, and qualitative data should be conducted to elaborate the model and the interaction among components. Nevertheless, this study has filled a gap in the existing scholarship by developing and testing a pedagogical model of civic competence. This epistemological conceptualization highlights the overlapping and interactive components of civic competence and their relationship to pedagogical practices. Moreover, critical pedagogy and careful integration of service into the course syllabus are essential for students to deeply consider the implications of diversity for democracy and social jus-

tice. The Critical Pedagogy Model of Civic Competence through service-learning offers faculty a heuristic taxonomy of teaching and learning strategies for utilizing diversity of thought and interaction in community-based learning as a catalyst for transforming students into competent democratic participants.

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Doctorate in Educational Leadership, Graduate School of Education
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BOOK REVIEWS

*Theodore R. Alter, Associate Editor
The Pennsylvania State University*

McMahon, W. W. (2009). *Higher Learning, Greater Good: The Private and Social Benefits of Higher Education*. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Review by Beth Nagy

Higher Learning, Greater Good: The Private and Social Benefits of Higher Education provides a thorough review of the benefits of higher education from a modern human capital perspective. The book offers ways to measure the benefits of human capital and explains why higher education plays a lead role in advancing its value in a market-driven economy. McMahon uses economics as the basis for quantifying the public good of higher education in the 21st century, and suggests policies driven by this analysis.

Higher Learning, Greater Good presents the challenges facing higher education policy, advocates for the value of social benefits as an important measure of economic growth, and provides evidence of such value. Each chapter presents a balanced review of an economic policy perspective, citing private and public benefits of a particular economy-driven educational endeavor. Chapters begin with an organized overview and conclude with a succinct review. Sections within the chapters allow the reader to move through each policy topic without losing sight of the main theme. This book is for economists concerned with the valuation of education. It is a worthy read for anyone *seriously* interested in the topic of public versus private funding in higher education.

McMahon convincingly argues that as a nation we are under-investing in higher education, and that information about its nonmarket benefits (both private and social) is not being adequately presented to students, students' parents, or other invested constituents. After clearly articulating the challenges facing higher education in Chapter 1, McMahon outlines the challenges facing higher education policy in Chapter 2. He then, in Chapter 3, discusses the role of higher education in relation to employment, wages, and current skill deficits. Most of McMahon's analysis (much from his own previous research) lies in Chapters 4 and 5, in which he articulates the private nonmarket benefits and the social benefits of higher education. Chapter 6 outlines the social benefits of university research. The author concludes with two chapters synthesizing the debate, and discussing new policies for higher education and for financing higher education, including those that would enable increased state and federal government investment.

Higher Learning, Greater Good presents evidence of private and social nonmarket benefits that have been overlooked: better health, human rights, political stability, lower crime rates, social capital and social cohesion, the generation and adaptation of new ideas, and, ultimately, improved communities. From a community development and community engagement perspective, McMahon provides new measurements of community development efforts for use in democratic, civic, and charitable institutions. He offers measurements that provide new ways of communicating community engagement and social justice in higher education.

Higher Learning, Greater Good is a detailed and thoughtful contribution to education and policy debates. The book is a “must-have” for those participating in the higher education economic debate, regardless of the methodology used to value higher education’s social benefits. For both the professional economist and the professional educator, McMahon presents a thorough summary of the current issues in higher education from an economic perspective.

About the Reviewer

Beth Nagy is an adjunct faculty member in the School of Planning, College of Design, Art, Architecture, and Planning at the University of Cincinnati and a consultant to the Cincinnati Public School Board of Education. Her research interests include the intersections of higher education, community development, and transformational leadership. Nagy earned her bachelor’s degree in urban planning and her master’s degree in community planning from the University of Cincinnati College of Design, Architecture, Art, and Planning, and her Ed.D in Urban Educational Leadership from the University of Cincinnati College of Education, Criminal Justice, and Human Services.

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The Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement’s associate editor for book reviews, Ted Alter (professor of Agricultural, Regional, and Environmental Economics at The Pennsylvania State University) thanks The Johns Hopkins University Press for providing complimentary copies of the book for this review.

Saltmarsh, J., & Hartley, M. (Eds.). (2011). *To Serve a Larger Purpose: Engagement for Democracy and the Transformation of Higher Education*. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.

