Vol. 18 No. 1
2014

Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement

A Publication of The University of Georgia

Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement

Published Through

A partnership of the University of Georgia's Office of the Vice President for Public Service and Outreach, Institute of Higher Education, and College of Education

Sponsored By

Campus Compact

Engagement Scholarship consortium

Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement

Volume 18, Number 1, 2014

ISSN 1534-6102

Table of Contents

The Mayo Clinic Disparities Program and the University of North Florida Brooks College of Health partnered with representatives of the Hispanic community of Northeast Florida to develop an educational program aimed at raising awareness of the importance of diet in breast cancer prevention and availability of free breast cancer screening. An advertising campaign was followed by church-based seminars on self-examination, screening, and nutrition. Willingness to make dietary changes increased after the seminars, as did Duval County Hispanics' participation in the Center for Disease Control's National Breast and Cervical Cancer Early Detection Program. Data from this pilot study suggest that a Spanish-language, church-based education program, developed as a collaboration between academic institutions and representatives of the Hispanic community, increases awareness of the importance of diet in cancer prevention and of breast cancer screening programs, and may mitigate disparities in breast cancer outcomes among Hispanic women.

American colleges and universities have an expanding role to play in nurturing political engagement as more youth attend college. Given low voter turnout among college students, yet growing experimental evidence that face-to-face mobilization can boost turnout, the experiment reported in this article examined the impact of a face-to-face college student mobilization effort on a small, private university in Florida. The authors found a non-significant difference in turnout between those students contacted and those not contacted. The findings suggest that although it is generally difficult to mobilize U.S. citizens, it may be especially difficult to mobilize U.S. college students. Brief recommendations are offered for steps university members can take to make elections a more established part of college students' experience.

Service-learning is an instructional strategy used by faculty at hundreds of institutions, including those that are members of Campus Compact, an organization committed to service-learning and community/civic engagement. For this study, researchers examined a

Reflective Essays

efited from the lessons of pioneers in the field. We have also gained valuable experiences that can serve those who wish to integrate CES into their research and problem-solving activities. In this article, we extend Blanchard et al.'s *(2009)* useful guide for faculty development in CES. By adding reference to the competencies that can guide community participation in and support of CES, the expanded guide encompasses both academic and community interests and highlights best practices necessary for supporting CES in our universities and communities.

Experiential education is often used in entrepreneurship courses, as it conveys both substantive, theoretical knowledge and intangible learning experiences best absorbed through active participation. Starting and operating a business is a unique, educational experience allowing students to apply the substantive knowledge gained in entrepreneurship and other business courses to a real business and to experience the intangible, real-world aspects of the entrepreneurial process. For these reasons, many entrepreneurship programs have incorporated a start your own business assignment. This essay explores experiential entrepreneurship education highlighting the Start Your Own Business Assignment in the context of the Principles of Entrepreneurship course offered to over 200 undergraduate students per year at the Haskayne School of Business, University of Calgary, Canada.

The Purdue Technical Assistance Program (TAP) offers a model of university engagement and service that is achieving technology adoption and performance improvement impacts in healthcare, manufacturing, government, and other sectors. The TAP model focuses on understanding and meeting the changing and challenging needs of those served, always seeking to engage a mix of faculty, staff, students, and others that best meet these needs. Although the TAP mission is focused on the needs of those served, participating faculty and students have experienced significant benefits, and faculty rarely decline an opportunity to participate. This essay presents the evolution of Purdue University's engagement and service missions and their alignment with the current thinking of engagement scholars and practitioners. The operational model for TAP is described as an important part of Purdue's engagement mission, along with the elements necessary for its success, examples of successful engagement, and future challenges and opportunities.

The growing enthusiasm for international engagement among U.S. universities reflects the great potential gains that participation offers to both U.S. and international partners. To ensure that the benefits of such partnerships are achieved, potential participants must carefully examine and explicitly discuss their personal and institutional motivations for involvement in global research, education, and development programs. Failure to make this crucial self-assessment places such endeavors at risk of unintended negative consequences and ultimate failure.

Programs with Promise

This article describes the theoretical and pedagogical background and results from the first semester of a service-learning program for English learners at a public Moroccan university and the local high school. This study fills a gap in the literature related to service-learning practice and outcomes in Morocco and the Arab world in general. The results of the program, based on student reflection journals, evaluation surveys, focus groups, and final course outcomes, showed overlap with the impacts predicted by previous studies, with some notable particularities for the Moroccan context. The initial results of the program are promising, and an expansion of the program combined with a long-term study will continue in future semesters. Service-learning's impact on civic education and civic actions are also explored with results that are both positive and troubling for the region.

Book Reviews

From the Editor…

A Clarion Call for Civil Discourse . . . Core to Engagement

In this first issue of 2014, our 18th volume year, we have two special features. First, as part of Campus Compact's sponsorship of JHEOE, we offer the inaugural column by a president of a Campus Compact institution; second, this issue brings the first of a series of articles to commemorate the 100th anniversary of the Smith-Lever Act creating the Cooperative Extension movement—the premier partnership or "cooperative" of federal, state, and local funding to extend educational research and resources beyond campuses to communities. Both of these features offer contemporary perspectives on the role and responsibility of higher education with communities to build capacity for and facilitate informed civic discourse through engaged partnerships.

Susan Herbst, from her position as president of the University of Connecticut and as the author of the Campus Compact presidential column, contends that Civility, Civic Discourse, and Civic Engagement are Inextricably Interwoven and are the cornerstones for a 21st-century engaged university. She makes the compelling case (drawing from *Sexton, 2005*) that the call for higher education in the "current climate of anger, mistrust, prejudice, intolerance and anger" is about both "the protection and advancement of civil discourse and that civility is the scaffold for civil engagement," and that "the academic community must be at the forefront of advocating for—and of comprehensively modeling—rigorous civil dialogue."

For this issue's Cooperative Extension featured article, Randy Stoecker, a professor and a specialist with University of Wisconsin–Extension, takes stock of the relationship between Extension and higher education service-learning, one of the instructional delivery strategies to build civic discourse. He found that county-based Extension educators were not well connected to service-learning efforts and offers a community development service-learning model to expand the interface and collaborations.

Another study of community engagement in a community context is provided by a research team from the Mayo Clinic's Disparities Program and the University of North Florida Brooks College of Health. They partnered with representatives of the Hispanic communities of Northeast Florida to construct and study a church-based, Spanish-language community education breast health program. What can motivate another community—the student community—to participate more robustly in civic or political engagement through voting? Hill, from Stetson University, and Lachelier, founder of Learning Life, report on an experiment to boost student voter turnout through face-to-face mobilization.

Evaluation and assessment is a critical component of engagement addressed in the next three articles in this issue. Waters and Anderson-Lain examined online survey tools used by 121 Campus Compact member institutions to evaluate academic service-learning outcomes for students, faculty, and community partners. Their data yielded six unique concepts that they propose to advance formative and summative quantitative assessment options. Further informing the assessment of institutional engagement, Sobrero and Jayaratne investigated the provocative question, "What do department heads think and how do they support engagement, especially during promotion, tenure, and reappointment of engaged faculty?"

Their work validated challenges found in qualitative studies and left open another question: What if you could deeply integrate community engagement into the values and practices when building a new research university? DeLugan, Roussos, and Skram report on the University of California at Merced's 7-year experience in doing just that, with a particular focus on competencies for community-engaged scholarship that link academic and community perspectives.

The next three articles relate to embedding community-engaged approaches into economic and other development strategies. Malach and Malach's essay explores experiential entrepreneurship education, highlighting the Start Your Own Business Assignment in an entrepreneurship course offered to over 200 undergraduate students per year at the University of Calgary, Canada. In another article, Purdue University shares its model—its development and operations—for attaining technology adaptation and performance improvement in the health care, government, and manufacturing sectors. Finally, in a personal reflection with an important message to all, Birbeck reminds us, in our enthusiasm for international engagement, to examine our motives. Her consideration is followed by an example of international engagement in the Arab region. In a program with promise, Seilstad describes developing and evaluating a service-learning partnership program in Morocco; he describes its impact on civic education and civic action as "both positive and troubling for the region."

Four book reviews are provided in this issue. From his perspective of experience in the West Philadelphia area, Yapa reviews Etienne's *Pushing Back the Gates: Neighborhood Perspectives on University-Driven Revitalization in West Philadelphia.* Hoover offers her review of *Transformative Learning Through Engagement,* particularly helpful for student affairs professionals. From the perspective of a tenured faculty member and a graduate student, Rios and Boulware review *Collaborative Futures: Critical Reflections on Publicly Active Graduate Education.* Finally, although it was reviewed in this *Journal* in 2007, I was pleased to see Cook's revisiting Van de Ven's *Engaged Scholarship: A Guide for Organizational and Social Research.* This work remains timely and helpful for graduate students and academic faculty in understanding the "why" to engaged research and the "how" to involving stakeholders.

We, the reviewers and editor team of the *Journal,* hope this collection of articles, variously exploring the complexities of community-engaged scholarship, serves and will continue to serve as one of the vehicles for the rigorous civil discourse that is called for by and foundational to community engagement.

With best regards,
Lorilee R. Sandmann
Editor

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 18, Number 1, p. 5, (2014)

Civility, Civic Discourse, and Civic Engagement: Inextricably Interwoven

Susan Herbst

It is an honor to be asked to write the inaugural piece for this column. I was asked to write something thought-provoking as a way to share what one president is thinking about engagement. As a member of the board of directors of Campus Compact, I support Campus Compact's three strategic goals: (1) to elevate the impact of the civic engagement field by building partnerships and promoting alignment; (2) to help solve critical issues facing member institutions and their communities by catalyzing, promoting, and amplifying civic engagement innovation; and (3) to maximize our collective potential as a network through improved accountability, collaboration, and communication. Within each of Campus Compact's overall goals are 14 objectives, and two are of specific importance to this column: First, promote a research agenda to prove and communicate the effectiveness of civic engagement approaches and, second, pursue demonstration projects that test the effectiveness of innovative civic engagement ideas related to networkwide programmatic priorities, partnering with funders and others in the field.

As Campus Compact created its *Strategic Plan: 2014 and Beyond (2013),* the University of Connecticut (UConn) was undertaking a university-wide academic planning process. The plan, released this month, has Global engagement as one of four core values and a path toward excellence in public engagement as one of our five overall goals. Regarding global engagement, the plan states:

> Through outreach, research, translation, and partnership, we promote sustainable development and a happy, healthy, and inclusive society. This engagement is local and global, based on intercultural understanding and recognition of the transnational nature of the economies, challenges, and opportunities we face. *(UConn, 2014)*

UConn desires to be a model for a 21st-century engaged university in part by studying the impact of engagement on student development, faculty scholarship, and community outcomes. It is readily apparent that these areas of study align with Campus

Compact's strategic goals and objectives. UConn seeks to facilitate "problem solving" for the state (and beyond).

A 21st-century engaged university. What does that really mean? Is it about increased service-learning? Is it centered on community partnerships? Is it an approach to problem solving? Is it increasingly more engaged scholarship? Is the scholarship of engagement the synthesis of discovery, teaching, integration, and application?

Given that 2014 is the 100th anniversary of the Smith-Lever Act, which created the Cooperative Extension movement, and we are two years past the 150th anniversary of the Morrill Act, which created land-grant institutions, the timing for this discussion could not be better. Engagement is the key to sustainable partnerships with the entities with whom we work. Allow me to quickly add that as a president, I consider conducting and investing in all levels and aspects of scholarship key to the continued future of the academy; however, we also must examine the impact of our work, and that occurs through the scholarship of engagement for the 21st-century engaged university. Magrath *(1999)* speaks of the 21st-century land-grant university as one that must be focused on partnership ways, and I agree.

Although all the above are essential components and questions for an engaged university, student body, staff, and faculty, and have significant sustaining value in our everyday work, I posit a perhaps more fundamental premise: that the 21st-century engaged university is about both the protection and advancement of civil discourse, and civility is the scaffold for civil engagement.

Leskes, in "A Plea for Civil Discourse: Needed, the Academy's Leadership" *(2013)*, asserts:

> Questioning and argument, weighing evidence and analyzing alternative interpretations—such values are at the core of teaching and scholarship. Professors help students recognize gaps in available information, see when conclusions drawn rest on incomplete data, and tolerate ambiguity *(Bain, 2004)*. These very elements of civil discourse make its mastery requisite for success in classes. Faculty research, which proceeds through the "offer and demand for argument and evidence" *(Sexton, 2005),* shapes the debate of a generation's most crucial issues. Bollinger *(2005)* suggests that of all the qualities of mind valued by the academy, exploring the full complexity of a subject and considering simultaneously multiple angles of perception are the most esteemed.

> This extreme openness, that invites challenges to a single point of view, relies on both daily exercise and a community of people keeping it alive. The pervasive dogmatism, close-mindedness, and "discourse by slogan" *(Sexton, 2005)* favored today by the public arena risks marginalizing the distinctive open character of universities. The responsibility falls to each and every faculty member and administrator to do his or her part in resisting the "allure of certitude" *(Bollinger, 2005)*. It is such certitude about one's own viewpoints, along with intolerance of others, that public intellectuals like Oliver Wendell Holmes and Hannah Arendt identify as central causes of democratic failure…It is time now for the higher education community—collectively and through its individual campuses, associations, and funders—to step up as visible and effective advocates. ..To ensure their own survival *(Sexton, 2005)*, as well as the survival of U.S. democracy, universities must now be at the forefront of advocating for—and of comprehensively modeling—rigorous civil dialogue. The academic community is, in sum, an essential actor—Sexton says the last real hope—in assuring that the current climate of anger, mistrust, prejudice, intolerance, and hatred does not prevail in the wonderful, though still imperfect, democratic experiment that is the United States. *(Leskes, 2013)*

All our efforts—teaching, scholarship, and service—need to be centered on enhancing one's ability to engage in civic discourse. Let's begin with civil discourse; what does it look like? What are its components, and how do we teach our students such discourse? Can it be learned? Is it the role of the university to help students learn these skills? Why are they so important? Discourse is the ability to have a conversation, not a one-sided soliloquy but an engagement of two or more people in the exchange of ideas, information, opinions, and/or positions. Knowing how to both posit and defend a position is key to the educated person. Discourse is not an argument in the common sense but an educated argument that has a position—a central thesis, which is identified, supported, and presented for response and reaction. An argument within civil discourse is not an endpoint but a beginning and an integral component of the process.

Inherent in the ability to have such a conversation is the skill of listening. In order to listen, one must be willing to open oneself to the ideas of others. Listening in discourse is clearly differentiated from the act of hearing, which is based on science, anatomy, and physiology. Listening is an art that is learned over time and develops into both a skill and an attitude. The attitudes of interest, of informed perspective, and of involvement in the words of others are keys to good listening. Discourse depends on this openness, this freedom to give as well as to receive. Through the activity of listening, diversity in ideas is illuminated, and growth has the potential to occur. When one shuts oneself off from the ideas of others by becoming loud or single-minded in pursuit of one's rightness, one becomes hard and static. That is not what either individuals or society needs. Dynamic conversation promotes growth, change, and movement.

Such movement is the key to understanding, which leads to enhanced discourse. Listening is one component of this discourse, and so is the ability to express oneself with passion and assertion without being obnoxious, loud, and offensive. Berating another is not civil discourse. Quiet and demure behaviors do not necessarily lead to civil discourse, but neither does rudeness and incivility. Civil discourse is dependent on expression, and it embraces free speech. However, effective civil discourse is bordered by respect for the other individual in the conversation and their right to express themselves. Respect is acceptance, and it is openness to the ideas of others. I said that expressing oneself with passion was a requirement of positive civil discourse, but passion and the need for it should not be mistaken for a right to impoliteness. Passion is excitement, it is commitment, it is affirmation, and it is needed. Yet passion must be communicated within a framework of civility.

As Lundberg (as cited in *Shuster, 2010)* suggests, we can reach back into history to find another notion of "civil" on which to build a new civil discourse:

> The idea of civility does not mean politeness. It originates in Cicero with the concept of the societas civilis. What it meant was that there are certain standards of conduct towards others and that members of the civil society should comport themselves in a way that sought the good of the city. The old concept of civility was much more explicitly political than our current notion of politeness. Speech was filtered through how it did or did not contribute to the good of the city. *(Shuster, 2010)*

Politeness should be taught in homes, churches, and elementary schools, not as a subject for the academy, but as an expected behavior.

In *Rude Democracy: Civility and Incivility in American Politics (2010)*, I suggest that "it is civility that makes the American public a public"*(.p 147).* Without civility in our discussions, we are left with polarities that promote not discourse but divisiveness. Hence students must learn to have civil discourse in a civil manner with a focus on presenting a reasoned argument clearly and concisely while promoting civility within the conversation. I am not naïve enough to believe that civility is always the path chosen, but it is the path that the academy needs to encourage. Civility must be the expectation. My university senate faculty colleagues often say, "One can disagree, but one should not be disagreeable." Civility is one's ability to know and understand the difference between the two. Within the academy, perhaps unlike the current world of politics, the importance of civility should be evident in our role models, in our classrooms, on our playing fields, and in our meetings. Civility is politeness, but it is so much more than that. Civility is listening rather than just hearing; civility is engaging rather than just being in the same space; civility is being open to exploration rather than just presenting information.

Aristotle's three arts of persuasion—ethos, pathos, and logos—are used to create the 21st-century engaged university outcomes. Ethos is the credibility and character of the individuals involved in the discussion and the individual character that brings civility to the discourse. Pathos is the passion committed to the discussion, and it is the engagement that is an outcome of the process. Logos is the discourse itself, using the knowledge and skills of argument such as Toulmin's *(1969)* approach to persuasive argument:

1. Claims: the position one desires to be the prevailing argument
2. Grounds: the evidence or supportive data
3. Warrant: the connection between the grounds and claims (the passion)
4. Backing: additional support and connectedness
5. Qualifier: how generalizable is the position
6. Rebuttal: preempt counter claims.

Toulmin's approach is one; there are many others, such as ARE: assertion, reasoning, and evidence. Whichever one chooses, the essential component is that a position must be supported with critical thinking and rational thought backed by data. My point is not to advocate a specific approach but rather to point up that we must teach our students how to engage and participate in civil discourse, and this needs to be done within a framework of civility in order for true sustainable engagement to occur.

Civic engagement is the future of higher education. Our schools, colleges, and universities must be focused on the scholarship of discovery so that the desired outcome of knowledge discovered can be used to involve our communities and to solve real societal problems. Poverty, food justice, transportation, potable water, obesity, living with chronic disease, health care access, eradicating the achievement gap, and many other societal problems that have plagued us for decades, if not centuries, will be addressed when we are engaged in relevant, responsible, and reciprocal partnerships.

References

Campus Compact. (2013). *Strategic Plan: 2014 and Beyond*. Retrieved from http://www.compact.org/w-content/uploads/2014/02/Campus-Compact-Strategic-Plan-Executive-Summary-1.15.14.pdf

Herbst, S. (2010). *Rude democracy: civility and incivility in American politics.* Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press.