Review by Timothy J. Shaffer

In February 2008, scholars convened at the Kettering Foundation to respond with “a sense of urgency” to the current state of higher education’s civic engagement work (p. 1). Higher education has, by the estimation of this volume’s editors, failed to fulfill Ernest Boyer’s call for it to serve a larger, democratic purpose. This volume contributes to that larger purpose by challenging those in higher education to view the last few decades as a foundation for building an academy that serves society, but not one sufficient for strengthening democracy. The re-envisioning of higher education’s civic mission has had to contend with the unclear goals and historical fragmentation of the engagement movement, as well as respond to challenges from a predominant ideology within the academy that stands in contrast to civic aims. In recent decades, civic engagement has become an important dimension of higher education’s social role, but often this work has been apolitical and rested “easily within the status quo and [has] rarely challenge[d] it” (p. 290).

This volume presents two central ideas. First, the United States faces significant social challenges, and higher education must play a role in responding to them. These challenges include the widening divide between rich and poor, the current economic crisis, and our inability to engage in meaningful dialogue about these and other issues. Second, the civic engagement movement has not yet realized its full potential. Work must be done to build on what has already occurred as well as draw in others to help articulate and effectuate engagement’s potential.

Efforts as part of the engagement movement have been broadly articulated and implemented—locally, regionally, nationally, and internationally—addressing diverse issues and audiences. Attempts to connect the various networks and initiatives have had limited success (p. 6). As engagement continues to develop and mature as a field of scholarship and as a movement, transforming colleges and universities into institutions committed to democracy and engagement into democratic work requires greater discussion about missions and purposes.

For Saltmarsh and Hartley and the contributors to this volume, the current manifestation of civic engagement is not enough. What is needed is democratic engagement: a “dynamic process rather than a static and rigid dogma or fixed set of activities” (p. 291). Viewed this way, engagement must transcend earlier expressions of service and embrace a modality based on democratic epistemology and practice. This democratic alternative has not been fully articulated, and this volume helps readers think through the challenges and opportunities associated with such change.

The editors introduce the purpose of the book by noting that the civic engagement movement (like all movements) has struggled to find “conceptual and operational coherence” (p. 14). What is not needed are simply more programs. In contrast, democratic processes and purposes reorient civic engagement to be “democratic engagement”—having epistemological, curricular, pedagogical, research, policy, and cultural implications. Without democratic purposes, engagement efforts are often ends in themselves, doing little more than providing good publicity for universities or colleges and providing services for communities. Additionally, engagement is often grounded in an institutional epistemology that privileges expertise and situates the university as the “center of solutions to public problems” (p. 19). Democratic engagement shifts the focus away from the university and instead positions it as part of an environment that values the knowledge and experience everyone contributes to education and community building. The editors stress the need for reciprocal relationships between universities and communities in which both parties acknowledge the political nature of engagement work being done with, rather than for, the public. Indeed, part of the desire for democratic engagement is that it stresses how universities are part of communities—“community” is not somehow “out there.”

The emergence of the civic engagement movement in the 1980s built on earlier traditions within higher education while also challenging many institutional norms. Hartley offers a historical look at the civic engagement movement by noting the contested purposes of higher education. For the last three decades, the civic engagement movement has struggled to define what it is and whether it challenges “value neutral” engagement or embraces it (p. 40). Various organizations and associations have sought to provide greater coherence to language and a way forward for democratic engagement, but have been hindered by the movement’s openness and lack of definitional barriers. Universities and colleges do “engagement” without defining what it is. Hartley notes that

without barriers, “a movement will offend few; however it risks inspiring no one” (p. 43). One of the goals of this volume is to collect distinct elements of the movement to articulate a model of engagement that is explicitly democratic, and one that catalyzes inspiration for students, faculty, and others to help cultivate and sustain our democratic society.

The rest of the chapters offer responses to the question: What are the responsibilities of colleges and universities in a democracy? These include chapters exploring the relationship between universities and community schools, the concept and practice of civic professionalism in the role of university leadership, deliberation’s role in higher education, faculty development, student-centered engagement, citizenship development, epistemological questions about engagement, and a critique of the idea that the civic engagement movement has plateaued.

This volume’s potency stems from the numerous voices and perspectives on the complex issues associated with higher education’s role in democracy, reflected in its chapters. Contributors are not only addressing theoretical issues; they are also doing the work they write about. According to the editors, there are two issues. First, the movement comprises “discrete efforts wholly disconnected from one another on campus—service-learning offices, diversity initiatives, global citizenship programs, difficult dialogue forums and so forth.” Such fragmentation, the editors argue, “will never produce transformative change” (p. 290). Because of these diverse and various strands of the movement, the proverbial left hand does not know what the right is doing.

Second, and equally important, civic engagement fails to challenge the status quo, in that it does not question core elements of how higher education functions. For this challenge, the book’s contributors make clear their belief that second-order changes are necessary if higher education is to make any meaningful impact on society. In their chapter on putting students at the center of civic engagement, Richard M. Battistoni and Nicholas V. Longo argue that “practitioners must reframe the way they think about and collaborate with their students in community-based work” (p. 199). This involves not only including students in conversations about the engaged academy, but also changing the way civic engagement is conceptualized, taught, and practiced. My own experience at universities has demonstrated the very real challenges institutions encounter when trying to articulate coherent views about engagement and how to discuss issues central to transforming higher education. This book could offer groups of faculty, administrators, and others a starting point for discussions about their own

institutions, and how they might transform their civic engagement to something more, something democratic. This volume offers an invitation to scholars and practitioners to think about the larger engagement movement by “lift[ing] up their heads from their various independent activities in order to see that there are many small tributaries that, together, could feed a movement capable of reshaping the landscape of American higher education” (p. 299).

The editors conclude by noting the need for a focus on building a strong, participatory democracy. Such a view details what is at the heart of democratic engagement: passion for democracy and a commitment to helping further develop higher education’s role in shaping society through reciprocal relationships with communities that value diverse experiences and knowledge. The democratically engaged university demands intellectual independence with a desire to make a difference in our democracy.

These articles offer numerous insights and reflections on how individuals and institutions have contributed to our democracy as co-creators of knowledge. However, they also embody the inherent difficulties of articulating a coherent and unified language for something that, at its zenith, is diverse and responsive. The struggle to define higher education’s role in democracy will continue. This is not necessarily a bad thing.

About the Reviewer

Timothy J. Shaffer is a Ph.D. candidate in the field of education at Cornell University and is currently a research associate at the Charles F. Kettering Foundation. His research interests include historical and contemporary forms of engagement, civic professionalism, and public philosophy. He earned his bachelor’s degree in theology from St. Bonaventure University, and his master’s degrees in public administration and theological studies, respectively, from the University of Dayton.

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Beere, C. A., Votruba, J. C., & Wells, G. W. (2011). *Becoming an Engaged Campus: A Practical Guide to Institutionalizing Public Engagement*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Review by Craig D. Weidemann

Becoming an Engaged Campus is a superb practical guidebook for higher education leaders serious about advancing engaged scholarship throughout their institution. Displaying their collective, profound understanding of the myriad benefits and challenges inherent in creating an engaged institution, the authors provide a “how-to” book, taking the reader step-by-step through a change strategy called an “alignment process.” Adopted from Collins and Porras’ (1994) well-regarded business strategy book, *Built to Last*, this strategy becomes the core thesis of the importance of a holistic, university-wide commitment to becoming an engaged campus.

In Chapter 1, the book provides an understanding of the context for public engagement and outreach. This chapter chronicles higher education’s migration from an early focus on teaching, undergraduate education, and the liberal arts to the emulation of the German research model and the expansion of federal funding for research and the land-grant movement in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, and through the dramatic growth of federal government investment in research and education after World War II. The authors highlight the impact of Ernest Boyer’s seminal work, *Scholarship Reconsidered* (1990), which affirmed higher education’s role as a public good, extolled the four forms of scholarship—discovery, teaching, integration, and application (later called engagement)—and advanced campuses to consider the merits of engaged scholarship. The authors encourage campuses to clarify the lexicon defining their engaged work to ensure alignment with campus mission and priorities. The chapter concludes by sharing the many factors driving engagement and its broad benefits to various internal and external audiences, benefits that are institutionally more important than ever as the value of higher education is being challenged on so many fronts.