Leskes, A. (2013). A plea for civil discourse: Needed, the academy's leadership. *Liberal Education, 99*(4). Retrieved from http://www.aacu.org/liberaleducation/le-fa13/leskes.cfm

Magrath, C. P. (1999). Engagement and the 21st century. *Journal of Public Service & Outreach, 4*(1), 3–7.

Shuster, K. (2010). *Civil discourse in the classroom.* Retrieved from http://www.tolerance.org/publication/civil-discourse-classroom

Toulmin, S. (1969). *The uses of argument*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

University of Connecticut (2014). *University academic vision.* Retrieved from http://provost.uconn.edu/academic-vision/

About the Author

Susan Herbst, is president of the University of Connecticut. She is a scholar of public opinion, media, and American politics, and is author of four books and many articles in these areas, most recently, *Rude Democracy: Civility and Incivility in American Politics (2010).* Along with Benjamin Page, Lawrence Jacobs, and James Druckman, she edits the University of Chicago Press series in American Politics. She serves on the Board of Directors of the American Council on Education. Dr. Herbst has a B.A. in political science from Duke University and a Ph.D. in communication theory and research from University of Southern California Annenberg School for Communication.

Research Articles

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 18, Number 1, p. 15, (2014)
 ISSN 1534-6104

Extension and Higher Education Service-Learning: Toward a Community Development Service-Learning Model

Randy Stoecker

Abstract

This article explores how on-the-ground Extension educators interface with higher education service-learning. Most service-learning in Extension has focused on precollege youth and 4-H. When we look at higher education service-learning and Extension in Wisconsin, we see that there is not as much connection as might be expected. County-based Extension educators in Wisconsin are not well connected to higher education service-learning and, when they are connected, they are not getting the benefit of best practices in the field. The article considers four models for better integrating service-learning with Extension: the direct service support model, the Extension as client model, the Extension as broker model, and the community development service-learning model.

Introduction

The higher education community engagement/engaged scholarship/service-learning wave grows ever stronger, refusing to crest. The number of journals, books, and conferences devoted to the collection of crafts clustering under the rubric of service-learning and its related practices seems to expand exponentially. And yet, as civic engagement becomes the increasingly sought-after raison d'etre for higher education, its historical predecessor, university Cooperative Extension, seems relegated to a neglected wayside. This article explores the disconnect between service-learning and Cooperative Extension in one state, and advances possible strategies for overcoming that disconnect.

Cooperative Extension in particular has always been about educational outreach. Established on the foundation of the Morrill Act of 1862 that created land-grant universities and colleges, and the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, Cooperative Extension was formed through cooperation of federal, state, and county government to become an educational system by which university research was to be made applicable and available to community people. The early focus of Extension was on farming. Today, Cooperative Extension has become the equivalent of a trade name and is distinct from generic higher education "extension" and outreach activities. Its federal funding is managed by the United States Department of Agriculture, but its activities go far beyond agriculture to also focus on youth, families, community development, natural resources, nutrition, and a wide variety of other areas. This article will refer to Cooperative Extension by the commonly used shorthand "Extension."

Today, Extension educators who live in and serve a single county or a multicounty region, and usually have advanced degrees, provide both community education and direct service activities. These educators work closely with local government, businesses, farmers, nonprofits, and residents on a wide variety of projects. They may perform needs or assets assessments, strategic planning, community visioning, parenting training, youth education and recreation, consulting on farming practices, and many other community education activities. In the ideal historical model of Extension, the local Extension educator also served as a bridge between knowledge generated by researchers at land-grant universities and knowledge needs of communities, providing early examples of the now-popular translational research model. Today, in many states, Extension has become its own educational institution separate from the state's land-grant university, causing some to worry that Extension has weakened in its ability to provide this translational role.

Such concerns exist in Wisconsin, the focus of this article, where the University of Wisconsin–Extension is formally separate from the state's land-grant institution, the University of Wisconsin–Madison. In contrast to many states that now have regional structures, where Extension educators may serve a multicounty section of a state, UW-Extension is structured around a county-based system. Every county in the state has their own Extension office, and up to half of the funding for a county Extension office comes from the county, creating pressure on the Extension educators to keep their relationships and attention focused in the county. UW-Extension supports four "divisions" of practice: 4-H and youth development; agriculture; community, natural resource, and economic development (CNRED); and family living, along with the areas of horticulture and nutrition. Many counties have educators representing all these areas. The county educators are served by state specialists who are in theory available to help provide translational research services. Most of the research-oriented specialists, however, are formally employed by the state's traditional higher education institutions, especially UW-Madison.

Extension administrators and practitioners in Wisconsin regularly consider ways to bring together the knowledge resources from traditional higher educational institutions and Extension. One possibility, which is just beginning to be explored seriously, is service-learning. Such a model might, on its face, seem logical. Because Extension educators in Wisconsin are so local, service-learning placements with them can be conceptually similar to placements with nonprofit organizations, in contrast to such placements in states where the Extension educators often have a regional focus. In addition, in contrast to nonprofits, which may not have a strong educational mission and thus find themselves trying to shoehorn students into their programming, Extension educators should theoretically easily know how to get the most benefit from service-learners.

Given this history of Extension and its connections to institutions of higher learning, it seems natural that on-the-ground Extension educators would be part of today's higher education service-learning system. Examples of such practice do exist, but Extension is nearly invisible in the higher education service-learning literature. A search extending back to 2000 of the widely cited Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning yielded only one article with one brief historical reference to Extension *(Daynes & Longo, 2004)*.

Extension has at times been prompted to get on the higher education service-learning and community engagement bandwagon. In 1998, Greg Simpson urged us to "begin to recognize the potential that service learning may hold for Extension and how Extension can better extend itself toward strengthening service learning initiatives." In 2003, the University of Wisconsin's Chancellor Reilly also called on Extension to act as the connector by which higher education resources could be brought into greater use in community settings.

Within Extension there is also a lack of literature that explicitly connects the craft of Extension to higher education service-learning. Overwhelmingly, the Extension literature on service-learning concentrates not on higher education partnerships, but on precollege youth and 4-H, and on the impact of service-learning on the youth learner *(Barker & Warner, 2008; Boyd, 2001; Bruce, Webster, & Hoover, 2006; Hairston, 2004; Olson & Croymans, 2008; Safrit & Auck, 2003; Stafford, Boyd, & Lindner, 2003; Webster, 2006),* though some analysts attempt to briefly explore community impacts *(Barker & Warner, 2008; Condo & Martin, 2002; Israel & Ilvento, 1995; Matthews & Bradley, 2011)*. Within Extension, then, service-learning is carried out as part of its historical youth education mission, not as part of a partnership with higher education institutions. And in many of the cases of Extension-university-community collaborations, the focus is on partnerships involving Extension and regular university faculty, without students *(Booth, Vaidya, Farrell, & Bokemeier, 2003; Cadwallader & Lersch, 2006; Conway, 2006; Williams, Dougherty, & Powers, 2006)*. Aronson and Webster *(2007)* seem to provide the main exception in describing the Pennsylvania State University outreach model, which attempts to fully integrate Extension faculty, university faculty, and students.

Why is this? Research to craft an explanation is lacking. The question of why higher education service-learning and Extension are so disconnected appears to not really even be on the radar. No literature has gone beyond case study reports to research Extension educators' range of involvement with service-learners, or their feelings about working with service-learners. In addition, very little research reflects how the more visible hosts of higher education service-learners—nonprofit organizations—feel about the arrangement. Such research on community perceptions of service-learning have only recently begun appearing *(Blouin & Perry, 2009; Sandy & Holland, 2006; Stoecker & Tryon, 2009)*. There is nonetheless a considerable amount of general literature on service-learning that involves a nonprofit host.

Without good research to understand how on-the-ground Extension educators are interacting with service-learners, and want to interact with them, it will be very difficult to advance the practice of higher education service-learning with Extension. For that matter, it may also be difficult to advance the practice of Cooperative Extension.

The research reported in this article was initially focused on studying the scope and depth of higher education service-learning in Extension, as an effort to begin filling the gap in the literature on the relationship between Extension and higher education service-learning. The paradoxical results, which showed the lack of relationship, then led to a second question regarding what models Extension might draw upon to more effectively engage higher education service-learners and gain more benefit from them.

Research Methods

As a UW-Madison faculty member with an affiliated Extension appointment as a statewide specialist in community development, and who also focuses on student community engagement, I was intrigued at having heard relatively few stories about students working with county Extension educators. After a number of discussions with county Extension educators about their lack of contact with higher education service-learners, and in one case their frustrations with the contact, in the summer of 2010 a study was designed to find out more about Wisconsin county-based Extension educators' experiences with higher education service-learning. A survey is the most efficient and effective method for gathering countable data to describe the characteristics of a population, in contrast to research attempting to gather in-depth causal data better obtained by case study frameworks and methods such as in-depth interviews *(Sayer, 2010)*. The survey was structured around two basic research questions. First, to what extent do county-based UW-Extension educators engage higher education service-learners in Extension work? Second, how are the relationships between Extension educators and service learners structured? The UW-Madison IRB approved the survey protocol as exempt research that was minimal risk with anonymous responses.

The survey defined higher education service-learning as a practice that "involves college or university students receiving course or independent study credit for community service, including community-based research or volunteer work with community or government agencies. This includes interns, who are service-learners providing many more hours than the average (usually 50 or more hours in a semester)." This definition may seem unusually inclusive, but past research has shown that nonprofit staff often do not make distinctions between different kinds of students who show up on their doorstep to contribute time, even to the point of not knowing who is strictly a volunteer and who is getting credit *(Stoecker & Tryon, 2009)*. The survey was designed to be answerable in 10 minutes to maximize the response rate.

An initial draft of the web-based survey was pre-tested with two county-based educators, revised, and announced across the statewide Cooperative Extension e-mail list, with two follow-up reminders. All Cooperative Extension educators are subscribed to this e-mail list, and county-based educators are only a subset of the list members. The survey announcement specifically recruited county-based educators but, in order to make sure that only county-based educators were included in the survey, survey questions called for the geographic area the respondent served and the division of Extension the respondent worked in, thus excluding all but county-based educators. Because they were all subscribed to the e-mail list, this form of distribution provided access to the entire population of county-based Extension educators, making this a population survey.

There were 151 responses. Two respondents were excluded because they did not check yes to the informed consent question and consequently had no data, and seven others because they did not list a region (Wisconsin Cooperative Extension is divided into regions, and this question served as a proxy for the educator's location, since asking for the educator's county and division would have made their responses identifiable) or self-identified as statewide specialists. This left a total of 142 valid responses, a roughly 50 % response rate, as the exact number of county-based Extension educators at any one time is not known. The frequencies were compiled by the open-source Lime Survey software used in the research.

Results

Who Has Experience With Higher Education Service-Learners?

The survey gathered some basic data on both the geographic district and functional division of the responding educators, and asked if they had any experience with higher education service-learners. There was a representative spread of responses across geographic districts and the functional divisions of Cooperative Extension: 4-H; agriculture and natural resources; community, natural resource, and economic development (CNRED); and family living; along with the areas of horticulture and nutrition. Notably, two-thirds of respondents had no experience with higher education service-learning, but were still willing to answer the survey (see Table 1). This suggests that some degree of interest in the practice exists among county-based educators. Perhaps the most interesting finding is the strong representation of 4-H educators in the survey (where the concept of service-learning is most popularized), but the low proportion of those educators who had experience with higher education service-learners.

Table 1. Division of County Educators Responding to Survey

	No experience with service-learners	Experience with service-learners	Totals
4H	28	9	37
Agriculture	7	7	14
CNRED	17	13	30
Family Living	13	12	25
Horticulture	4	0	4

Nutrition	18	3	21
Other	9	2	11

Note. N = 142

Why So Little Experience With Higher Education Service-Learning?

Further evidence that Extension educators are interested in higher education service-learning appears in Table 2. An overwhelming number of responses indicate that county educators were not working with higher education service-learners because no one had asked them to. Some were justifiably wary of the value students might bring, but their numbers pale in comparison to those who have never been approached. The lack of service-learning offers from higher education may be partly due to the lack of relationships between university faculty/students and Extension educators. However, previous research has also shown that higher education service-learning has a strong urban bias, with urban nonprofits being far more likely than rural nonprofits to host service-learners (*Stoecker & Schmidt, 2008).*

Table 2. Why County Educators Have No Experience With Higher Education Service-Learners

Why No Experience	Number Reporting
No one asked respondent to host a student	83
Don't know what would have them do	18
Doesen't sound worth it	2
No time to supervise	13
Other	2

Note. N=96

Which Service-Learners Do County Educators Supervise?

We turn next to those county educators who have had experience with higher education service-learning. The survey asked the educators to list the number of service-learners they supervised in both 2009–2010 and 2008–2009, across various categories. There is some reason to distinguish service-learners by length of their commitment. The form of service-learning least valued by community groups is the short-term variety, often defined as 20 hours or less of total commitment over a semester. The form of service-learning most highly valued by community groups is the internship, which often involves 50 hours or more of commitment. Less is known about the middle range of commitment (more than 20 but less than 50 hours per semester). Community groups generally prefer graduate students to undergraduate students *(Stoecker & Tryon, 2009),* so the survey also made that distinction.

Table 3 reports three kinds of data. First, it shows how many educators had experience with the different types of service-learners. Next, it lists the average number of students each educator supervised in each category. Third, those averages were adjusted by removing "outliers" from the data. In most cases, there was one educator who supervised a large number (more than 20) of service-learners in a category, when nearly everyone else was supervising only one or a few students. Removing a single outlier produces more representative averages.

Table 3. Kinds of Service-Learners Experienced by County Educators

	How many educators reported in each category		Average number of students per educator		Average number of students per educator without outliers	
	2009-10	2008-09	2009-10	2008-09	2009-10	2008-09
Undergraduates for less than 20 hours	12	11	11	9	7	6
Undergraduates for 21-49 hours	6	7	11	5	7	1
Undergraduates for 50 hours or more	18	9	3	1	2	1
Graduate students for less than 20 hours	2	1	2	1	2	1
Graduate students for 21-49 hours	2	1	2	1	2	1
Graduate students for 50 hours or more	6	3	12	8	2	1

Note. N = 46

Unsurprisingly, Extension educators supervised more service-learners with shorter-term placements. In some cases, these were likely groups from single classes, but they could also be individual students. It is also interesting to observe that there were consistent small increases in all categories from 2008–2009 to 2009–2010. This could be due to faulty recollection of a previous year, but it could also signal a growing interest in service-learning among county educators.

Do County Educators Get the Benefit of Best Practices?

There have been many attempts to establish principles of good practice for service-learning, from the lofty and abstract (*Honnet & Poulsen, 1989*) to the practical and concrete *(Tryon & Stoecker, 2007)*. That has been similarly true for the broader field of community-campus partnerships *(Hanover, 2012, Holland, Gelmon, Green, Greene-Moton, & Stanton, 2003)*. But there seem to be some emerging core best practices that higher education institutions should engage in to make service-learning as beneficial to the community as possible. Tables 4 and 5 explore the extent to which county educators are recipients of such practices. The numbers are very small, but these results are consistent with other research *(Stoecker & Tryon, 2009)*. One best practice is for the professor to build a service-learning course by involving the host organization and establishing the parameters of a service-learning placement with the host prior to the beginning of class. Table 4 shows that the best practices are not as widespread as we might hope. Because some Extension educators hosted students in multiple categories, it is useful to look at how they accessed each type of student. This data shows that, consistent with research on other community organizations, the best practice of prior contact is not yet widespread. In only roughly half of the cases did a student or professor contact the Extension educator prior to the start of the course when the service-learning involved an undergraduate for less than 50 hours. In the rest of the cases, the educator was apparently approached after the course began and may have had little influence over the actual substance of the placement.

Table 4. How Service-Learning Placements Are Arranged

	Student before class begins	Professor before class begins	Student after class begins	Professor after class begins	Educator contacts professor	Other/ No answer
Undergraduates for less than 20 hours	1	6	5	1	1	0
Undergraduates for 21-49 hours	2	1	3	1	0	2
Undergraduates for 50 hours or more	6	2	5	1	3	1
Graduate students for 21-49 hours	1	1	0	0	0	0

Graduate students for 50 hours or more	1	2	1	1	2	0
Totals	12	12	15	4	6	4

Note. N=46

Table 5 shows a similar problematic picture. Most service-learning proponents agree that best practices include having a written agreement, a work plan for the student, a list of learning goals from the professor, and criteria with which to evaluate the service-learner. Here again, in half the cases or fewer were such best practices in place. Furthermore, six county educators reported having none of these practices in place for their service-learners. Only four reported having all practices in place, six had three practices in place, 12 had two practices in place, and 18 had one practice in place.

Table 5. Educators Reporting Service-Learning Best Practices

Which practices were in place?	Number reporting
A written agreement covering all parties' responsibilities	23
A work plan for the student	23
A list of learning goals from the professor	19
Written criteria to use in evaluating the student	12
How many practices were in place?	
None in place	6
One in place	18
Two in place	12
Three in place	6
All in place	4

Note. N = 46

Is Higher Education Service-Learning Worth It for the County Educator?

Finally, the most important question is whether higher education service-learning is worth the time that the county educator must spend training and supervising the student. Similar to other recent research, the answer is just barely. The final survey question asked county educators to judge how service-learners impacted their productivity, with a score of 1 indicating that their productivity increased "very much" and 5 indicating that it decreased "very much." A score of 3 would mean that, roughly, the educator broke even in time invested and productivity gained.

Table 6. How Service-Learners Impact Educators' Productivity

	Average Rating
Undergraduates for less than 20 hours	2.73
Undergraduates for 21-49 hours	2.56
Undergraduates for 50 hours or more	1.89
Graduate students for less than 20 hours	2.55
Graduate students for 21-49 hours	2.33
Graduate students for 50 hours or more	1.8

Note. *N* = 46

Table 6 shows that short-term service-learning, as we would expect, was just above the break-even point, and only the internship categories of 50 hours or more averaged out above the moderate increase score. The idea of the Extension intern has been promoted, but not really evaluated in terms of its impact on Extension productivity *(Cadavieco, & Walker, 2008, Rogers, Mason, & Cornelius, 2001; Wilken, Williams,)*, and these findings lend some data supporting the value generally placed on interns. On the other hand, although graduate students are generally valued highly for their skills *(Stoecker & Tryon, 2009; McClure & Fuhrman, 2011)*, use of graduate students shows no more than slight suggestions of increased productivity. Why that might be is an important question that this data cannot definitively answer. Given that service-learning best practices were not widely in place, some number of graduate students may have approached Extension educators with the student's research needs, and the Extension educators did their best to accommodate them. In any event, the data show that there is not yet an effective model for graduate student engagement with Extension.

Analysis

As noted earlier, the history and mission of Extension might lead one to expect that Extension is the perfect fit for higher education service-learning. However, the findings from this survey instead confirm what we are beginning to learn about nonprofit experiences with service-learning: namely, that higher education service-learners are not widely used, and when they are used, the results tend to be suboptimal. For Extension, as for nonprofits, much of the service-learning is short term, and best practices are not frequently followed. So, on the one hand, it is not surprising that Extension experiences the same problems with service-learning that nonprofits do. On the other hand, there is room to question why higher education service-learning experiences the same disconnect with Extension as with nonprofit service-learning hosts.

There is no shortage of explanations. One is the bias of service-learners to stay close to campus *(Stoecker & Schmidt, 2008)*. The Extension educator's work is not proximal to most campuses even when the Extension office might be. Another explanation is service-learning's historical bias toward student learning rather than community impact. Since Extension educators are not charged with serving credit-earning students, they probably have even less motivation to do so than do nonprofits, who at least view service-learners as potential recruits to their cause *(Stoecker & Tryon, 2009).* The third possibility that fits the data is the "best kept secret" explanation *(Horrisberger & Crawford, 2007; McDowell, 2004; also see Aronson & Webster, 2007)*. Extension educators regularly refer to themselves this way, and it is entirely possible that they are a secret not just to the grassroots populace but also to their higher education colleagues. That so many educators in the survey responded that they had never been asked to host a service-learner makes this last explanation sadly plausible. And it shouldn't be that way. It is, after all, "university" Extension, so the finding that Extension educators' relationships with service-learning are so similar to nonprofits' relationships is disturbing.

A survey of Extension educators in a single state cannot be easily generalized to Extension educators across the country. In fact, some evidence indicates that the situation in Wisconsin may not be universal *(Aronson & Webster, 2007)*. Between the lack of research that might contradict these findings and their consistency with what we are discovering about nonprofits and service-learning, there is nonetheless cause for concern. Research is still needed on the extent of two problems: Extension educators' lack of access to higher education service-learning, and Extension educators experiencing the same problematic practices seen with service-learning in nonprofits. However, we have enough evidence to suggest that we also need to look for better ways to connect Extension and service-learning. Does the Extension context offer service-learning opportunities that are not as readily available in the nonprofit context? And does it offer ways to make service-learning more productive?

Models for Extension and Service-Learning

Distance, lack of relevance, poor practice, and lack of visibility are a lot to overcome if we are to make service-learning actually contribute to the capacity of Extension educators. The institutional inertia behind these conditions is too large an obstacle to tackle in a single effort. Instead, it may be worth exploring examples that can form the basis for institutional models to support an Extension service-learning practice. The existing literature suggests four different models of higher education engagement with Extension educators: the direct service support model, the Extension as client model, the Extension as broker model, and the community development service-learning model.

Direct Service Support Model

The first model, the direct service support model, mirrors the most common relationship that service-learners have with nonprofit organizations. Extension youth programming in which college students assist with program delivery exemplifies this model. Smith, Dasher, and Klingborg *(2005)*, for example, describe a project involving collaboration between college students and 4-H to improve grade school youth science literacy. Kotval *(2003)* describes how urban planning students support Extension-organized community projects. Dart, Frable, and Bradley *(2008)* present an obesity-prevention program that partnered with students, faculty, and Extension. In all of these cases, the Extension educator is engaged in direct service activities and brings in service-learners to support that direct service. Implementing this model is probably the same in Extension as in any nonprofit organization. Either university or Extension faculty must adequately prepare students to work with community members who may differ significantly from them in racial/ethnic and class background *(Dunlap & Webster, 2009)*, as well as implement the other best practices cited above.

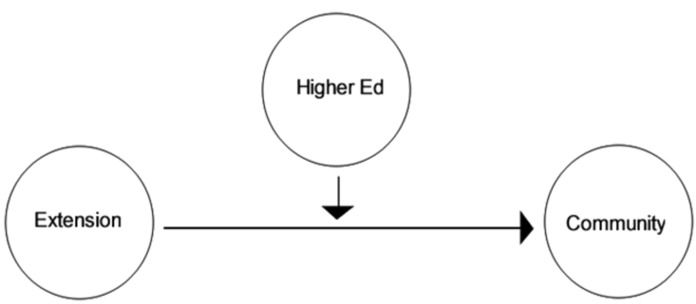


Figure 1. The Direct Service Support Model

Extension as Client Model

The second model, the Extension as client model, engages the higher education institution in activities that support Extension directly as a client rather than contributing to Extension's work with community constituencies. Morris, Pomery, and Murray *(2002)* promote this idea, based on their experiences with a service-learning class. They argue that service-learning can benefit Extension by providing access to higher education knowledge and enhancing Extension's visibility with community members and higher education faculty and students. This is similar to some project-based service-learning with nonprofits *(Chamberlain, 2003; Coyle, Jamieson, & Oakes, 2005; Draper 2004)*. It also is consistent with the motivations expressed by nonprofit organizations in hosting service-learners to help enhance their community visibility *(Stoecker & Tryon, 2009).* In one example of this, Condo and Martin *(2002)* describe a project involving health care students in short-term service-learning that allowed Extension professionals to expand their services in rural communities. They noted, in particular, how students could help make Extension more visible in those communities. Another service-learning project explicitly engaged students in marketing county Extension services to the community. In this case, a class of students produced a variety of promotional materials for the county office *(Horrisberger & Crawford, 2007),* much the same way they would have for a typical nonprofit organization that was engaged in direct service or educational activities.

Figure 2. The Extension as Client Model

Extension as Broker Model

In the third model, the Extension as broker model, Extension brokers relationships between higher education institutions and community groups. Henness & Jeanetta *(2010)* report on a case involving Extension and university students in a rural community planning process. In this instance the university had a formal agreement with Extension to help connect with various communities. Kriesky & Cote *(2003),* in one of the few articles that discusses Extension and service-learner relationships, explore how Extension educators acted as connectors to projects, in addition to the more typical pattern of engaging service-learners to perform support research for their educational programming.

Notably, this third model approaches the science shop model developed in Europe. A science shop serves as an intake office for community groups with knowledge questions, and then searches out knowledge resources to answer those questions. Those knowledge resources are often students who perform research to answer the community group's questions *(Living Knowledge, 2012)*. Can such a model provide any efficiencies—perhaps helping access more resources than would be otherwise available—thus multiplying the questions that Extension can address?

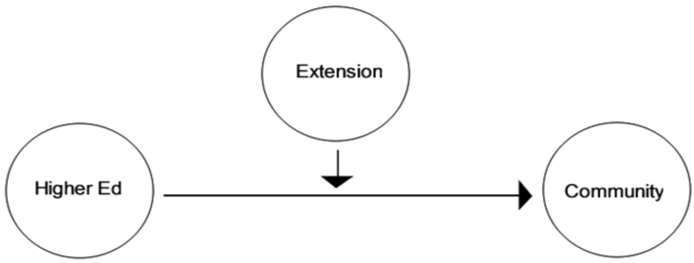


Figure 3. The Extension as Broker Model

Community Development Service-Learning Model

The final model, the community development service-learning model, is the most interesting, and it also requires the greatest changes in how we think about service-learning. Such a model applies particularly well to Extension at its best, though Extension itself may need to change to fully utilize it. Freire's *(1973)* important "Extension or Communication" essay exposed the less than fully empowering impulses of Extension's one-way knowledge transfer approach, in contrast to a collaborative community-based research approach, in an international context. Conway *(2006)* later distinguished cooperation and collaboration as two models of Extension-community relationships, with cooperation being roughly similar to a one-way knowledge transfer approach and collaboration being much more of a knowledge integration approach that involves multiple players sharing multiple forms of knowledge. This mirrors the dichotomous approaches within service-learning, in which the charity approach is a one-way transfer of service from helper to helped, and the social change approach involves much more collaboration between community members and outsiders *(Kahne & Westheimer, 2001; Marullo & Edwards, 2000)*.

A community development approach to service-learning has so far been only tentatively outlined *(Stoecker & Beckman, forthcoming)*.

The overall goals of a community development approach, whether conducted via Extension, service-learning, or some combination of the two, are to solve local problems and to build capacity to solve local problems. Consequently, community development service-learning must be built on a broader engagement foundation, and more informed by theory than the average one-shot short-term student volunteer hours model. Since a meaningful community development project often takes years, it requires long-term coordination that can bring in outside resources, whether in the form of academic expertise or student labor on short-term bases. Such a project would typically involve multiple courses and multiple different forms of community expertise requiring community, not higher education or leadership.

The Extension office, in this model, is already in the community for the long term and, because of that, can be an anchor for the other shorter-term relationships. That does not mean that the higher education institution can eschew any obligation for a long-term commitment to the community, only that it need not be the central coordinator or even the central player. In fact, if the community development is to be truly empowering, the higher education institution should not be a central player. Instead, the higher education institution makes a commitment to provide resources as needed to the community development project that is developed, designed, and led from the community itself.

Perhaps the best example of such a model comes from Salant and Laumatia *(2011),* who describe a collaboration involving the University of Idaho, University of Idaho Extension, and Coeur d'Alene reservation communities. They focused explicitly on building community leadership capacity to reduce poverty. Through a multiyear process, community leadership would identify issues and connect with university resources that could help them address those issues, such as accessing planning students to assist with housing development. In addition to acting as a primary link-maker in the process, Extension also directly engaged with both university faculty and community leaders.

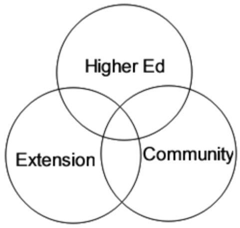


Figure 4. The Community Development Service-Learning Model

Conclusion

This research shows that the relationship between higher education service-learning and county-based Cooperative Extension in Wisconsin is in its infancy and faces the same challenges that are characteristic of service-learning generally. It addresses the gap in the literature about how Extension accesses, or does not access, higher education service-learning. To say that "no one asks" Extension to host service-learners has a double meaning in this regard. First, county Extension is frequently left out of the higher education service-learning loop altogether. Second, when higher education students or faculty invite county Extension educators to host higher education service-learners, Extension is no more likely than any other community-based service-learning host to receive best practices.

Before we ask more county Extension educators to host service-learners, then, we need to think about why we would ask county educators to do so. This article also addresses the gap in our knowledge of ways that Extension educators can better access higher education service-learning. As this article shows, we have an opportunity to not just think about how to offer service-learning's best practices to Extension educators, but to rethink service-learning in light of what Extension educators can bring to the service-learning table. Doing so will maximize the benefits of service-learning not only for county Extension, but for everyone.

What steps can higher education and Extension take to expand service-learning collaborations and maximize their benefits? On the higher education side, the first step is for faculty to develop relationships with Extension educators the same way they should with nonprofit organization staff. This might be more challenging in some rural areas where distance is an issue, but the same challenge applies in developing relationships with rural nonprofits. It may even be easier to find the local Extension office than a small, off-the-radar nonprofit. Subsequently, simply following the standard best practices of service-learning will go a long way toward ensuring the effectiveness of the collaboration. This means faculty need to contact Extension educators before the course begins, negotiate an actual project, make sure students are prepared, engage the Extension educator in regular evaluation of progress during the semester, and take responsibility for completing the project even if the student does poor quality or incomplete work.

Extension educators should justifiably approach service-learning with some skepticism and a realistic sense of their own capacity to manage service-learners. They should not feel obligated to add college student training to their own already overly full agendas. Rather, they can consider what capacity gaps service-learners might fill. For example, what projects might make use of one or more students who contribute only about 20 hours each in a semester? There may be community events needing volunteers, community surveys needing door-knockers, county fairs needing people to stand at booths, or any number of shorter term projects in which students can devote only small amounts of time. Extension educators can also use such small, short-term efforts to gauge the reliability of the supervising faculty member and decide whether a larger and more meaningful project is worth the risk. When it is worth the risk, the Extension educator and higher education faculty member can move on to a multiplayer community development project—the fourth model depicted above.

It is very important, as we do this, to take the time to document what happens. A crucial step in building bridges between local Extension educators and higher education service-learning programs is to discover how such programs can be shaped to expand the capacity and visibility of on-the-ground Extension and better build the power and capacity of communities. That process can begin with building a better collection of stories that provide a critical analysis of how collaborations start, sustain themselves, and produce meaningful outcomes in communities. We can then build more consciously on the lessons being learned through existing collaborations, shaping both service-learning and on-the-ground Extension for greater community impact.

References

Aronson, K. R., & Webster, N. (2007). A model for creating engaged land-grant universities: Penn State's engagement ladder model. *Innovative Higher Education, 31,* 265–277.

Barker, B. S., & Warner, K. L. (2008). The 4-H computer refurbishing program: An implementation model. *Journal of Extension, 46*(2). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2008april/iw4.php

Blouin, D. D., & Perry, E. M. (2009). Whom does service-learning really serve? Community-based organizations' perspectives on service-learning. *Teaching Sociology, 37,* 120–135.

Booth, C. N., Vaidya, S. J., Farrell, P. A., & Bokemeier, J. L. (2003). Leveraging resources and sustaining partnerships in tough economic times. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 9*(1), 103–113. Retrieved from http://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/index.php/jheoe/article/view /644/498

Boyd, B. L. (2001). Bringing leadership experiences to inner-city youth. *Journal of Extension, 39(4).* Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2001august/a6.php

Bruce, J. A., Webster, N. S., & Hoover, T. S. (2006). Developing youth voice in service learning projects. *Journal of Extension, 44*(4). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2006august/tt1.php

Cadwallader, T. K., & Lersch, A. D. (2006). Fostering public engagement in local land use planning and zoning recodification projects: A case study from the University of Wisconsin Extension, Lincoln County. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 11*(1), 41–55. Retrieved from http://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/index.php/jheoe/article/view/473/405

Chamberlain, C. (2003, January 23). Teaching teamwork: Project-based service-learning course LINCs students with non-profits. *Inside Illinois, 22*(12). Retrieved from http://www.news.uiuc.edu/II/03/0123/linc.html

Condo, E. P., & Martin, K. E. (2002). Health professions and Cooperative Extension: An emerging partnership. *Journal of Extension, 40*(4). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2002august/a2.php

Conway, F. D. L. (2006). Sharing knowledge, power, and respect: Keys in bringing communities together to improve science, practice, and relationships. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 11*(1), 133–143. Retrieved from http://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/index.php/jheoe/article/view/479/411

Coyle, E. J., Jamieson, L. H., & Oakes, W. C. (2005). EPICS: Engineering projects in community service. *International Journal of Engineering Education, 21*(1), 139–150. Retrieved from http://epics.ecn.purdue.edu/about/papers/IJEE-0205.pdf

Dart, L., Frable, P. J., & Bradley, P. J. (2008). Families and community partners learning together to prevent obesity. *Journal of Extension, 46*(1). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2008february/iw2.php

Daynes, G., & Longo, N. V. (2004). Jane Addams and the origins of service-learning practice in the United States. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 11*(1), 5–13. Retrieved from http://quod.lib.umich.edu/cgi/p/pod/dod-idx?c=mjcsl;idno=3239521.0011.101

Draper, A. J. (2004). Integrating project-based service-learning into an advanced environmental chemistry course. *Journal of Chemical Education, 81*(2), 221–224.

Dunlap, M. R., & Webster, N. (2009). Enhancing inter-cultural competence through civic engagement. In B. Jacoby & Associates, *Civic engagement in higher education* (pp. 140–153). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Freire, P. (1973). *Education for critical consciousness.* New York, NY: Seabury.

Hairston, J. E. (2004). Identifying what 4-H'ers learn from community service learning projects. *Journal of Extension, 42*(1). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2004february/rb4.php

Hanover Research. (2012). Best Practices in University-Nonprofit Partnerships. Washington DC: Hanover Research. Retrieved from http://www.hanoverresearch.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/01/Best%20Practices%20in%20University%20and%20Nonprofit%20Partnerships%20-%20Membership.pdf

Henness, S., & Jeanetta, S. (2010). RASL case study: Brookfield, Missouri. Retrieved from Rural Alliance for Service Learning website: http://comm-org.wisc.edu/rasl/?q=node/18

Holland, B. A., Gelmon, S., Green, L. W., Greene-Moton, E., & Stanton, T. K. (2003, April). *Community-university partnerships: What do we know?* Prepared for discussion at Community-University Partnerships: Translating Evidence into Action, San Diego, CA. Available at http://depts.washington.edu/ccph/pdf_files/symposium_report.pdf

Honnet, E. P., & Poulsen, S. J. (1989). Principles of good practice for combining service and learning. The Johnson Foundation. Retrieved from http://www.nationalserviceresources.org/files/Principles-of-Good-Practice-for-Combining-Service-and-Learning.pdf

Horrisberger, L., & Crawford, D. C. (2007). Lessons learned-service learning: A new initiative in field experience and collaboration between universities, county Extension offices and communities. *Journal of Extension, 45*(2). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2007april/iw1.php

Israel, G. D., & Ilvento, T. W. (1995). Everybody wins: Involving youth in community needs assessment. *Journal of Extension, 33*(2). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/1995april/a1.php

Kahne, J., & Westheimer, J. (2001). In the service of what? The politics of service learning. In J. Claus & C. Ogden (Eds.), S*ervice learning for youth empowerment and social change* (pp. 25–42). New York, NY: Peter Lang.

Kotval, Z. (2003). University Extension and urban planning programs: An efficient partnership. *Journal of Extension, 41*(1). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2003february/a3.php

Kriesky, J., & Cote, L. S. (2003). Extension-academic service-learning collaboration: Benefits and lessons learned. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 8*(1), 45–58. Retrieved from http://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/index.php/jheoe/article/view/491/423

Living Knowledge. (2012). *Science shops.* Retrieved from http://www.livingknowledge.org/livingknowledge/science-shops

Marullo, S., & Edwards, B. (2000). From charity to justice. *American Behavioral Scientist, 43*(5), 895–903.

Matthews, Y., & Bradley, E. (2011). Lincoln University Cooperative Extension Men on Business: A college assurance program. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 15*(3), 113–118. Retrieved from http://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/index.php/jheoe/article/view/578/465

McClure, M., & Fuhrman, N. E. (2011). Graduate students serve Extension as evaluation consultants. *Journal of Extension, 49*(3). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2011june/iw1.php

McDowell, G. (2004). Is Extension an idea whose time has come—and gone? *Journal of Extension, 42*(6). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2004december/comm1.php

Morris, P. V., Pomery, J., & Murray, K. E. (2002). Service-learning: Going beyond traditional Extension activities. *Journal of Extension, 40*(2). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2002april/iw2.php

Olson, C. A., & Croymans, S. R. (2008). Strengthening 4-H youth consumer decision-making skills: Contest to community service. J*ournal of*

Extension, 46(1). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2008february/iw4.php

Reilly, K. P. (2003). The engaged institution, the twenty-first century, and the new university Extension. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 8*(1), 29–37. Retrieved from http://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/index.php/jheoe/article/view/489/421

Rogers, B., Mason, K., & Cornelius, J. (2001). Involving undergraduate students as Extension program interns. *Journal of Extension, 39*(5). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2001october/iw4.php

Safrit, R. D., & Auck, A. W. (2003). Volunteerism, community service, and service-learning by Ohio 4-Hers in Grades 4–12. *Journal of Extension, 41(*4). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2003august/rb6.php

Salant, P., & Laumatia, L. (2011). Better together: Coeur d'Alene reservation communities and the University of Idaho. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 15(*3), 101–112. Retrieved from http://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/index.php/jheoe/article/view/577/464

Sandy, M., & Holland, B. (2006). Different worlds and common ground: Community partner perspectives on campus-community partnerships. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 13*, 30–43.