Chapter 2 lays the foundation for the alignment process and emphasizes the deep challenges of creating a truly engaged campus. The alignment or assessment process is implemented using a grid with four organizational levels and 16 organizational dimensions. This practical framing of the process suggests that an institution first consider the desired state for being truly engaged, and then evaluate elements currently in place. The authors suggest a

committee with broad institutional representation of key leaders, without community representation, to evaluate all parts of the grid and develop a strategy to address each cell.

The authors' experiences indicate that community members are not interested in how the university aligns its processes for engagement purposes. However, committee membership must include well-respected campus thought-leaders to increase the likelihood that the institution will embrace the subsequent assessment. This thorough process is followed by appointment of a governing board to advance and monitor implementation. Although no research affirms the length of the implementation process, research indicates that comparable strategies to implement student engagement took between 5 and 8 years. The grid provides a well-thought-out structure; however, as the authors comment, the process must be customized to reflect the culture and nuances of the institution. As with so many institutional initiatives, rich dialogue occurs during the process and in developing the product. Engaged scholarship often is embraced by individual faculty members with a deep commitment to community-based research or service-learning, but with little impact on engagement for the institution or its faculty as a whole. The proposed committee and processes are intended to leverage and expand these key faculty members' work.

Chapter 3 emphasizes the importance of institutional foundational elements, beginning with an affirmation of engagement in the institution's core mission, vision statement, and values. These three elements must be emphasized in the institutional strategic plan, which must embrace external stakeholders' input. A salient point is made about funding for engagement: Engagement work is not a profit center for the institution, although it can play a role in increasing public financing, grants, and philanthropy. The authors make the case that engagement initiatives must not be subject to unfair cuts when budget challenges arise. They contend that engagement must be a sustained university priority, and not the first item reduced when budgets are tight. Finally, not only should the strategic planning process include external stakeholders, but the campus physical plant must be welcoming and open to external constituencies.

Chapter 4 underscores the key role of campus leaders as translators between the community and the institution. The commitment of the institutional president is imperative for the institution to truly benefit from the alignment process. From my perspective, it is the most significant issue in creating an engaged institution. The case study in the book, Northern Kentucky University, which studiously implemented the process and is benchmarked as a standard

of an engaged institution, greatly benefited from the leadership of President Votruba, one of the authors. The book makes the key point that the entire academic leadership team must proactively support faculty's engaged scholarship work. Internal leadership, especially by the chief academic officer, must ensure that the appropriate funding and rewards are in place to support the faculty. Also, the chief academic officer, deans, and department heads all must balance both the engaged and traditional scholarship by the faculty, an especially difficult issue at research institutions where traditional research receives particular emphasis. The challenge, the authors note, is integrating public engagement by embedding it in the teaching, research, and service missions of the institution. Finally, it is critical that all academic leaders espouse the perspective that communities are not laboratories or subjects for academic research, but rather are true partners in the research process.

Chapter 5 stresses the importance of aligning the institutional organizational structure to advance the engagement enterprise. The book makes a strong case for creating a senior level administrator, in the chief academic officer's office, to serve as the coordinating advocate for engaged scholarship. This position provides both substantive and symbolic leadership, making a statement that engagement is a key leadership priority. The authors advise against burdening the chief engagement officer with line management of offices, centers, or units with engagement initiatives. Clearly, if engagement is to permeate the institution, the work must be likewise embedded in the individual units throughout the university. The authors do suggest the responsibility for service-learning may be a line responsibility, but this function must report to the chief academic officer's office. Finally, the authors point out the merits of a coordinating council representing the various university leaders with oversight of engagement initiatives (e.g., service-learning, centers with community-based research, multidisciplinary initiatives focusing on key societal issues). The authors also indicate the importance of key external stakeholder representation on university boards, especially those focusing on strategic social, civic, and economic issues. Again, they emphasize that the appropriate organizational structure to advance engagement must reflect the unique history, challenges, institutional type (i.e., comprehensive, research), and culture of an institution.