Sayer, A. (2010). *Method in social science (*2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Simpson, G. (1998). Extension is not just service, but service learning is important to Extension. *Journal of Extension, 36*(5). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/1998october/comm1.php

Smith, M., Dasher, S., & Klingborg, D. (2005). A model for recruiting and training youth development volunteers in urban areas. *Journal of Extension, 43*(5) Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2005october/a6.php

Stafford, J., Boyd, B., & Lindner, J. R. (2003). Community service versus service-learning: Which is best for 4-H? *Journal of Extension, 41*(6). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2003december/a1.php

Stoecker, Randy, & Beckman, M. (in press). Making higher education civic engagement matter in the community. In J. A. Laker, K. Mrnjaus, & C. Naval (Eds.), *Citizenship, democracy and higher education in Europe, Canada and the U.S.*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Stoecker, R., & Schmidt, C. (2008). *Geographic disparities in access to service learning*. Paper presented at the annual meetings of the Rural Sociological Society, Manchester, NH, 2008.

Stoecker, R., & Tryon, E. (2009). T*he unheard voices: Community organizations and service learning.* Philadelphia: Temple University Press.

Tryon, E., & Stoecker, R. (2007). Community standards for service learning. Retrieved from comm-org.wisc.edu/sl/files/cs4slbrochure.pdf

Webster, N. (2006). Incorporating service learning and Extension in inner city middle schools: A model for future programming. *Journal of Extension, 44*(1). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2006february/iw1.php

Wilken, C. S., Williams, B. C., Cadavieco, N., & Walker, D. K. (2008). Student internships in Extension: Strategies for success for the agent and the student. *Journal of Extension, 46*(4). Retrieved from http://www.joe.org/joe/2008august/tt3.php

Williams, S. E., Daugherty, R. A., & Powers, R. C. (2006). Public deliberation: Efforts in two states to transform public policy development. J*ournal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 11*(1), 179–193. Retrieved from http://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/index.php/jheoe/article/view/482/414.

Appendix

UW-Extension County Educator Service-Learning Survey

About This Survey

This survey is designed to better understand Extension educators' experiences with higher education service-learners. Service-learning involves college or university students receiving course or independent study credit for community service, including community-based research or volunteer work with community or government agencies. This includes interns, who are service learners providing many more hours than the average (usually 50 or more hours in a semester).

Ideally, service-learning should be one option that Extension educators can use to increase their own productivity. But service-learning is still an imperfect practice, and may not have the productivity impacts we would hope. To improve service-learning, we need to know more about your experiences with the practice.

Informed Consent Statement

This survey is anonymous. It should take less than 10 minutes to complete. Any quotes used in reports will remove identifying information (such as location or name). There are no direct benefits or risks to you from completing the survey. The availability of summary results will be announced on the Cooperative Extension e-mail list and will be used in an attempt to shape the practice of service learning in relation to Extension educators' needs.

If you have questions about the research now or after you complete the survey please contact Randy Stoecker, Professor, Dept. of Community and Environmental Sociology, University of Wisconsin, 608-890-0764 or rstoecker@wisc.edu. If you are not satisfied with response of researcher, have more questions, or want to talk with someone about your rights as a research participant, you should contact the Social & Behavioral Science IRB Office at 608-263-2320. Your participation is completely voluntary. If you begin participation and change your mind you may end your participation at any time without penalty.

Thank you,

Randy Stoecker

Professor

Department of Community and Environmental Sociology and

UWEX Center for Community and Economic Development

Consent Agreement

**I have read and understand the above informed consent statement (clicking "yes" is required in order to submit your survey).

- Yes
- No

About You:

Have you had experience with higher education service learners? If you have no experience with higher education service learners, please check why below and then answer questions 1 and 2 only. You may add comments if you wish. If you have had any experience with higher education service learners, please skip this question and answer questions 1-8. Check any that apply:

- No one has asked you to host service learners.
- You don't know what you would have service learners do.
- From what you have heard, it doesn't sound worth it.
- You do not have time to supervise service learners.
- You had a bad experience with service learning some time back.
- Other:

1. Which Extension district are you in? Choose one of the following answers:

- northern
- eastern
- quad counties
- southern
- western
- central
- No answer

2. Which Extension division or program do you primarily work for? Choose one of the following answers:

- CNRED/CRD
- 4-H/youth

- Family Living
- Agriculture
- Nutrition Education
- Horticulture
- Other:
- No answer

About Your Experience with Service Learning:

3. How many university or college service learners have you supervised as part of your UW-Extension work, in each of the following categories, during this past academic year 2009-10? Only numbers may be entered in these fields:

- undergrads who each contributed a total of 20 hours or fewer
- undergrads who each contributed a total of 21-49 hours
- undergraduate interns who each contributed a total of 50 hours or more
- graduate students who each contributed a total of 20 hours or fewer
- graduate students who each contributed a total of 21-49 hours
- graduate student interns who each contributed a total of 50 hours or more

4. How many university or college service learners did you supervise as part of your UW-Extension work, in each of the following categories, during the academic year 2008-9? Only numbers may be entered in these fields:

- undergrads who each contributed a total of 20 hours or fewer
- undergrads who each contributed a total of 21-49 hours
- undergraduate interns who each contributed a total of 50 hours or more

- graduate students who each contributed a total of 20 hours or fewer
- graduate students who each contributed a total of 21-49 hours
- graduate student interns who each contributed a total of 50 hours or more

5. What is the most common way you gain access to higher education service learners? Choose one of the following answers:

- The professor contacts you before the class begins to arrange the placement
- The student contacts you before the class begins to arrange the placement
- The professor contacts you after the class begins to arrange the placement
- The student contacts you after the class begins to arrange the placement
- You contact a professor or service learning office to seek service learners
- Other:
- No answer

6. In your experience, which of the following aspects of a service learning placement are usually in place before the student begins their placement? Check any that apply:

- A written agreement coveringall parties' responsibilities
- A work plan for the student
- A list of learning goals from the professor
- Written criteria to use in evaluating the student
- Other:

7. Please use the scale of 1-5 to rate each type of service learning in terms of how it has affected your productivity. Please think of this as a kind of ratio of the time and effort you put into the service learner compared to what they produced. (please answer for only those with which you have experience).

1=this type of service learning has increased your productivity very much

2=this type of service learning has increased your productivity somewhat

3=this type of service learning has neither increased nor decreased your productivity

4=this type of service learning has decreased your productivity somewhat

5=this type of service learning has decreased your productivity very much

Only numbers may be entered in these fields:

- undergrads who each contributed a total of 20 hours or fewer
- undergrads who each contributed a total of 21-49 hours
- undergraduate interns who each contributed a total of 50 hours or more
- graduate students who each contributed a total of 20 hours or fewer
- graduate students who each contributed a total of 21-49 hours
- graduate student interns who each contributed a total of 50 hours or more

8. What should higher education institutions, faculty, and students do to improve the outcomes of service learning for you, UW-Extension, and the communities you work with?

About the Author

Randy Stoecker is a professor in the Department of Community and Economic Development at the University of Wisconsin-Madison, and holds a specialist appointment with the University of Wisconsin-Extension Center for Community and Economic Development. He teaches, publishes, and trains in the areas of community organizing and development, community-university partnerships, and community informatics.

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 18, Number 1, p. 43, (2014)

A Church-Based, Spanish-Language Community Education Breast Health Program Increases Awareness and Utilization of Breast Diagnostic Services Among Hispanics

Gerardo Colón-Otero, Monica Albertie, Judith Rodríguez, Garik Nicholson, Irina Kolomeyer, Alvaro Moreno-Aspitia, Mary Lesperance, and Edith A. Perez

Abstract

The Mayo Clinic Disparities Program and the University of North Florida Brooks College of Health partnered with representatives of the Hispanic community of Northeast Florida to develop an educational program aimed at raising awareness of the importance of diet in breast cancer prevention and availability of free breast cancer screening. An advertising campaign was followed by church-based seminars on self-examination, screening, and nutrition. Willingness to make dietary changes increased after the seminars, as did Duval County Hispanics' participation in the Center for Disease Control's National Breast and Cervical Cancer Early Detection Program. Data from this pilot study suggest that a Spanish-language, church-based education program, developed as a collaboration between academic institutions and representatives of the Hispanic community, increases awareness of the importance of diet in cancer prevention and of breast cancer screening programs, and may mitigate disparities in breast cancer outcomes among Hispanic women.

Introduction

This article reports on a study to measure the impact of an academic-community program designed, in part, to increase the awareness among the Hispanic community of available breast cancer screening services and of the importance of diet in breast cancer prevention. The academic-community partnership was established in 2007 between the University of North Florida Brooks College of Health and the Mayo Clinic Disparities Program, and leaders from the First Coast Hispanic Chamber of Commerce, the Mayor Hispanic Advisory Board, local Hispanic radio stations, the Hispanic newspaper Hola Noticias, local Hispanic churches, the Duval County Health Department, and the regional chapter of the American Cancer Society. One component of the partnership was a communication program through which local Hispanic radio stations and a Hispanic newspaper

(Hola Noticias) informed the Hispanic community of upcoming education programs at local churches with Spanish services. The second component included the education programs performed at the Hispanic churches. The third component was an analysis of the utilization of the free breast cancer screening program available at the Duval County Health Department, before and after the completion of the study. The main goals of the program were to inform the Hispanic community of the importance of nutrition in the prevention of breast cancer and to inform them of the available free breast cancer screening programs, and then to determine whether these efforts resulted in increased utilization of the free breast cancer screening services.

Background

Breast cancer is the most commonly diagnosed cancer among Hispanic women *(Siegel, Naishadham, & Jemal, 2012)*. Breast cancer is less likely to be diagnosed at the earliest stage in Hispanic women than in non-Hispanic White women. Hispanic women are also more likely to be diagnosed with larger breast tumors than non-Hispanic White women. Hispanic women are about 20% more likely to die of breast cancer than non-Hispanic White women diagnosed at a similar age and stage (*Li, Malone, & Daling, 2003; Patel, Colon-Otero, Bueno Hume, Copland, & Perez, 2010; Rodriguez-Cuevas, Macias, Franceschi, & Labastida, 2001)*. In part, this is secondary to lower utilization of screening mammography services as a result of language and socioeconomic barriers *(Li et al., 2003; Patel et al., 2010; Rodriguez-Cuevas et al., 2001)*.

Northeast Florida includes seven counties (Baker, Duval, Nassau, St. Johns, Clay, Putnam, and Flagler). The Hispanic population in Northeast Florida has more than doubled from 2000 to 2010, with an estimated 65,398 Hispanics living in the area in 2010. In Northeast Florida, a higher percentage of Hispanics than Caucasians are poor and uninsured *(Duval County Health Department, 2012)*. Since 2005, the Mayo Clinic Disparities Program has partnered with the Duval County Health Department, the University of North Florida, and the Volunteers in Medicine Clinics to improve access to breast cancer screening, diagnosis, and treatment for the low-income population of Northeast Florida, including Hispanics.

An Academic-Communities Partnership to Improve Access of Underserved Women to Breast Cancer Screening and Treatment

The Mayo Clinic Health Disparities Program partnered with the University of North Florida and its community partners (including the Duval County Department of Health and the Volunteers in Medicine Clinic) to develop a series of outreach programs (e.g., the Mayo Clinic Breast Diagnostic Program, the Volunteers in Medicine Clinic Outreach Program) aimed at improving the access of underserved populations, including the underserved Hispanic population, to breast cancer screening and treatment.

The Mayo Clinic Breast Diagnostic Program is a collaboration between the Mayo Clinic and the Duval County Health Department to serve women with abnormal screening mammograms who are screened via the Centers for Disease Control's breast screening program, the National Breast and Cervical Cancer Early Detection Program *(Palmieri et al., 2009)*. Women with abnormal screening results are evaluated at the Mayo Clinic and given free diagnostic mammograms, ultrasounds, and other studies such as breast biopsies when necessary. This program has served over 900 women (between June 2000 and November 2012), and has been shown to facilitate the resolution of abnormal mammograms and allow for the screening of a larger number of low socioeconomic status women *(Palmieri et al., 2009)*. Women who do not qualify for the National Breast and Cervical Cancer Early Detection Program, including women ages 40 to 49, can obtain screening mammography and subsequent diagnostic and therapeutic breast care free of charge from the Mayo Clinic and its community partner, Volunteers in Medicine Clinic, a clinic for the working uninsured who earn less than 250% of the Florida state poverty level. Faculty members from the University of North Florida School of Nursing provide leadership and services to the Volunteers in Medicine Clinic, which also serves as a site for the training of its nursing students. These programs, examples of successful collaborative efforts between academic institutions and community organizations, have helped mitigate disparities in breast cancer outcomes in the region *(Palmieri et al., 2009)*.

The Academic-Communities Partnership Is Formed

In order to increase awareness of these free breast cancer screening programs among the Hispanic population and educate them on the importance of diet for breast cancer prevention, in 2007 a partnership was developed between the Mayo Clinic Disparities Program, the University of North Florida Brooks College of Health, and multiple community partners, including the First Coast Hispanic Chamber of Commerce and the Mayor Hispanic Advisory Board, the Duval County Health Department, the local chapter of the American Cancer Society, several radio stations that broadcast in Spanish in the region, the Spanish newspaper Hola Noticias, and local Hispanic churches (Table 1).

The main goals of this effort were to educate the Northeast Florida Hispanic community about the importance of early diagnosis of breast cancer, the importance of a diet rich in fruits and vegetables for breast cancer prevention, and the available free breast cancer screening programs that the Mayo Clinic Disparities Program had developed in collaboration with its community partners. Because there was no precedent in the Northeast Florida area for educating the Hispanic population on these important topics, there was a need to assessthis community's level of awareness about the available free breast cancer screening programs. The regional chapter of the American Cancer Society recognized this need and awarded a regional grant for this effort.

Table 1. Community/Academic Partners that Contributed to the Education Program.

Contributor	Role
Community Advisory Board: First Coast Hispanic Chamber of Commerce and Mayor Hispanic Advisory Board	Contacted media and churches with Spanish services
Hispanic radio stations and newspsper	Marketed the programs among the Hispanic population
Churches with Spanish services	Provided convenient meeting locations and networks to promote the Hispanic community's participation
University of North Florida Department of Nutrition	Provided nutrition specialists who participated in the seminars
American Cancer Society	Provided partial funding and education materials
Duval County, Florida Health Department	Created content of educatinoal events and analyzed data. Provided access for screening, diagnosis, and treatment services

The Mayo Clinic Disparities Program is funded by a Mayo Clinic Comprehensive Cancer Center grant (National Cancer Institute grant number P50-CA01508). Its main objective is to eliminate cancer care disparities in Northeast Florida. University of North Florida Brooks College of Health faculty members (coauthors Rodríguez and Correa-Matos) fluent in Spanish developed the education programs in Spanish since it was suspected that the majority of the Hispanic population in Northeast Florida was not fluent in English.

The Northeast Florida Community

The Hispanic population of Northeast Florida has increased significantly from 2000 to 2010 (from 31,958 to 65,398; Duval County Health Department, 2012). The First Coast Hispanic Chamber of Commerce and the Mayor Hispanic Advisory Board are organizations aimed at improving the quality of life of the Hispanics of Northeast Florida. Several radio stations that broadcast in Spanish in the region as well as a Spanish newspaper (Hola Noticias) and local Hispanic churches were community partners in these education efforts. All of these organizations and the regional chapter of the American Cancer Society concurred on the need for the program. The Duval County Health Department administers the Center for Disease Control's free breast cancer screening program for Northeast Florida. The Volunteers in Medicine Clinic in downtown Jacksonville serves over 2,000 low-income working uninsured patients from Northeast Florida.

The Academic Partners

The University of North Florida is a state-funded university in Jacksonville, Florida. Its Brooks College of Health includes the Department of Nutrition and Dietetics and the School of Nursing, which are considered flagship programs in recognition of the scholarly accomplishments of their faculty. The Mayo Clinic is an academic medical center in Jacksonville, Florida, with over 400 full-time physicians and scientists, and over 150 physicians in training. The Mayo Clinic has three main campuses (in Jacksonville, Florida; Rochester, Minnesota; and Phoenix, Arizona). The Mayo Clinic Health Disparities Program is a program sponsored by the Mayo Clinic Comprehensive Cancer Center.

The Hispanic Outreach Program

The need to increase the Northeast Florida Hispanic population's awareness of the importance of breast cancer screening, and of the free screening programs available in the region, was recognized by members of two of the Mayo Clinic's community partners, the Duval County Health Department and the American Cancer Society. This led to a successful application for funding for an outreach program from American Cancer Society regional grants. After the First Coast Hispanic Chamber of Commerce became involved in the project, members of this community group formed a Hispanic Community Advisory Board, the Hispanic Outreach Program. The Hispanic Outreach Program board included representatives from Jacksonville-area major Hispanic businesses and Hispanic media, and facilitated securing of program venues, such as local Hispanic churches. The board also helped organize the radio campaign and the promotion of the program in the local newspaper Hola Noticias. The program's three main goals included increasing the Hispanic community's awareness of

1. the importance of breast cancer prevention and screening methods;
2. the importance of a healthy diet and its relationship to cancer risk; and
3. available breast cancer screening and treatment resources, including the National Breast and Cervical Cancer Early Detection Program offered by the Duval County Health Department and the Volunteers in Medicine Clinic.

Two phases made up the program.

Phase 1: Advertising campaign. A media and outreach approach utilizing Hispanic print and radio was completed. Included in the radio outreach program that took place from June to August 2008 was a healthy-eating radio initiative developed by the University of North Florida Department of Nutrition that targeted the Hispanic community and emphasized increasing the consumption of fruits and vegetables.

Phase 2: Seminars at Hispanic churches. Six church-based seminars took place from mid-July to mid-October 2008. The church education sessions, which lasted 50 to 60 minutes, included topics such as the importance of early detection and mammograms; guidelines for screening mammography; Susan G. Komen for a Cure (a breast cancer organization in the United States) web-based Spanish video instructions on breast self-examination; available community resources for free screening and further care; and the role that a balanced diet, one rich in fruits and vegetables, plays in decreasing cancer risks. The sessions were informal and used a "town hall" format (participants were invited to ask questions and actively participate during the sessions). Nutrition faculty members from the University of North Florida utilized American Cancer Society materials to encourage participants to maintain a healthy weight to prevent or treat obesity by avoiding a high-fat diet and consuming adequate amounts of fruits and vegetables. The sessions were directed by a Mayo Clinic oncologist fluent in Spanish. Sessions were presented in a culturally sensitive and language-competent way: in Spanish for Spanish-only groups.

Summary of Objectives and Goals

The long-term goal of these seminars was to ameliorate the increased mortality of Hispanic women with breast cancer and reduce risk factors for breast cancer incidence such as obesity. In addition, a study was conducted to see if the three awareness goals of the program were achieved. The effort also included analysis of the utilization of the Duval County Health Department breast cancer screening program before and after the education events.

Methods

Three hypotheses formed the basis for this study:

1. the majority of the Hispanics in Northeast Florida were not aware of the free breast cancer screening programs available in the community;
2. most of the Hispanics participating in the educational events would be willing to make dietary changes at the end of the presentations; and
3. the utilization of the free breast cancer screening programs by Hispanics would increase after the education programs were completed.