The actual engagement work is performed predominantly through the efforts of faculty members and their engaged scholarship. However, in Chapter 6, which focuses on alignment of faculty and staff, it is noted that faculty do not naturally gravitate toward engagement work. Rightly or wrongly, it is widely believed that

engagement work significantly hinders progress toward tenure. As the book points out, engaged scholarship is messy, requiring a real orientation toward collaboration with faculty members from other disciplines, and with various community members and organizations. This is challenging for faculty members trained to work in solitary research endeavors, and not accustomed to variants of the truth in discovery. Many faculty members simply are not a good match for engaged scholarship work. The powerful forces of promotion and tenure, and not clearly understanding or recognizing the academic quality and merit of engaged scholarship, are also major deterrents to faculty participation, especially for early career faculty.

This book, however, provides solid recommendations to address the issues that negatively impact faculty members interested in pursuing an engagement agenda. Specifically, the authors posit the importance of highlighting faculty engaged work during recruiting and hiring, and in the orientation of new faculty. Other requisite elements include genuinely taking workload into consideration, matching programs with faculty skills and interests, and developing “faculty fellows” to advance engagement work and mentor new faculty. Finally, maintaining the focus on the importance of alignment, the senior leadership must visibly communicate its support for faculty members conducting engaged scholarship work, and provide incentives and celebrations to reward their participation. The chapter concludes by acknowledging what I see as the most significant roadblocks to faculty engaged work—the pressures of disciplinary expectations, graduate faculty ranking, and the academic department promotion and tenure committee. The authors clearly do not advocate for participation of the entire faculty corps in engaged scholarship; however, the previously mentioned barriers are significant and impede those faculty members with keen interest in engaging external communities in their scholarship.

The critical importance of the promotion and tenure process and its relationship to recognizing faculty engaged scholarship warranted a full chapter. The authors stress the slow, requisite process to change what is valued in promotion procedures; however, they argue that three goals must be addressed:

- (a) create a system that recognizes and rewards behavior that advances each institution’s mission dimensions;
- (b) ensure that the RPT [reappointment, promotion, and tenure] guidelines are fair and promote quality work;
- (c) develop guidelines that clarify what work is acceptable within each of the mission dimensions, the criteria by

which it will be evaluated, what constitutes acceptable documentation, and the process by which the documentation will be evaluated. (p. 126)

Chapters 6 and 7 considerably advance the thinking about many critical academic issues surrounding faculty members' engaged work across all three dimensions: engaged scholarship, engaged teaching, and engaged service.

Chapter 8 highlights the expanding focus on student engagement, especially service-learning and community-based research. Although service-learning has traditionally been content- or discipline-based, the authors touch upon the emerging emphasis on civic learning that focuses on social change, social justice, and civic agency. The key to all curricular student engagement is academic rigor and planning. The book provides a number of references to help institutions establish a student engagement initiative, and articulates the components for an effective program. The authors contend that the most challenging limitations to building a student engagement program are the time demands it places on faculty members, students, and community members. In addition, they share the concern that communities must be recognized as equal partners in community-based research, not merely subjects for funded experiments. Like all types of engaged scholarship, providing academically rigorous learning experiences for students in service-learning and community-based research requires strong preparation, deep faculty involvement to integrate the learning experience into coursework, and engaged participation from community partners.

Chapter 9 considers the importance of measurement, one of the most challenging aspects of engaged scholarship. The authors add a unique lens to the measurement issue by emphasizing the importance and complexity of surveying many elements regarding the overall campus climate to support engaged scholarship. However, the really critical issue of measuring the impact on students, curricula, and communities is not significantly addressed in this chapter and merits much more consideration. As many public institutions face increased expectations from legislators and taxpayers to justify the public good of higher education, being able to measure and show impact will be one of the most salient engaged scholarship challenges.

The next three chapters focus on alignment of communication, community, and public policy. The emphasis on communication stresses the importance of internal alignment with purveying an institution's engagement work. On a macro level, sharing an

institution's engagement work can play an important role in making the case for public funding; at the micro level, promoting service-learning and community-based research opportunities for potential students can advance undergraduate admissions efforts as more students seek real world experiences. The chapter on aligning with community ably outlines a process for maximizing community-university partnerships. The authors' understanding of the complexities and inherent challenges of the process is reflected in their well-articulated advice on setting the foundation for and building effective partnerships. The final chapter on alignment covers the tremendous opportunity for higher education to support state-wide agendas that can impact change, and provides concrete examples. The concluding chapter emphasizes the importance of not being reactive to a drastically changing landscape and, instead, being proactive in developing a solid change process to advance engagement in higher education institutions.

Again, this is an outstanding "how-to" book on building an engaged institution. The authors speak from experience, offer a thoughtful planning alignment or assessment matrix, and provide important references. I strongly suggest campus leaders spend time with this book as they build, and work to maintain, an institutional engaged scholarship initiative.

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About the Reviewer

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Jacoby, B., & Associates. (2009). *Civic Engagement in Higher Education: Concepts and Practices*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Review by Kathryn Ortbal and Grace Emmerling

As the topic of civic engagement moves to the forefront for many institutions of higher education, Jacoby and associates present a timely and succinct volume of practical methods for shaping the personal and professional development of university graduates. The authors embrace the complexities of the term “civic engagement,” noting that no single definition can be applied to the aggregate; each institution must create a definition that encompasses the unique circumstances, values, and goals that best suit its needs. For the clarity of their discussion, however, Jacoby and associates offer a working definition of “civic engagement” that is used consistently throughout the chapters. A slight variation of the definition put forth by the Coalition for Civic Engagement and Leadership at the University of Maryland, the authors’ definition of civic engagement encompasses not only the knowledge and skills needed to participate in civic affairs, but also the values, motivation, and commitment needed to sustain participatory efforts across a diverse and wide range of subject matter. The subject matter referred to in the working definition entails learning from others and from self in order to develop informed perspectives on social issues, build an appreciation for diversity, cultivate skill sets needed to work through controversy with civility, develop an active role in political processes, engage in empathetic and ethical behavior, and embrace a leadership role along the way.

As a whole, the book is thematically segmented; Jacoby and associates organize the information in 13 essays that easily stand alone. Though separate, the chapters do come together to create a well-balanced discussion that culminates in a call to restore institutions of higher education to their original public purpose: to prepare students to live balanced, engaged, and democratic lives. The authors address topics such as the current trends in college students’ civic engagement, the number and breadth of civic engagement-based programs currently available, the importance of the first-year experience, and leadership education’s role in revitalizing public life. They provide specific stories of institutions’ successful incorporation of civic engagement into curriculum. They also offer practical tools for the implementation of programs that encourage civic education in diverse settings as well as methods for promoting democracy in the classroom and the integration of interdisciplinary capstone experiences.

The main utility of the book lies in its providing guidance to institutions of higher education that hope to launch programs that incorporate civic engagement into their curriculums. It accomplishes this through a series of essays, making it useful to professionals searching for information on particular civic engagement themes. In contrast, for student readers hoping to become more civically involved, the book does not offer pragmatic methods for integrating civic engagement into their lives. Rather, Jacoby and associates offer theoretical suggestions in an effort to allow readers an abstract understanding of the ways civic engagement can benefit institutions of higher education as well as their students.

Chapter 3, “Educating Students for Personal and Social Responsibility,” is the book’s strongest chapter. Caryn McTighe Musil, the contributing author, overviews recent student-led civic movements—namely the U.S. Diversity, Global Learning, and Civic Engagement movements—and offers methods to maximize the educational value of all three. She introduces a five-question schema to facilitate student development in two ways:

- (1) The schema encourages students to reach a deeper understanding of self, which (2) enables them to develop a deeper capacity to work cooperatively alongside others who may have different ideologies but have mutual goals of working toward civic ends. In order to promote this development, the schema asks students to define five concepts for themselves: (1) Who am I? [knowledge of self], (2) Who are we? [communal, collective knowledge], (3) What does it feel like to be them? [empathetic knowledge], (4) How do we talk with one another? [intercultural process knowledge], (5) How do we improve our shared lives? [applied, engaged knowledge]. (p. 57)

By going through the exercise of defining and reflecting, Musil suggests that students may be better prepared to work collectively in an atmosphere of diverse ideologies. It is through cultivating this atmosphere of diversity and cooperation that Musil suggests the common aspirations of different reform movements can be realized and educational coherence can be made possible.

Also in this chapter, Musil introduces the Civic Learning Spiral, the original product of her work with the Civic Engagement Working Group, which is a collaboration of noted thinkers initiated by the Association of American Colleges and Universities.