The Mayo Clinic's Institutional Review Board submission of this study determined it to be exempt (45 CFR 46.101, item 2) from continued review.

Sample

A total of 296 participants, most of them women, were reached during six educational programs. Three of the six church events had 60 or more participants (60, 65, and 115 respectively), and three events had 16 to 20 participants (16, 20, and 20 respectively). Participants were surveyed during the education events using an audience response system. A total of 97 participants (33%) took part in the surveys. The number of participants answering questions varied since some questions were directed to different subsets and not all participants answered all of the questions (Appendixes 1 and 2). A total of 49 participants answered the question about their age. The majority of surveyed participants were ages 40–49 (47%, 23/49). The second most common age group was 50–64 years old (22.4%, 11/49), followed by age less than 30 (14.3%, 7/49) and ages 30–39 (14.3%, 7/49). The least common group was 65 or older (2%, 1/49).

Data Collection

An electronic audience response system that provided immediate feedback to the participants was used to collect pre and postseminar questionnaire data. The system facilitated interaction among participants and immediately assessed the effectiveness of the educational events. The questionnaires tested the effectiveness of the sessions by measuring (1) knowledge gained from the session; (2) whether the session encouraged a behavior change; and (3) the willingness of participants to make a behavior change (Appendixes 1 and 2). The study also utilized the audience response system to assess the barriers to accessing available resources, changing eating habits, and utilizing self- and clinical early detection methods. The questionnaire items did not include self-descriptions of gender or ethnicity, and did not allow for individual identification of the participants to obtain individual pre- and postseminar comparisons (Appendixes 1 and 2). The majority of participants were females since the program was directed to females about breast cancer in females. Very few of the participants were male, most of them accompanying their wives or significant others. Not all participants answered all of the questions.

Data Analysis

The pre- and postprogram questionnaire responses were tabulated and the percentage of participants willing to follow a diet rich in fruits and vegetables before and after the presentations was calculated. The percentage of participants aware of the free breast cancer screening programs was calculated from the responses in the preprogram questionnaire. The number of participants willing to undergo yearly mammograms before and after the sessions was calculated based on the results of the pre- and postprogram questionnaire. For the questions related to screening mammography, only women participants over the age of 40 were asked to answer (Appendixes 1 and 2).

The Findings

A total of 97 (33%) session attendees participated in the audience response system surveys. Not all participants were surveyed due to time constraints because most of the sessions were performed either immediately prior to or after church services, or because they chose not to use the audience response system and not all of them answered all of the questions. Among the session participants surveyed, 54% (30/56) understood only Spanish, 60% (47/78) were uninsured, and 50% (41/82) had never received information about breast cancer. These results suggest that the majority of participants were underserved and that there was a need for education programs for Hispanic women about breast cancer incidence, self- and clinical evaluation, and free screening available in the Jacksonville, Florida, area.

Awareness

Only 8% (7/82) of the questionnaire respondents were aware of the free, locally available mammography screening programs. While 76% (65/85) of the respondents knew how to do a self-breast exam preseminar, 97% (77/79) said they were encouraged to do self-exams postseminar. While 43% (24/56) of the respondents had had a mammogram less than one year prior to the seminar, with another 43% (24/56) having had a mammogram one or more years prior, 98% (59/60) said they were encouraged to begin or continue having mammograms annually. When asked at the end of an education session, the percentage of respondents willing to make changes in their diets increased from 25% (16/63) to 63% (41/65).

Screening Program Participation

The percentage of Hispanic patients residing in Duval County that participated in Northeast Florida's national breast screening program increased from 17% (31/180) in 2007 to 24% (51/221) during this educational program series in July–October 2008.

When the data were analyzed for the seven counties that compose Northeast Florida (including Duval County), there was an increase from 14% (50/370) to 19% (63/331). At least six of the Hispanic patients from Duval County who were enrolled in the national breast screening program in 2008 (3%, 6/221) stated that they heard of the program from their participation in the educational seminars. Therefore at least 30%, or 6 out of the 20 additional new Hispanic participants in the national breast screening program in 2008, participated as a result of this educational initiative.

Discussion

The Hispanic Outreach Program was developed to address a lack of Spanish-language educational outreach available to the Hispanic and Latina/o community of Northeast Florida. We found that slightly more than half of the individuals reached spoke and understood Spanish only, which illustrates the importance of employing language competency to reach this population. The majority of the surveyed participants were uninsured, which is consistent with the conclusion that this population is largely underserved and that access to care could be a contributor to health outcome disparities. The availability of free mammographic services to the Hispanic community requires a language-competent marketing campaign to attract Hispanics to these services. The suspicion that most Hispanics in Duval County were not aware of the free breast cancer screening services was confirmed, demonstrating the need for these Spanish-language education programs.

We also feel that partnership with community organizations was essential for the program's success. The leadership of the First Coast Hispanic Chamber of Commerce and Mayor Hispanic Advisory Board played a pivotal role in securing the Spanish churches' participation. The local Hispanic media was essential for the dissemination of the information about the events among the Hispanic community. Hispanic churches served as networking and community support venues. They provided the program with meeting venues convenient to the Hispanic community. Through these academic-community collaborations, a critical mass for each education event was achieved.

The greatest increase in Hispanic participation from Northeast Florida in the National Breast and Cervical Cancer Early Detection Program was from Duval County, an absolute increase of 20 participants, six (30%) of whom stated that they became aware through the Hispanic Outreach Program. There was, however, a slight decrease in the number of Hispanic participants from other Northeast Florida counties—from 19/370 (5%) to 12/331 (4%)—suggesting that the increase in the participation of Duval County Hispanic patients in the National Breast and Cervical Cancer Early Detection Program was not solely due to an increase in the Hispanic population. The marketing efforts, which included the use of Hispanic newspaper and radio media, reached all seven counties. Five of the six churches where the education seminars took place were located in Duval County, so most of the effort was concentrated in this county, the largest in Northeast Florida. These findings also suggest that the combination of the radio messaging with the church educational events was successful in leading to an increase in the utilization of the screening programs, and that the radio and print messaging alone was not sufficient to achieve this goal.

Limitations of the Study and Areas for Future Research

Unfortunately, the audience response system, even though it provided immediate feedback and increased interaction with the participants, was not widely utilized, limiting the number of surveyed participants. That not all participants were surveyed may have biased the results. However, we believe that the surveyed population was representative of the participants as a whole.

The postsession survey took place immediately after the education session. Different results might have been obtained if the survey had been administered weeks after the session. For example, a survey conducted weeks later may better reflect real changes in knowledge and behavior among the participants. Surveys at a later time were not part of this study. The preliminary data reported in this pilot study therefore reflects the intent of the participants to change their behavior and does not provide information on whether the participants really changed their behavior as a result of the educational intervention. Also, repeating the Hispanic Outreach Program education sessions will be necessary to maintain the gains in knowledge over a long period of time.

Individual-specific information for the survey participants was not obtained during the education sessions. Therefore, individual comparisons of effectiveness of the education efforts was not possible; the data allow for only groupwide comparisons. Participants' assessment of their ethnicity was also not obtained during the seminars, but given that the educational programs were in Spanish in conjunction with church services for Hispanic congregations, we concluded that the majority of patients were women of Hispanic background. This was confirmed by coauthor Colón-Otero, who directed the educational events.

Performing a similar study utilizing written surveys instead of the audience response system is of interest. A comparison of a similar effort in collaboration with the Northeast Florida African American Churches is of interest as well. The incorporation of education on cervical cancer screening, on recent data regarding the importance of human papillomavirus (HPV) in the causation of not only cervical cancer but also oropharyngeal cancer, and education on the current indications for HPV vaccination are planned for the next education program in the Hispanic community. A robust evaluation of utilization of breast cancer and cervical cancer screening services, as well as HPV vaccination before and after education programs, will help us gauge the effectiveness of these efforts, and may also help us obtain funding to secure the long-term viability of this academic institutions–communities partnership.

Conclusion

Reports of successful academic-community partnerships to promote cancer prevention and screening stress the importance of developing trust between the partners and participatory involvement in the formulation, design, and implementation of the interventions *(Ingram et al., 2012; Meade & Calvo, 2001)*. The incorporation of multiple community partners in this project was critical for its success. The long-standing service relationship between the University of North Florida Brooks College of Medicine, the Mayo Clinic, and the community partners was essential for engaging the Hispanic community in this program. The involvement of community leaders from the First Coast Hispanic Chamber of Commerce and the Mayor Hispanic Advisory Board in the development and implementation of the program was instrumental in securing an adequate number of participants.

The experiences reported in this article support the importance of language-competent, academic-institutions-assisted community education outreach that secures adequate participation of the Hispanic population in breast cancer screening programs. The availability of programs that provide access to diagnostic testing and treatment for patients with abnormal screening mammography is essential to translate the greater availability of breast cancer screening into effective diagnosis and treatment of breast cancer. It is also necessary to develop nutrition education programs targeted to Hispanic women in order to reduce the risk of breast cancer. The Mayo Clinic Breast Diagnostic Program and the collaboration between the Mayo Clinic, the University of North Florida, and the Volunteers in Medicine Clinic provide that needed access to screening, diagnosis, and treatment *(Palmieri et al., 2009).*

From this study, we believe that disparities in cancer care outcomes can be ameliorated by sustained collaborative efforts between community organizations and academic institutions. Critical components to the success of these efforts, as demonstrated by this program, include the provision of needed health services for the underserved population by the academic institutions in collaboration with community organizations and the adequate marketing of those services. Factors contributing to the success of the education effort reported in this study included the involvement of community-organization members in the initial planning and organization of the events, and the utilization of multiple media, including seminars and radio, for adequate dissemination of the information.

Several lessons were learned in this study that could benefit other academic-community partnerships. The limitations of an audience response system for data gathering far outweigh its benefit. The importance of engaging the leadership of the Hispanic community by partnering with the Hispanic Chamber of Commerce was critical. The selection of venues, like Hispanic-serving churches, where regular well-attended meetings were already in place, was essential as well.

In summary, this pilot study provides preliminary data suggesting that a community-organized, church-based education program in Spanish can increase the awareness and utilization of community programs available for breast cancer screening for Hispanic women of low socioeconomic status, and increase their willingness to make healthy dietary changes, at least in the short term. A larger study with more robust outcome analysis and utilizing written surveys with longer follow-up analysis will be needed to confirm and expand on these preliminary observations. A culturally competent approach to breast cancer education that involves a partnership between community organizations and academic institutions is likely to ameliorate disparities in health care outcomes in underserved segments of the population.

Acknowledgment

This study was funded in part by the Jacksonville, Florida, chapter of the American Cancer Society through the Community Education Grant Program to Address Cancer Disparities mechanism and a Mayo Clinic Comprehensive Cancer Center grant (National Cancer Institute grant number P50-CA01508). The authors are most appreciative of the efforts of Ellia Pico, Lennys Campos, Sheylla D. Millan, Mercedes Avery, and Barbara Whittman, members of the Hispanic Outreach Program board, whose dedication to the Hispanic community of Northeast Florida was instramental in allowing the authors to complete this project. They also appreciate the assistance and support of Judy Galindo, chief editor of the local Hispanic newspaper, Hola Noticias, who facilitated informing the Hispanic community of the effort. The authors thank Cecilia Watson ARNP for her participation in the seminars, the nutrition faculty members and specialists from the University of North Florida Brooks College of Medicine Department of Nutrition (including Dr. Nancy Correa Matos) who participated in the seminars, members of the Duval County Health Department for providing screening mammography services and participation rates, and the area churches with Spanish services for providing meeting locations and for promotion of the events to the Hispanic community.

References

Duval County Health Department. (2012). *2012 State of Hispanic health in Duval County: Inaugural report.* Retrieved from http://dchd.net/files/Hispanic%20Health%20Report%20Single%20Pages%206-25-12.pdf

Ingram, M., Piper, R., Kunz, S., Navarro, C., Sander, A., & Gastelum, S. (2012). Salud Si: A case study for the use of participatory evaluation in creating effective and sustainable community-based health promotion. *Family & Community Health, 35*(2), 130–138. doi:10.1097/FCH.0b013e31824650ed

Li, C. I., Malone, K. E., & Daling, J. R. (2003). Differences in breast cancer stage, treatment, and survival by race and ethnicity. *Archives of Internal Medicine, 163*(1), 49–56. PMID: 12523916

Meade, C. D., & Calvo, A. (2001). Developing community-academic partnerships to enhance breast health among rural and Hispanic migrant and seasonal farmworker women. *Oncology Nursing Forum, 28*(10), 1577–1584.

Palmieri, F. M., DePeri, E. R., Mincey, B. A., Smith, J. A., Wen, L. K., Chewar, D. M., . . . Perez, E. A. (2009). Comprehensive diagnostic program for medically underserved women with abnormal breast screening evaluations in an urban population. *Mayo Clinic Proceedings, 84*(4), 317–322. doi:10.1016/S0025-6196(11)60539-9

Patel, T. A., Colon-Otero, G., Bueno Hume, C., Copland, J. A., III, & Perez, E. A. (2010). Breast cancer in Latinas: Gene expression, differential response to treatments, and differential toxicities in Latinas compared with other population groups. *Oncologist, 15*(5), 466–475. doi:10.1634/theoncologist.2010-0004

Rodriguez-Cuevas, S., Macias, C. G., Franceschi, D., & Labastida, S. (2001). Breast carcinoma presents a decade earlier in Mexican women than in women in the United States or European countries. Cancer, 91(4), 863–868. doi:10.1002/1097-0142(20010215)91:4<863::AID-CNCR1074>3.0.CO;2-Y

Siegel, R., Naishadham, D., & Jemal, A. (2012). Cancer statistics for Hispanics/Latinos, 2012. *CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians, 62*(5). doi:10.3322/caac.21153

Appendix

Audience Response System: Preseminar Questionnaire

1. What age should women begin having mammograms?
2. How many servings of fruits and vegetables should you eat a day?
3. What are the age requirements for a woman to qualify for the Tomorrow's Rainbow Program?
4. How many minutes should you exercise per day?
5. What is your age?
6. Which language do you mostly speak on a daily basis?
7. Do you currently have health insurance?
8. Have you ever received information about breast cancer?
9. Do you know how or have you ever been taught how to do a self-breast exam?
10. [Women 40 or older only] When was your last mammogram?

11. [Women 40 or older only] If you have never had a mammogram or you haven't had a mammogram in more than 2 years, why?
12. I believe that currently I am:a) underweight; b) at a healthy weight; c) overweight; d) obese
13. In terms of diet change, I would say that (willingness to change diet):a) I am not ready to change my current diet; b) I am thinking about changing my current diet, but have not made any changes yet; c) I am starting to make changes to my diet; d) I have already made changes to my diet and have been sticking to the changes fairly regularly
14. My total intake of high fat and fried foods (including fried meat, poultry or fish, French fries or plantains, potato or other chips, fat or oil in cooking, bread or margarine on bread, dressings, cheese, and high fat desserts or candies) is:a) About one (or more) servings per day; b) Less than five (total) servings per week; c) About one (total) serving per week; d) Less than one (total) serving per month
15. Have you ever received any information about the Duval County Health Department free mammograms program?
16. Have you ever received any information about the Volunteers in Medicine Clinic?
17. Do you know where to get free or low-cost screening mammograms?
18. How did you hear about today's educational session?

Audience Response System: Postseminar Questionnaire

1. What age should women begin having mammograms?
2. How many servings of fruits and vegetables should you eat a day?
3. What are the age requirements for a woman to qualify for the Duval County Health Department free mammogram program?
4. How many minutes should you exercise per day?

5. What is your age?
6. Did this presentation increase your knowledge about breast cancer?
7. Did the information in today's presentation encourage you to begin or continue doing monthly self-breast exams?
8. Did the information in today's presentation encourage you to begin or continue doing yearly mammograms?
9. Did the information in today's presentation encourage you to contact either Volunteers in Medicine Clinic or Duval County Health Department to find out if you qualify?
10. Are you going to share the information in today's presentation with your family and friends?
11. After hearing today's nutrition presentation, how do you feel in term of diet changes?

About the Authors

Gerardo Colon-Otero, MD, is an associate professor, Mayo Clinic College of Medicine and consultant of the Division of Hematology/Oncology, Mayo Clinic, Jacksonville, Florida. He directs the Health Care Disparities effort at the Mayo Clinic in Jacksonville, Florida.

Monica Albertie, MHA, is the administrator for the Health Care Disparities Program, Mayo Clinic, Jacksonville, Florida.

Judith Rodriguez, MD, is chairperson and professor, department of Nutrition and Dietetics, University of North Florida, Jacksonville, Florida.

Garik Nicholson, MPH, was community outreach coordinator, Mayo Clinic Health Disparities Program, Jacksonville, Florida.

Irina Kolomeyer is the administrator for the Florida Breast and Cervical Cancer Screening Program (formerly known as Tomorrow's Rainbow) for the Florida Department of Health, Duval County, Florida.

Alvaro Moreno-Aspitia, MD, is an associate professor, Mayo Clinic College of Medicine, Mayo Clinic in Jacksonville, Florida and co-director of the Breast Clinic, Mayo Clinic in Jacksonville, Florida.

Mary Lesperance, ARNP was an advanced nnurse practitioner, Mayo Clinic, Jacksonville, Florida.

Edith A. Perez, MD, is the deputy director at large, Mayo Clinic Comprehensive Cancer Center, Mayo Clinic, Jacksonville, Florida.

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 18, Number 1.p. 61, (2014)
 ISSN 1534-6104

Can Face-to-Face Mobilization Boost Student Voter Turnout? Results of a Campus Field Experiment

David Hill and Paul Lachelier

Abstract

American colleges and universities have an expanding role to play in nurturing political engagement as more youth attend college. Given low voter turnout among college students yet growing experimental evidence that face-to-face mobilization can boost turnout, the experiment reported in this article examined the impact of a face-to-face college student mobilization effort on a small, private university in Florida. The authors found a non-significant difference in turnout between those students contacted and those not contacted. The findings suggest that although it is generally difficult to mobilize U.S. citizens, it may be especially difficult to mobilize U.S. college students. Brief recommendations are offered for steps university members can take to make elections a more established part of college students' experience.

Introduction

This article reports on the results of an experimental study testing the question: Does face-to-face mobilization boost voter turnout among college students? Given young Americans' lower voting rates and the relative effectiveness of door-to-door canvassing compared with other get-out-the-vote methods in non-campus contexts (see below for more on youth turnout and turnout methods), the authors conducted a field experiment to test the effectiveness of the door-to-door method on a college campus during the 2010 midterm election. The authors employed undergraduates enrolled in a community organizing course taught by one of the authors at Stetson University, a small liberal arts institution in central Florida, to door-knock students in selected Stetson dorms over several weeks prior to the November election.

Participatory democratic theory generally seeks to extend and deepen citizen participation in governance even in modern representative democracies wherein politics has become more and more directed by media, policy, and campaign professionals (*Hilmer, 2010; Pateman, 1970; Skocpol, 2002*). Among other benefits, participation in politics is said to improve political knowledge and interest, trust in government, accountability of elected officials and state bureaucrats, and even the health of citizens *(Hill, Leighley, & Hinton-Andersson, 1995; Pateman, 1970; Putnam, 2000; Sanders, 2001; Tocqueville, 1969)*. For these and other reasons, scholars (e.g., *Macedo et al., 2005; Patterson, 2002; Putnam, 2000; Wattenberg, 2008)* and pundits *(e.g., Blumner, 2011; Mattson, 2003)* have expressed concern about the persistent signs of political disengagement in the United States, especially among young Americans—recent spikes in presidential voter turnout notwithstanding.

Evidence suggests that younger Americans (born 1965 onward) are less politically engaged than their generational elders, at least by conventional government and party-oriented measures of voting, partisan affiliation, political knowledge, and party activity *(Dalton, 2008; Putnam, 2000; Wattenberg, 2008; Zukin, Keeter, Andolina, Jenkins, & Delli Carpini, 2006)*. Some scholars find evidence that younger Americans are more civic than political—volunteering at higher rates for community activities not directed at influencing government, like park and river clean-ups, tutoring, and charity runs. These scholars contend that civic activity can lead to political action *(McFarland & Thomas, 2006; Zukin et al., 2006)*. However, the decline in conventional political activity among the young, despite the expansion of civic voluntarism in schools since the 1980s, suggests that civic action either has no effect on youths' political actions, or that the civic tends to replace the political *(Macedo et al., 2005; Wattenberg, 2008)*. Further, whatever value non-conventional political actions (e.g., consumer boycotts, online petitions, street demonstrations) may have, they cannot replace the electoral activity that determines who makes the laws that shape everyone's lives.

Political disengagement among young Americans is all the more troublesome given that they are on average better educated than their generational predecessors. Formal education correlates strongly with political engagement in many studies *(Campbell, Converse, Stokes, & Miller, 1960; Portney & O'Leary, 2007; Putnam, 2000; Verba & Nie, 1972; Verba, Nie, & Kim, 1978; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995; Wolfinger & Rosenstone, 1980)*. Moreover, higher education institutions can be fertile grounds for student political activism, not just because of any purported youthful idealism, but also because of the greater sociability and information flow on many campuses, as detailed below. Hence, given that education and political engagement are strongly related, that higher education presents an opportunity to instill active political citizenship, and that the proportion of American youth attending college is rising, how college students can become more engaged citizens is an increasingly important question.

Field Testing Face-to-Face Mobilization of College Students

A growing body of election campaign field experiments tests different methods for boosting voter turnout, from postal mailings and e-mails, to radio and TV ads, to phone calls and door-knocking or canvassing, as well as the variable messages used in these and other approaches *(Arceneaux, 2010; Arceneaux & Nickerson, 2009; Gerber & Green, 2000; Green, Gerber, & Nickerson, 2003; Nickerson, 2006, 2007a, 2007b; Panagopoulos & Green, 2011)*. The experimental research thus far shows that face-to-face canvassing is among the most effective methods, on a per contact basis, for boosting voter participation *(Green & Gerber, 2008)*. However, to the authors' knowledge, no field experiments testing the effectiveness of face-to-face canvassing have been conducted with college campuses, even though college life presents a distinct and often difficult voting environment for the growing numbers of college students.

College Students as Community Members, in the Biggest Battleground State

The authors view college students not just as members of their campus, but as members of city, county, and state communities for three specific reasons. First, students are as much permanent fixtures as their colleges: the student faces may change, but the student body typically endures longer than even the longest residing resident. Second, students use many of the same services and businesses other community residents use, contributing to economies, especially in smaller towns like DeLand, Florida, where the author's institution, Stetson University is located. Third, city, county, and state government decisions—about education, parking, policing, transportation, zoning, and much more—affect college students regardless of where those students come from. Students and their schools have significant potential power to shape their communities by increasing student voting rates, especially in smaller communities where voting numbers are lower and students comprise a larger proportion of the population that can tip the balance in city, county, and state representative elections. Indeed, voting is arguably the most significant form of community-university engagement insofar as it influences who makes the political decisions that affect everyone. In this context, investigating whether and how more college students can be mobilized to vote matters.

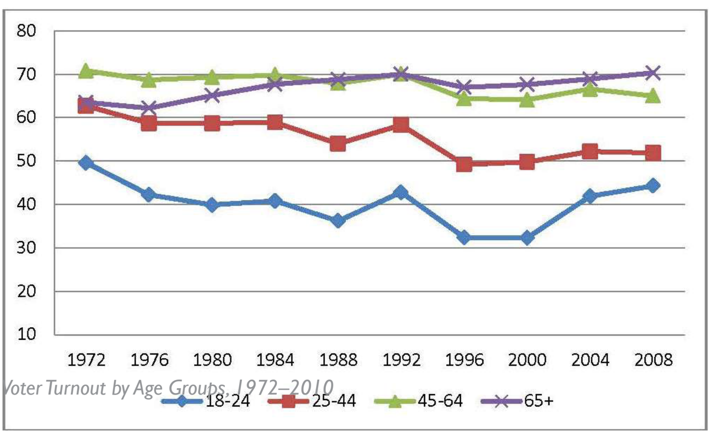
College student turnout has added importance at Stetson University, which lies along Florida's "I-4 Corridor" that stretches from Daytona Beach to Tampa. The I-4 Corridor constitutes the biggest battleground area in the largest presidential swing state in the nation. Florida is the fourth largest state in the nation in terms of population, after California, Texas, and New York, but it is the largest battleground state in the nation in U.S. presidential elections, as its historic role in the 2000 election underscored. Moreover, given its substantial population growth per the 2010 U.S. Census, Florida gained two more Electoral College votes, for a total of 29, further increasing its influence in presidential elections. In the following report, we review the relevant literature on voting among American youth and college students, then detail our voter turnout experiment on the politically significant student community at Stetson University.

Literature Review

College Student Voting

Young Americans generally express less engagement with politics, and vote at consistently lower rates than all older age groups *(Putnam, 2000; Wattenberg, 2008; Zukin et al., 2006)*. As Panel A in Figure 1 illustrates, among Americans ages 18–24, the voting rate has increased in every presidential election since 1996, but never reached higher than the 52.1% who voted in 1972, one year after the minimum voting age changed from 21 to 18, nor has it matched the levels of older age groups. Like older age groups, in midterm elections, 18–24-year-olds turn out to vote at about half or less the rate they do in higher profile presidential election years (Figure 1, Panel B), and the 2010 midterm election was no exception, with just 19.9% of 18–24-year-olds voting compared with 44.3% in 2008

Figure 1: Panel A, Presidential Elections



Voter Turnout by Age Groups, 1972–2010

Figure 1: Panel B, Midterm Elections

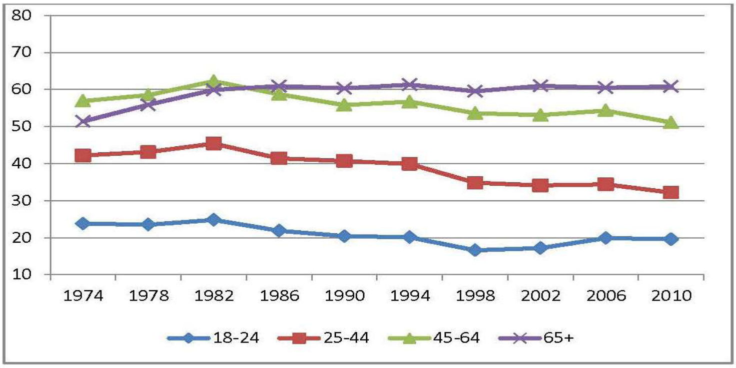


Figure 1. Adapted from: United States Census Bureau. Historical Time Series Tables. Table A-1. "Reported Voting and Registration by Race, Hispanic Origin, Sex, and Age Groups: November 1964 to 2010." http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/socdemo/voting/publications/historical/

The preceding discussion is, of course, about all 18–24-year-old American youth, not just those enrolled in a college. Although the percentage of college students (69%) that fell into the traditional college age group of 18–24 was higher in 1970, more than half of college students (56%) were in this age bracket in 2010 *(NCES, 2011a)*. At Stetson University, in fall 2010, 91.8% of undergraduate students were 18–24 years old. Given the strong relationship between education and political engagement, it may come as no surprise that youths in college are more disposed to vote and engage with politics than those not in college *(Flanagan & Levine, 2010; Kirby & Kawashima-Ginsberg, 2009; Portney & O'Leary, 2007)*. One national survey comparing 18–24-year-old youths in college and not in college found significant differences in the percentage who had ever worked or volunteered in a political campaign (24% vs. 15%), participated in a protest march or demonstration (24% vs. 15%), or talked about politics with friends (57% vs. 42%), among other indicators *(Portney & O'Leary, 2007)*. That said, accumulated research on voting patterns shows that U.S. citizens who are older, married, employed, homeowners, long-time residents of their communities, with higher incomes and a bachelor's degree or more are more likely to vote *(e.g., Pew Research Center, 2006; Verba & Nie, 1972; Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995; Wolfinger & Rosenstone, 1980)*. Most college students, like those at Stetson University, share few if any of these characteristics.

Despite growth in turnout among 18–24-year-olds (as well as older age groups) in presidential elections since 1996, college students are showing markedly less interest in politics much closer to home, in student government elections. For example, the University of California–Los Angeles Freshman Study, which has surveyed American college freshmen annually since 1966, shows a sharp decline over 40 years in the percentage of students who frequently voted in high school government elections, from 73% in 1966 to 22% in 2006. Even fewer expressed the intent to vote in student government in college—just 8% in 2006, largely unchanged since 2000, when the Freshman Study began asking students about voting in college government *(Pryor et al., 2007).*

Conditions Influencing Voting on College Campuses

In some ways, colleges and universities are fertile grounds for political mobilization. For example, Wolfinger and Rosenstone (*1980*) found in their study, Who Votes? that "[b]eing part of a college community provides relatively free access to information about politics. Through living groups, extracurricular activities, and classes, [college] students are less socially isolated than non-students" (*p. 57*). Freer access to information and more social contact means more opportunities for political learning and mobilization. Political organizations may also be drawn to colleges as sources of volunteers, interns, and voters.

However, there are personal and contextual factors particular to college students that can make it difficult to mobilize them to vote. For instance, students are more or less disposed to vote depending on their major, partisanship, and personal interest. Hillygus *(2005)* found that students in the social sciences were the most politically engaged after college. Niemi and Hanmer *(2010)* reported that students in math, science, and engineering voted less than students in other majors. Unsurprisingly, they also found that those most partisan and interested in politics were more likely to vote. More generally, most college students are inexperienced with voting and are surrounded by similarly inexperienced peers. Thus, the tasks of registering; determining when, where, and for whom to vote; and in some cases how to get to the polls, can be challenging, especially for students who go away to college in unfamiliar towns and cities. In addition, young people in general tend to be more mobile than older people, so public records of their actual addresses are more likely to be inaccurate, frustrating efforts to mobilize them *(Nickerson, 2006)*. This can be especially true of college students who not only move away to college, but may change addresses from year to year while in college. Further, students who transfer from one college to another, and those who live farther from home, appear less likely to vote *(Niemi & Hanmer, 2010)*.

Three Reasons to Encourage College Student Voting

Despite these difficulties, there are at least three compelling reasons to encourage college students to vote. First, the proportion of Americans going to college is growing rapidly. The percentage of Americans completing 4 years of college or more grew from 11% in 1970 to 30% in 2009. Between 1999 and 2009 alone, enrollment in degree-granting postsecondary schools rose 38%, from 14.8 million to 20.4 million *(NCES, 2011b)*. College students thus form an increasingly significant constituency, and the majority of college students are of voting age. Second, government policies and funding for higher education directly affect college students. Third, as Gerber, Green, and Shachar *(2003)* document, "voting may be habit forming" *(p. 540)*, with prior voting trumping even the powerful factors of age and education as a predictor of future voting in their analysis *(see also Aldrich, Montgomery, & Wood, 2011; Plutzer, 2002).* Hence, getting more college students to vote may result in higher voting rates in years to come.

Civic Engagement Initiatives and Research on College Campuses

More colleges and universities have, over the last few decades, expanded service-learning opportunities, given evidence that such service improves student civic attitudes, retention, grades, and self-efficacy, among other benefits *(Astin, 1993; Astin, Vogelsgang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000; Keup, 2005; Tannenbaum & Brown-Welty, 2006).* However, despite evidence that political activity in college can be habit forming and that young Americans and college students are pulling away from politics more than civics, most service-learning does not engage students in political action *(Colby, Beaumont, Ehrlich, & Corngold, 2007; Hepburn, Niemi, & Chapman, 2000; Hodgkinson & Weitzman, 1997; Robinson, 2000).* Indeed, the common use in higher education of the term "civic engagement" to refer to both civic and political involvement affirms the primacy of the civic, and obscures the smaller amount of political service-learning going on at American colleges and universities.

There appears, however, to be growing interest in nurturing student political engagement, as evidenced by the proliferation in recent years of research and/or action organizations like the Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE), Campus Compact's Campus Vote Initiative, the American Association of State Colleges and Universities' (AASCU)

American Democracy Project, AASCU's Civic Indicators, and dozens of university centers, programs, and schools devoted at least partly to political education.

Still, despite this mounting interest in the political lives of college students, as recently as 2010, political scientists Richard Niemi and Michael Hanmer *(2010)* contended that "there is almost no theoretical or empirical work specifically devoted to [voting among] college students" *(p. 302).* Examples of recent empirical work include evidence that e-mailed links to downloadable voter registration forms did not boost college student registration (Bennion & Nickerson, 2011), but in-class presentations did *(Bennion, 2008–2009; Bennion & Nickerson, 2009)*. Ulbig and Waggener *(2011)* found that college campus voter registration tables may increase student turnout. However, the authors of this study know of no field experiments that seek to measure the effect of face-to-face mobilization on college students, despite the growing experimental evidence that such mobilization boosts turnout *(Bowen & Green, 2003–2004; Gerber & Green, 2000; Green & Gerber, 2008; Green, Gerber, & Nickerson, 2003; John & Brannan, 2008; Michelson, 2003, 2006).*

Face-to-face voter mobilization gains larger importance given evidence that the overall decline in turnout in recent decades is due at least in part to the reduction in such mobilization as parties and other political organizations have turned more and more to mass media advertising *(Avery, 1989; Rosenstone & Hansen, 1993; Teixeira, 1987, 1992).* Accordingly, political scientists Alan Gerber and Donald Green *(2000)* argued that expanding face-to-face mobilization can help reverse that decline. As they indicated in the second edition of their noted book, *Get Out the Vote (Green & Gerber, 2008)*, "[f]ace-to-face interaction makes politics come to life and helps voters to establish a personal connection with the electoral process. . . . A personal invitation sometimes makes all the difference" *(p. 45)*. Thus, the authors pursued this research question: Does face-to-face mobilization increase voter turnout among college students? They tested the hypothesis that face-to-face mobilization increases college student turnout at a small, private, majority undergraduate, highly residential university that holds the Carnegie Foundation's community engagement classification *(Carnegie Foundation, 2008).* The next section explains their experimental method for testing this hypothesis.

Method

As social scientists who study American politics and as supporters of participatory democratic government, this study's authors—one a sociologist, the other a political scientist—are both keenly interested in increasing citizen political engagement, especially among young Americans. For these reasons, the authors read Green and Gerber's book, *Get Out the Vote (2008),* with enthusiasm for its insistence on methodological rigor in testing common claims about what works and what does not work to raise voter turnout. One of the most common claims made among political activists and campaign professionals is that face-to-face, door-to-door interaction with voters is among the most effective ways, and possibly the most effective, to move voters to the polls. Yet in reviewing the burgeoning experimental research on turnout methods, the authors found no experiments testing face-to-face mobilization on the growing population of college students. Given this literature review and their shared interest in participatory democracy, the authors decided to use one of the authors' courses—a community-based class titled Community Organizing for Social Change (COSC)—to test whether face-to-face mobilization can strengthen turnout among college students, and secured the approval of Stetson's institutional review board to do so.

The authors begin this method section by indicating the location of their study, Stetson University, and its basic demographics. They then explain their data collection method (including specification of the experimental treatment) and sampling process, and conclude with a brief discussion of the methodological strengths and the weaknesses of the field experiment.

Location of the Study and Demographics of Stetson University

The study was conducted at Stetson University. Founded in 1883, Stetson is Florida's oldest private university, with almost 2,300 undergraduates at the time of our study. Most of these students take their courses at Stetson's main campus in DeLand, a town of 25,000 located in central Florida between Orlando and Daytona Beach. Of the nearly 2,300 undergraduates in fall semester 2010, 58% were female, 42% male. Sixty-nine percent defined themselves as White, 14% as Hispanic, 7% as Black, 4% as mixed race, and 2% as Asian (the remainder's race and ethnicity was categorized as "non-resident alien" or unknown). Seventy-eight percent hailed from Florida. Sixty-three percent lived on campus in dorms or apartments.

Data Collection Mechanism: A Voter Mobilization Project

The course COSC is intended to teach students basic skills in grassroots community organizing, including fund-raising, volunteer recruitment, and media outreach. Students in the course learn these skills through reading, writing, class discussion, and practice in a concrete organizing project (the experiential learning component of the course). In fall 2010, the organizing project was a dorm door-to-door, student-to-student effort to encourage Stetson undergraduates to vote in the November 2010 midterm elections.

The 13 undergraduate students enrolled in COSC in the fall semester of 2010 were a diverse group. Nine were men, and four were women. Seven were White, five Black (two born and raised in other nations), one Indian-American. Three were freshmen; three, sophomores; four, juniors; and three, seniors. Three were majoring in political science, three in psychology, two in business, one each in environmental science, biology, and biochemistry, and the two remaining had not declared a major. Only two of the 13 students had prior experience participating in political campaigns or elections other than by voting.

The 13 COSC students were randomly paired to form six canvassing groups (one group had three students). All canvassing groups received the same instructions and equipment. The equipment consisted of

- clipboard and pens;
- treatment dorm floor walk lists (including the students' names, dorm room numbers, and space for COSC students to make notes based on their door conversations);
- a 4-page dorm knocking guide including the questions to pose to students, and answers to frequently asked questions;
- Florida voter registration forms;
- a Florida League of Women Voters guide (including information on statewide candidates); and
- two informational sheets: Six Reasons Stetson Students Should Register to Vote in DeLand, and 15 Ways "Local" Government Affects Stetson Students.

The canvassing groups were assigned to knock on the doors of undergraduates on selected Stetson residence hall floors four times, once per week for 4 weeks starting the weekend of October 4, and ending November 1, the day before the election. Each time, the COSC canvassers were instructed to ask the students on the selected dorm floors three questions:

1. "Are you registered to vote in Florida? If so, what city?"
2. "Are you planning to vote in this year's elections? [Whether yes or no] What issues do you care about?" COSC mobilizers were then instructed to give the selected students information on where and when to vote, and who was running for what offices.
3. "[If student plans to vote] Would you like a ride or walk to the polls?" (This question was asked of those students registered to vote in DeLand, Florida, where Stetson is located. Students who answered affirmatively were then asked if they wanted a walk or ride to the polls during the early voting period, or on Election Day).

At the conclusion of a student interview, the COSC canvassers were instructed to assign one of five ranks to each student they reached.