The shape of the spiral is designed to emulate the fluid integrated continuum that is a student's learning system. Musil eloquently points out that with each turn of the spiral, "learners bring with them their recently acquired knowledge and their synthesis of the integration of [the following] six interrelated braids" (p. 60): (1) self, (2) communities and cultures, (3) knowledge, (4) skills, (5) values, and (6) public action. All six braids need to coexist simultaneously, Musil suggests, in order to create a sustainable system for the integration of civic engagement into students' lives. Therefore, Musil concludes, it is necessary for institutions of higher education to re-examine their pedagogies, course structures, and intellectual architectures with the spiral in mind to ensure that students' senses of civic imagination are carefully fostered and developed.

In Chapter 9, another strong essay, contributing authors Nicholas Longo and Marguerite Shaffer build on the themes presented in Chapter 3. This chapter, titled "Leadership Education and the Revitalization of Public Life," emphasizes the importance of leadership development within institutions of higher education. Using examples from the Harry T. Wilks Leadership Institute at Miami University in Oxford, Ohio, among others, the authors emphasize public leadership work that integrates community involvement and democratic principles. In contrast to approaches that typically forgo student involvement, the authors advocate utilizing student knowledge and experience to create an atmosphere that invites students to be equals in the eyes of their instructors. Through the effective use of examples, the authors emphasize the benefits of educating students to be leaders within civic engagement education, thereby giving students more power and respect within decision-making systems in higher education.

Together, the frameworks offered in Chapters 3 and 9 provide a coherent set of strategies for professionals hoping to integrate civic engagement education into their institutions. While effectively defining and elucidating these strategies, however, the authors miss an opportunity to diversify their audience to include students. *Civic Engagement in Higher Education* appeals to a broad readership—"academic officers . . . mid- to senior-level professionals . . . and public policy members" (p. 2)—whose support is crucial to the process of nurturing students' transitions into fully engaged citizenship, but Jacoby and her associates overlook current and future students as a potential audience. The strategies reflect little student representation, and the language used makes it clear that the work is about students, not for them. Academic and professional studies

are integrated into the chapters to shed light on the mindsets of the students themselves in lieu of students' collective voices.

For example, on page 71 the authors cite Levine and Cureton's discussion of certain concerns they had found students held during their experiences in higher education. By the time that *Civic Engagement in Higher Education* was published in 2009, the Levine and Cureton study was already 11 years old and applied to students who are most likely no longer enrolled in the institutions of higher education that Jacoby and associates seek to improve. The book would have benefited from including the perspective of current students in order to better acknowledge the needs of the current generation—the one that the authors intend to foster. The use of more surveys and interviews of current students would have facilitated a better integration between students and faculty when addressing the concerns of students in higher education. Ultimately, it is ironic that Jacoby and associates seek to lessen the divides among students, faculty, and administrators, but in many ways encourage divides through the authors' proposed solutions.

Chapter 4, "Civic Engagement in the First College Year," deals with the first-year experience movement. The chapter's content exemplifies the divides among students, faculty members, and administrators. The authors attempt to provide a single definition for the first-year experience in terms of what it entails and what it does not. Their definition, and further elaboration of related concepts, could have been made much stronger by including student voices. Instead of addressing the concerns of students, the authors seek out the opinions of other professionals, many of whom are as separated from the students as Jacoby and associates are themselves. In effect, the authors find themselves "looking in on" student experiences rather than listening to what students say they experience. In other words, the authors draw conclusions from observations rather than from interactions with students. The effect removes students from the process of facilitating civic engagement altogether and makes them, as readers, feel disengaged.

Overall, the book serves as an excellent resource to newcomers to the study of civic engagement. Each essay is clear, concise, and well-supported. Although not effective in reflecting student voices, the essays provide a well-versed and user-friendly field guide to the topics covered. For this reason, *Civic Engagement in Higher Education* is a valuable resource that would complement university-level policy-making processes, provided that administrators remain aware of the integral role that the perspectives of actual students play in the implementation and success of such policies.

About the Reviewers

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The mission of the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement* is to serve as the premier peer-reviewed, interdisciplinary journal to advance theory and practice related to all forms of outreach and engagement between higher education institutions and communities.

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