1 = definitely voting

2 = leaning toward voting

3 = undecided

4 = leaning against voting

5 = definitely not voting

Each of the COSC canvassing groups completed their four dorm walks, except one pair of students who failed to complete their fourth dorm walk.

Sampling

This voter mobilization project focused on the population of undergraduates living on Stetson's DeLand campus. On campus, the authors decided to sample residence hall floors rather than students or whole residence halls. At the time of the sampling there were 11 dorms at Stetson with a total of 66 floors. Occupancy at that point was 85%, for a total of 1,284 students living in dorms. Sampling floors rather than residence halls better ensured demographically comparable treatment and control groups because at Stetson there is more variation in students across than within residence halls. That is, some residence halls have more athletes, freshmen, or other categories of students, but students on floors within a given hall tend to be more homogenous. Sampling floors rather than students, in turn, reduced the risk that treatment group students (students the COSC canvassers attempted to canvass) would be mixed with control group students (students the COSC canvassers did not attempt to canvass) on the same floors, if not also in the same rooms. In short, given evidence of the contagiousness of voting *(Nickerson, 2008*), the authors chose to include in the sample students on specified floors rather than all the students in a residence hall.

Exclusions from the sample. The authors excluded from the experiment the one third of undergraduates living off campus (about 750 students), given their scattered locations. Stetson's on-campus fraternity and sorority houses were also excluded because the authors could not ensure comparable control and treatment floors given the peculiar construction of the Greek buildings at Stetson. Nonetheless, 22% of students belonged to fraternities or sororities in fall 2010, but 53% of these Greek students lived in residence halls rather than Greek housing, allowing some representation of Greek students in the sample.

The population sample was thus narrowed to 22 floors in 11 non-Greek residence halls on Stetson's main campus, representing a total of 571 students or about 25% of Stetson's undergraduate population.

Treatment and control floors. One treatment and one control floor were chosen for each of the eleven dorms by a flip of a coin. The authors instructed the COSC canvassers to canvass only those students living on the treatment floors, a list of whose names the canvassers carried with them on their walks. However, even with sampling by floors rather than students, the COSC canvassers could encounter control group students while walking the treatment floors since students socialize across floors and dorms. If control group students were accidentally exposed to all or part of the canvassers' voting discussion, they might be influenced to vote. Thus, in order to reduce (though not eliminate) the risk that the canvassers' activity on the treatment floor would influence students on the control floor in the same dorm, the authors kept one hall or floor between the treatment and control floors.

This sampling method yielded 285 students in the treatment group (22% of students living in Stetson dorms), and 286 in the control group for a total of 571 in the original sample. Each student's registration status was determined by checking the student's county of residence as well as Volusia County, where Stetson University is located, in the state voter extracts. The voter extracts and voter history files were provided by the Florida Division of Elections.

Further exclusions from the sample. The sampling procedure did not exclude out-of-state and international students. There were 101 out-of-state and 37 international students in the original sample. Once these students were excluded, the authors were left with 221 in the treatment group and 212 in the control group. In addition, because the COSC canvassing efforts took place following the registration closing date in Florida, only those students registered to vote could actually cast a ballot once contacted. This further limited the sample to only those students who stated they were registered to vote in Florida. This left 267 total students, with 138 in the treatment group, and 129 in the control group.

Treatment and control groups compared. The validity of an experiment is dependent upon equivalent treatment and control groups. Table 1 presents a comparison of the composition of each group across a range of characteristics. On four independent variables that affect voter turnout—gender, age, first-generation college student status, and need-based Pell Grant receipt (an income proxy variable)—the two groups were virtually the same. Sixty-four percent of the control group was female, compared with 65% of the treatment group. The median age was 19 in both groups. Fifty-eight percent of students in the control group were first-generation college students, compared with 57% in the treatment group. Forty-four percent of the control group received Pell Grants, compared with 43% of the treatment group.

Table 1. Characteristics of the Treatment and Control Groups

Variable	Treatment Group	Control Group
Gender (% Female)	65%	64%
Age (Median)	19	19
First-Generation Student	57%	58%
Pell Grant Recipient	43%	44%
Race/Ethnicity		
White	78%	67%
African American	6%	11%
Hispanic	11%	13%
Asian	2%	2%
Other	1%	2%
Major		
Business	24%	18%
Humanities	21%	21%
Science	21%	24%
Social Science	21%	30%
Undeclared	13%	6%

Source: Stetson University Office of Institutional Research

There were, however, some noteworthy differences in the composition of the two groups by race/ethnicity and academic major. In the control group, 67% were White, 11% Black, and 13% Hispanic, while in the treatment group 78% were White, 6% Black, and 11% Hispanic. Asians, Native Americans, and those identified as "two or more races" were evenly distributed across the treatment and control groups. Across the five categories of majors—business, humanities, science, social science, and undeclared—there were noticeable differences in the composition of the treatment and control groups. The treatment group was composed of 24% business majors, 21% humanities majors, 21% science majors, 21% social science majors, and 13% undeclared students. The control group, on the other hand, included 18% business majors, 21% humanities majors, 24% science majors, 30% social science majors, and 6% undeclared students. Given that race and ethnicity *(Verba, Schlozman, & Brady, 1995)* and academic major *(Hillygus, 2005; Niemi & Hanmer, 2010)* have considerable effects on political participation, the authors were sensitive to the potential effect of the differences noted above on any observed contrast in the percentage of students voting between the treatment and control groups. Because of this, the authors employed a multivariate analysis to control for the effects of these and other important demographic characteristics.

The Strengths and Weaknesses of Field Experiments

Political scientists used experimental methods to study campaign effects on voters as early as the 1920s, but it was not until the late 1990s that researchers began to use experiments more frequently and systematically *(Druckman, Green, Kuklinski, & Lupia, 2006).* In contrast with surveys, experiments generally offer greater control to determine more precisely the effects of different stimuli. Among experiments, lab, field, natural, and "embedded survey" experiments each have methodological strengths and weaknesses *(see Arceneaux, 2010).* Field experiments tend to cost more time and/or money and to be more difficult to implement. Field experiments also cannot ensure that subjects are given exactly the same treatment, especially if, say, different canvassers carry out the treatment, as was true in this field experiment. However, as Arceneaux *(2010)* notes, field experiments are more generalizable than lab or embedded survey experiments because they are conducted in real situations, like election campaigns, and the subjects usually do not know they are being studied.

Field experiments have been used successfully to study the effects of mobilization on voter participation *(Gerber & Green, 2000; Gerber, Green, & Larimer, 2008, 2010; Gerber, Green, & Shachar, 2003; Green & Gerber, 2008; Green, Gerber, & Nickerson, 2003).* Because of random assignment, the treatment and control groups should not only be equivalent in terms of important characteristics (age, gender, race, etc.), but also equally likely to be exposed to campaign appeals and messages not related to the experiment. Because of this, the researcher is able to isolate the effect of the treatment (in this case, a face-to-face canvassing effort) on the probability an individual will vote.

Results

At the conclusion of the canvassing project, the authors analyzed the data to answer their research question: Did a student-to-student, face-to-face voter mobilization effort increase turnout among college students in the treatment group? The turnout level of the overall sample of 267 registered students casting a ballot in the November 2010 midterm elections was 27%. (The authors determined whether or not a student cast a ballot by checking the Florida voter history file for the student's name among voters both in Volusia County, where Stetson University is located, and in the student's home county.) Table 2 reveals a small effect of canvassing on student turnout. In the control group, 27.10% cast ballots per Florida State Department of Elections records, while 28.26% did so in the treatment group, for a modest difference of 1.16%. As in most voter mobilization experiments, not all members of the treatment group were successfully contacted. The COSC canvassers successfully contacted 90 of the 138 students in the treatment group (65%), and thus only these individuals contacted actually received the treatment. Within this group, the turnout rate was 31%, which is noticeably higher than that of the control group or the treatment group.

Table 2. Effects of Canvassing on Student Turnout in the 2010 Midterm Elections

	Turnout Rate	Number of Students Registered to Vote	Number of Students Actually Contacted
Raw Turnout Rates			
Treatment Group	28.26%	138	90
Control Group	27.10%	129	0
Estimated Effects of Contact on Turnout			
Treatment Group	Turnout Differential (1.16%)/Contact Rate (65%) = 1.78%; Standard Error = 9.3		

Gerber and Green argue that "if voters who are easier to reach are also more likely to vote" *(2000, p. 657)*, simply comparing the turnout rate of those students contacted and those not contacted potentially overestimates the treatment effect. In order to take this into account and properly estimate the effect of the COSC canvassers' contact efforts on turnout, the authors separated the treatment effect (only those actually contacted) from the intent-to-treat effect (everyone in the treatment group) by dividing the turnout rate among the total treatment group by the contact rate *(Gerber & Green, 2000; Michelson, 2003)*. Using this estimator (28.26-27.01÷ 65), the authors found an estimated treatment effect of 1.8 points, which, while not a dramatic increase, is within the range of prior experimental studies of door-to-door canvassing *(Green & Gerber, 2008)*. Unfortunately, the standard error for this effect was quite high (9.3), and the probability that the treatment effect was the result of sampling error was well above conventional standards. Because the sampling was based on floors, the calculation of standard errors must take into account the potential effects of this clustering, and thus the authors used clustered robust standard errors in calculating their estimates in Tables 2 and 3 *(see Arceneaux & Nickerson, 2009b)*.

To this point, the authors had little evidence to suggest that their canvassing efforts led substantially more students to vote on Election Day 2010. Multivariate analysis allowed the authors to provide a more complete examination of their main question by controlling for a variety of covariates that affect voting probability. As noted, however, it is possible that members of the treatment group who were easier to contact were also more likely to vote, and therefore, although contact was potentially related to the probability of voting, it was also correlated with the regression error term. The conventional method for addressing this problem is to find an instrumental variable that is related to the endogenous variable (canvasser contact with student) but not the error term in the model. As Gerber and Green *(2000)* note, a dummy variable for assignment to the treatment group is related to whether or not an individual is contacted (a student, of course, could not be contacted unless she or he was assigned to the treatment group), but because assignment to the experimental group was random, individuals who were easy to contact should be evenly distributed in the treatment and control groups and the dummy for treatment should not be related to the model's error term. Because of this, assignment to the treatment group was used as an instrumental variable to replace the dummy for contact in the model. Because the dependent variable is dichotomous (voted, or did not vote), the authors used instrumental variables probit to estimate the effect of contact on the probability of voting.

Table 3 presents the instrumental variables probit estimates of the probability of voting. The coefficient for contact was not significant, suggesting that when controlling for other variables related to the probability of voting, being contacted as part of the canvassing effort had no effect on the probability of a student voting in the November 2010 midterm elections. In fact, the only two variables significantly related to the probability of voting were the dummy variable for whether or not a student received a Pell Grant and the distance from Stetson to the student's hometown. Pell Grants are need-based aid, and thus a good measure of socioeconomic status. Given the effect of socioeconomic status on voting, the authors would expect students receiving these grants to be less likely to vote. Niemi and Hanmer *(2010)* found that one of the key factors influencing whether or not a college student will vote was the distance between the student's hometown and the school they attended. The results of the authors' probit analysis confirm this, with the probability of voting decreasing as the distance between Stetson and the student's hometown increased. This finding, perhaps more than anything, highlights the difficulty in successfully mobilizing college students—especially those living far from their hometowns—to participate in elections.

Table 3. Instrumental Variables Probit Estimates of the Probability of Voting

Variable	Coefficient
Constant	–.152
	(1.418)
Contact	–.025
	(.314)
Distance	–.004**
	(.001)
Pell Grant Recipient	–.370**
	(.177)
First Generation Student	.127
	(.179)
Age	–.005
	(.075)
Gender	–.275
	(.214)
Black	–.006
	(.375)
Hispanic	.093
	(.298)
Asian	.310
	(.592)
Other	–.127
	(.535)
Social Science	.401
	(.326)
Science	.477
	(.333)
Humanities	.482
	(.328)
Business	.223
	(.372)
Log Likelihood	–216.85

Note. Standard errors are in parentheses; **$p < .05$

Distance is the actual distance between the student's hometown and DeLand, FL; Pell Grant Recipient is coded 0 if the student did not receive a Pell Grant and 1 if the student did receive a Pell Grant; First Generation Student is coded 0 if at least one of the student's parents had a college degree and 1 if neither of the student's parents possessed a college degree. Age is the student's actual age; Gender is coded 0 for males and 1 for females. Race/Ethnicity is measured by dummy variables for White, Black, Hispanic, Asian, and Other (Native American/Pacific Islander; Two or More Races; Unknown).

Academic Major is measured by dummy variables based on the student's declared major at the time of the study.

Discussion

Surveys, for several decades the staple of research on campaign effects on voting, suffer inherent biases in the selection of voters and in voter reports as to whether they voted or not. These biases make it difficult to more precisely determine what spurs people to vote and often lead researchers to overestimate the effects of campaign phone calls, TV advertising, face-to-face canvassing, and other independent variables. Beginning in the late 1990s, Yale University political scientists Donald Green and Alan Gerber applied a methodologically more rigorous experimental method to study which get-out-the-vote tactics do and do not work. They confirmed what some election campaign professionals had long claimed but did not have solid scientific evidence to support: face-to-face canvassing works better than other methods to boost turnout *(Gerber & Green, 2000; Green & Gerber, 2008).*

Dozens of experiments have been conducted testing different turnout tactics since Green and Gerber's original studies. Yet few if any published experimental studies have tested face-to-face mobilization on college campuses, despite the rapid growth in college student populations over the last several decades, and the importance of college to political engagement in the short and long term *(Flanagan & Levine, 2010; Verba & Nie, 1972; Verba, et.al.1995).* As Flanagan and Levine note *(2010, p. 173)*, "four-year colleges have become perhaps the central institution for civic incorporation of younger generations."

The experimental test reported in this article using students to mobilize students on a university campus found a small—in fact, statistically insignificant—increase in turnout. The small difference in turnout between the treatment and control groups is sobering. Voter mobilization is hard work, and significantly, the findings suggest that it may be even harder on college campuses. College students are typically inexperienced with voting, and surrounded by others similarly inexperienced. Many students may also be more difficult to contact at home because they do not have regular nine-to-five work schedules and may be out of their dorms studying, socializing, or engaged in the plethora of extracurricular activities universities commonly provide. Further, many live away from home in unfamiliar communities, making it more complicated for them to register and vote. At Stetson, the 267 students the authors studied were on average 127 miles from home, probably far enough to dissuade many from voting.

The Results in the Context of the 2010 Election in Florida

Arceneaux & Nickerson *(2009a, p. 1)* contended that "face-to-face mobilization is better at stimulating turnout among low-propensity voters in prominent elections than it is in quiescent ones." This suggests that face-to-face mobilization would be less effective in a midterm election like that of 2010 than in a presidential election, as in 2008. Yet the 2010 Florida election was a relatively high-profile midterm election in four ways. First, a close gubernatorial race pitted Democrat Alex Sink, who could have been Florida's first female governor, against millionaire health care executive and upstart Republican candidate Rick Scott, who won with just a 1% edge over Sink after spending $63 million of his own funds on his campaign *(Bender & Smith, 2011).* Second, in an unusual U.S. Senate election the once-popular Republican governor Charlie Crist, facing embarrassing defeat to rising star Marco Rubio in his own party's primary, left his party to run as an independent in the general election, finishing a distant second to Rubio. Third, the state attorney general's race featured Pam Bondi, an assistant state attorney with a national profile as an MSNBC and Fox News legal analyst. Fourth, the election put a number of major ballot measures before voters—including proposals to relax school class size limits, put land-use plans up for local vote, and reform state legislative and Congressional redistricting—that spurred various interest groups to work to get out the vote. Despite these four factors, just 48.7% of Florida's 11.2 million registered voters voted, down from 75.2% in 2008, though up from 46.8% in the 2006 midterm election *(Florida Division of Elections, 2012).*

At Stetson, the student canvassers managed to contact 65% of the treatment students targeted, yet only 31% of these students contacted voted, compared with 27% of control group students. Nationwide, 21% of Americans 18–24 years old voted in the 2010 midterm elections *(CIRCLE, 2011)*. Given that 18–24-year-olds who are college students vote at higher rates than their contemporaries who are not in college, one would expect higher turnout among Stetson students. The 31% treatment group voter rate was far below even the lackluster overall Florida voter turnout rate of 49% in 2010.

Limitations of the Study and Areas for Future Research

The lack of statistical significance is likely largely the result of this experiment's small sample size. Further research with a bigger sample from a larger campus or several campuses would likely provide the confidence necessary for sound conclusions about the effects of a face-to-face canvassing effort. Future research should compare turnout among college students living close to versus far from their hometowns, given this and prior studies' *(Niemi & Hanmer, 2010)* findings showing higher voting rates among students closer to their hometowns.

On the possible effects of canvassers, it is possible that volunteer canvassers intrinsically motivated to boosting voter turnout would have had better success than students required to canvass for a course grade. Few of the thirteen Stetson students enrolled in COSC in 2010 had prior political organizing experience, and most signed up less to persuade their fellow students to vote than to fulfill general education requirements. In addition, COSC offered relatively little in-class or field training in face-to-face canvassing because the course was intended to introduce students to a variety of community organizing tactics. Would politically interested and/or experienced students be more effective canvassers? Would more training to improve the quality of interaction with potential voters improve turnout, as some research suggests *(Nickerson, 2007a)*? These are questions worth pursuing for university faculty and staff interested in improving student voting and political engagement.

There is much opportunity for further research assessing different canvassing tactics on students. For example, there is recent evidence from non-college experiments that promoting an "I am a voter" identity rather than the act of voting *(Bryan, Walton, Rogers, & Dweck, 2011)* and telling prospective voters that non-voters or voters will be publicly listed after the election *(Davenport et al., 2010; Gerber, et.al, 2008, 2010; Mann, 2010; Panagopoulos, 2010)* can significantly boost turnout. These and other door-to-door pitches should be tested on college students. Other get-out-the-vote tactics (e.g., calling, mail, e-mail, text, social media outreach, election-day festivals, in-class presentations) should also be tested on college students in formal experiments.

Conclusion

Given that the 267 students in the sample were, on average, 127 miles from their hometowns on Election Day 2010—more than a two-hour drive each way on a school day—registering more students at their campus address may spur higher turnout not only because of the radically shortened distance to the polls but also because having more students registered in one place may attract more on- or off-campus political groups to mobilize them. Florida does not prohibit students from registering at their campus address, but some Stetson students who registered on campus did report that doing so led health insurers to challenge their eligibility for family coverage.

Even if the results of this experiment document the difficulty in mobilizing college students to vote, larger scale experimental evidence suggests that young voters can be just as responsive to election appeals as older voters, but that they are roughly three times more difficult to reach *(Nickerson, 2006)*. For these reasons, the authors believe most colleges and universities can do much more to improve student turnout because they know where their students are located and have closer relationships with them than most other institutions. A one-course effort like COSC employing a few students appears insufficient to boost voter turnout appreciably in one election, let alone to widely nurture a voting habit among students on any given campus. The authors sense, however, that an effort involving more students and faculty members as well as university staff and community partners (e.g., student government, student engagement staff, local elected officials and elections staff, political parties,and advocacy groups) stands a better chance of boosting student voter turnout in one election—and in further elections if sustained.

Accordingly, one key to turning politics from the province of a few activists to more of a campus tradition is to institutionalize political engagement. Working together, faculty, staff, students, and community partners can institutionalize political engagement by, for example, conducting annual voter registration drives; widely disseminating election information via website, social media, e-mail, and text; developing a corps of student educators and community leaders to deliver in-class election presentations; and making election day a campus-wide event with time off to vote and free rides to the polls. Such institutional efforts may not guarantee substantially higher student voter turnout, but given the small increase observed from one limited course effort in this study, it would not be surprising to find that a larger effort sustained over years would boost college student voter turnout in the short and long term.

For interested university faculty and staff, a lesson of this study is not to abandon course-driven voter mobilization, but rather to improve and expand it. Faculty members can play a key role in institutionalizing campus political engagement through their courses. Campus-community-engaged courses can help train students enrolled in those courses to become more capable citizens and encourage political engagement in the wider body of students. For faculty members curious about testing different tactics for raising college student voter turnout, the experimental method followed in this study offers a more rigorous way than the common voter survey to determine the precise effects of different get-out-the-vote tactics.

Today, at Stetson University, there is movement to create an interdisciplinary Center for Participatory Democracy that would organize deliberative student and citizen issue forums and advance experimental research, among other efforts to increase political engagement in the student body and wider communities. Such a center, like others being established on campuses across the United States, offers hope in the long term for boosting voter turnout among college students, especially those in their formative youth. College students may be difficult to mobilize to vote, as this experiment suggests, but there is still hope for those who want to nurture political habits among college youth and brighten the future of American democracy.

References

Aldrich, J., Montgomery, J., & Wood, W. (2011). Turnout as a habit. *Political Behavior, 33*, 535–563.

Arceneaux, K. (2010). The benefits of experimental methods for the study of campaign effects. *Political Communication, 27*, 199–215.

Arceneaux, K., & Nickerson, D. W. (2009a). Who is mobilized to vote? A re-analysis of 11 field experiments. *American Journal of Political Science, 53,* 1–16.

Arceneaux, K., & Nickerson, D. W. (2009b). Modeling certainty with clustered data: A comparison of methods. *Political Analysis, 17*, 177–190.

Astin, A. W. (1993). *What matters in college? Four critical years revisited.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Astin, A. W., Vogelsgang, L. J., Ikeda, E. K., & Yee, J. A. (2000). *How service learning affects students.* Los Angeles, CA: Higher Education Research Institute, UCLA.

Avery, M. (1989). *The demobilization of American voters.* New York, NY: Greenwood. Bender, M. C., & Smith, A. C. (2011, July 6). Governor Rick Scott's net worth drops by $115 million. *Tampa Bay Times.* Retrieved from http: //www tampabay.com/news/politics/national/gov-rick-scotts-net-worth-drops-by-115-million/1178961

Bennion, E. A. (2008–2009, Winter). I'll register to vote if you teach me how: A classroom-based registration experiment. *Indiana Journal of Political Science*, pp. 20–27.

Bennion, E. A., & Nickerson, D. W. (2009, April). *I will register, if you teach me how: Results from voter registration field experiments on college campuses*. Paper presented at the Midwest Political Science Association 67th Annual National Conference, Chicago, IL.

Bennion, E. A., & Nickerson, D. W. (2011). The cost of convenience: An experiment showing e-mail outreach decreases voter registration. *Political Research Quarterly, 64*, 858–869.

Blumner, R. (2011, September 18). Advice to the young: Vote. *Tampa Bay Times.* Retrieved from http://www.tampabay.com/opinion/columns/advice-to-the-young-vote/1191754

Bowen, B., & Green, D. (2003–2004). Get out the vote: What works? *Social Policy, 34,* 60–62.

Bryan, C. J., Walton, G. M., Rogers, T., & Dweck, C. S. (2011). *Motivating voter turnout by invoking the self.* Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 108, 12653–12656.

Campbell, A., Converse, P. E., Stokes, D. E., & Miller, W. E. (1960). T*he American voter.* New York, NY: Wiley.

Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. (2008). 2008 Carnegie community engagement classification. Retrieved from http://classifications.carnegiefoundation.org/downloads/2008-community_engagement.pdf

Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement (CIRCLE). (2011). The youth vote in 2010: Final estimates based on census data. Retrieved from http://www.civicyouth.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/04/The-CPS-youth-vote-2010-FS-FINAL1.pdf

Colby, A., Beaumont, E., Ehrlich, T., & Corngold, J. (2007). *Educating for democracy: Preparing undergraduates for responsible political engagement.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Dalton, R. J. (2008). *The good citizen: How a younger generation is reshaping American politics.* Washington, DC: CQ Press.

Davenport, T., Gerber, A., Green, D., Larimer, C., Mann, C., & Panagopoulos, C. (2010). The enduring effects of social pressure: Tracking campaign experiments over a series of elections. *Political Behavior, 32*, 423–430.

Druckman, J. N., Green, D. P., Kuklinski, J. H., & Lupia, A. (2006). The growth and development of experimental research in political science. *American Political Science Review, 100,* 627–635.

Flanagan, C., & Levine, P. (2010). Civic engagement and the transition to adulthood. *The Future of Children, 20,* 159–179.

Florida Division of Elections. (2012). Election results. Retrieved from http://enight.dos.state.fl.us/

Gerber, A. S., & Green, D. P. (2000). The effects of canvassing, telephone calls, and direct mail on voter turnout: A field experiment. *American Political Science Review, 94,* 653–663.

Gerber, A. S., Green, D. P., & Larimer, C. W. (2008). Social pressure and voter turnout: Evidence from a large-scale field experiment. *American Political Science Review, 102*, 33–48.

Gerber, A. S., Green, D. P., & Larimer, C. W. (2010). An experiment testing the relative effectiveness of encouraging voter participation by inducing feelings of pride or shame. *Political Behavior, 32,* 409–422.

Gerber, A. S., Green, D. P., & Shachar, R. (2003). Voting may be habit-forming: Evidence from a randomized field experiment. *American Journal of Political Science, 47*, 540–550.

Green, D. P., & Gerber, A. S. (2008). *Get out the vote: How to increase voter turnout (2nd ed.).* Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

Green, D. P., Gerber, A. S., & Nickerson, D. W. (2003). Getting out the vote in local elections: Results from six door-to-door canvassing experiments. *Journal of Politics, 65,* 1083–1096.

Hepburn, M. A., Niemi, R. G., & Chapman, C. (2000). Service learning in college political science: Queries and commentary. *PS: Political Science and Politics, 33,* 617–622.

Hill, K. Q., Leighley, J. E., & Hinton-Andersson, A. (1995). Lower-class mobilization and policy linkage in the U.S. states. *American Journal of Political Science, 39*, 75–86.

Hillygus, D. S. (2005). The missing link: Exploring the relationship between higher education and political engagement. *Political Behavior, 27,* 25–47.

Hilmer, J. D. (2010). The state of participatory democratic theory. *New Political Science, 32,* 43–63.

Hodgkinson, V. A., & Weitzman, M. S. (1997). *Volunteering and giving among teenagers 12-17 years of age.* Washington, DC: Independent Sector.

John, P., & Brannan, T. (2008). How different are telephoning and canvassing? Results from a "get out the vote" field experiment in the British 2005 general election. *British Journal of Political Science, 38,* 565–574.

Keup, J. R. (2005). The impact of curricular interventions on intended second-year enrollment. *Journal of College Student Retention, 7*, 61–89.

Kirby, E. H., & Kawashima-Ginsberg, K. (2009). The youth vote in 2008. Retrieved from http://www.civicyouth.org/PopUps/FactSheets/FS_youth_Voting_2008_updated_6.22.pdf

Macedo, S., Alex-Assensoh, Y., Berry, J. M., Brintnall, M., Campbell, D. E., Fraga, L. R., . . . Walsh, K. C. (2005). *Democracy at risk: How political choices undermine citizen participation, and what we can do about it.* Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

Mann, C. (2010). Is there backlash to social pressure? A large-scale field experiment on voter mobilization. *Political Behavior, 32,* 387–407.

Mattson, K. (2003). *Engaging youth.* New York, NY: Century Foundation Press.

McFarland, D. A., & Thomas, R. J. (2006). Bowling young: How youth voluntary associations influence adult political participation. *American Sociological Review, 7*, 401–425.

Michelson, M. R. (2003). Getting out the Latino vote: How door-to-door canvassing influences voter turnout in rural central California. *Political Behavior, 25*, 247–263.

Michelson, M. R. (2006). Mobilizing the Latino youth vote: Some experimental results. *Social Science Quarterly, 87*, 1188–1206.

NCES. (2011a). Fast facts. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=98

NCES. (2011b). Total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions, by attendance status, sex, and age: Selected years, 1970 through 2020. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d11/tables/dt11_200.asp

Nickerson, D. W. (2006). Hunting the elusive young voter. *Journal of Political Marketing, 5*, 47–69.

Nickerson, D. W. (2007a). Does email boost turnout? *Quarterly Journal of Political Science, 2,* 369–379.

Nickerson, D. W. (2007b). Quality is job one: Professional and volunteer voter mobilization calls. *American Journal of Political Science, 51,* 269–282.

Nickerson, D. W. (2008). Is voting contagious? Evidence from two field experiments. *American Political Science Review, 102*, 49–57.

Niemi, R. G., & Hanmer, M. J. (2010). Voter turnout among college students: New data and rethinking of traditional theories. *Social Science Quarterly, 91,* 301–323.

Panagopoulos, C. (2010). Affect, social pressure and prosocial motivation: Field experimental evidence of the mobilizing effects of pride, shame and publicizing voting behavior. *Political Behavior, 32,* 369–386.

Panagopoulos, C., & Green, D.P. (2011). Spanish-language radio advertisements and Latino voter turnout in the 2006 Congressional elections: Field experimental evidence. *Political Research Quarterly, 64,* 588-599.

Pateman, C. (1970). *Participation and democratic theory.* London, England: Cambridge University Press.

Patterson, T. E. (2002). *The vanishing voter.* New York, NY: Knopf.

Pew Research Center. (2006). Who votes, who doesn't and why: Regular voters, intermittent voters and those who don't. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved from http://www.people-press.org/files/legacy-pdf/292.pdf

Plutzer, E. (2002). Becoming a habitual voter: Inertia, resources, and growth in young adulthood. *American Political Science Review, 96,* 41–56.

Portney, K. E., & O'Leary, L. (2007). Civic and political engagement of America's youth: A report from the Tisch College National Survey of Civic and Political Engagement of Young People. Medford, MA: Tufts University. Retrieved from http://ase.tufts.edu/polsci/faculty/portney/civicReportFeb07.pdf

Pryor, J. H., Hurtado, S., Saenz, V. B., Santos, J. L., & Korn, W. S. (2007). The American freshman: Forty year trends. Los Angeles, CA: University of California Higher Education Research Institute. Retrieved from http://heri.ucla.edu/PDFs/40TrendsManuscript.pdf

Putnam, R. D. (2000). *Bowling alone*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

Robinson, T. (2000). Dare the school build a new social order? *The Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 7,* 142–157.

Rosenstone, S. J., & Hansen, J. M. (1993). *Mobilization, participation, and democracy in America.* New York, NY: Macmillan.

Sanders, L. M. (2001, August). *The psychological benefits of political participation*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Political Science Association, San Francisco, CA.

Skocpol, T. (2003). *Diminished democracy.* Norman, OK: University of Oklahoma Press.

Tannenbaum, S. C., & Brown-Welty, S. (2006). Tandem pedagogy: Embedding service-learning into an after-school program. *Journal of Experiential Education, 29,* 111–125.

Teixeira, R. (1987). *Why Americans don't vote.* New York, NY: Greenwood.

Teixeira, R. (1992). *The disappearing American voter.* Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.

de Tocqueville, A. (1969). *Democracy in America.* New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Ulbig, S. G., & Waggener, T. (2011). Registered and getting to the polls: The impact of voter registration strategy and information provision on turnout of college students. *PS: Political Science & Politics, 44,* 544–551.

Verba, S., & Nie, N. H. (1972). *Participation in America.* Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Verba, S., Nie, N. H., & Kim, J. O. (1978). *Participation and political equality: A seven-nation comparison*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Verba, S., Schlozman, K. L., & Brady, H. E. (1995). *Voice & equality.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wattenberg, M. P. (2008). *Is voting for young people?* New York, NY: Pearson Education.

Wolfinger, R. E., & Rosenstone, S. J. (1980). *Who votes?* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Zukin, C., Keeter, S., Andolina, M., Jenkins, K., & Delli Carpini, M. X. (2006). *A new engagement: Political participation, civic life and the changing American citizen.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

About the Authors

David Hill is an associate professor of political science at Stetson University. His research focuses on political behavior with a specific interest in the impact of institutions on political participation. Hill earned his Ph.D. in political science from the University of Florida in 1999.

Paul Lachelier is the founder and manager of Learning Life, an educational nonprofit devoted to spreading learning more widely by printing knowledge on the surfaces of everyday life (for more on Learning Life, visit http://letlearninglive.org). His research has focused on the civic and political engagement of American youth, and more generally on the condition of American political culture. Lachelier earned his Ph.D. in sociology from the University of Wisconsin–Madison, and was previously an assistant professor of sociology at Stetson University.

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 18, Number 1, p. 89, (2014)

Assessing the Student, Faculty, and Community Partner in Academic Service-Learning: A Categorization of Surveys Posted Online at Campus Compact Member Institutions

Susan Waters and Karen Anderson-Lain

Abstract

Service-learning is an instructional strategy used by faculty at hundreds of institutions, including those that are members of Campus Compact, an organization committed to service-learning and community/civic engagement. For this study, researchers examined a variety of online survey assessment tools used in service-learning projects. The study's purpose is to demonstrate what questions, concepts, and categories are currently being utilized for evaluation of (1) students, (2) faculty, and (3) community partners from 121 Campus Compact member institutions, using Gelmon, Holland, Driscoll, Spring, and Kerrigan's *(2001)* taxonomy. Six unique concepts emerged from the study that diverged from Gelmon et al.'s taxonomy. This research provides a survey tool that is readily accessible for educators' use when constructing service-learning assessment. The article concludes with recommendations to educators for use of assessment surveys.

Introduction

In concert with community engagement, service-learning as an educational discipline has grown extensively in the past 20 years, supported by Campus Compact, a "national coalition of more than 1,100 college and university presidents representing some six million students who are committed to fulfilling the civic purposes of higher education" *(Campus Compact, 2011a)*. The presidents of Brown University, Georgetown, Stanford, and the president of the Education Commission of the States founded Campus Compact in 1985. They collaborated to construct five basic principles pertaining to service-learning and civic engagement in higher education: (1) students, faculty, staff, and higher education institutions participate in public and community service; (2) civic concern issues are committed to the forefront in civic discourse; (3) initiatives promote productive collaborations between colleges and communities; (4) opportunities are developed that increase student, faculty, staff, and alumni involvement in citizenship-building service activities; and (5) the classroom supports service-learning *(Campus Compact, 2011b)*.

Service-learning is gaining recognition as an essential component of promoting civic engagement in the classroom. In its formative years, Bringle and Hatcher *(1995)* defined service-learning as a course-based, organized educational activity that has a reflection component and enhances civic responsibility. "Civic engagement is important to service-learning because when service-learning programs address specific knowledge and skills, civic development is made explicit to students as a core learning outcome" *(National Service-Learning Clearinghouse, 2011)*. As students experience civic engagement in the form of service-learning, they gain work experience, personal satisfaction, and potentially a higher level of ethical principles than they had previously *(Waters & Carmichael Burton, 2008)*. The present study adds to the understanding of service-learning by providing a foundation for a best practices survey tool that is largely quantitative in nature, offering the potential to shore up areas of methodological weakness that exist in service-learning literature *(Eyler, 2011)*. Generally, service-learning research that uses qualitative methods consists of descriptive program evaluations of outcomes. Bringle and Hatcher *(2000)* note a widespread deficiency in service-learning research, namely its "tendency to report specific findings, most typically from case studies (e.g., one class, one program, one institution) without making justified generalizations about practice, theory, and policy" *(p. 73)*.

The present study addresses this deficiency by encouraging research using principally quantitative data from survey instruments intended for numerous classes, programs, and institutions, contributing to generalizations about practice, theory, and policy. Gelmon, Holland, Driscoll, Spring, and Kerrigan *(2001)* developed an assessment strategy in conjunction with Campus Compact as part of a large service-learning and civic engagement assessment project. The resulting benchmark publication was disseminated to Campus Compact members and remains a primary assessment publication of Campus Compact more than a decade later *(Campus Compact, 2013)*. This work yielded a specific assessment matrix for measuring outcomes for students, faculty, community partners, and institutions. Its assessment strategies and recommendations for survey concepts form a useful framework for this study. Given the recognition of the Gelmon et al. text and the direct connection to Campus Compact, this study anticipated some of their recommendations for survey concepts that would be directly reflected in online surveys collected from Campus Compact institutions.

To better understand the effectiveness and quality of service-learning initiatives for students, faculty, and university, assessment methods should be front and center as a vital part of the process *(Gelmon et al., 2001)* and need to be rigorously applied *(Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, & Yee, 2000; Furco & Billig, 2002).* Sometimes universities invest significant resources into service-learning and community engagement; subsequent objective assessment of service-learning both informs the impact of service-learning on students, faculty, and university and provides accountability for these initiatives. Thus, this project seeks to document the approach that universities are promoting for assessment of service-learning and to provide an updated recommendation of survey items for assessment of service-learning for students, faculty, and community partners. First, this study describes service-learning assessment and discusses formative and summative assessment along with formal and informal types of assessment. Second, Gelmon et al.'s assessment approaches are explained. Finally, an extensive survey, obtained by culling online Campus Compact websites for service-learning assessment tools, is presented that could be advantageous for use by instructors and institutions.

Assessment Defined

Bringle, Philips, and Hudson *(2004)* acknowledged the need for scientific research and subsequent measurement using standardized scales for assessing program evaluation of both service-learning and civic engagement. In this context, assessment is "a process by which educators use students' responses to specially created or naturally occurring stimuli in order to make inference about student knowledge, skills or affective status" *(Popham, 2005).* Given the premise that students, faculty, and the university would like to understand the effectiveness of service-learning to improve the quality of service-learning, objective assessment tools naturally follow as an essential part of the process *(Driscoll, Holland, Gelmon, & Kerrigan, 1996; Gelmon et al., 2001).* In this study, both formative and summative types of assessments and how educators can implement these kinds of assessment within service-learning courses are explained.

Formative Assessment

Formative assessments are formal or informal assessments that occur throughout the semester. These assessments are widely accepted as a method of improving student learning (*Popham, 2008*). Students are encouraged to become partners in the learning process, rather than their grades being the focus of attention. "Formative assessment seeks to inform instruction and help students use the results to enhance their own learning. It is important because feedback given only at the end of a learning cycle is not effective in furthering student learning" *(Fluckiger, Tixier y Vigil, Pasco, & Danielson, 2010, p. 136).* This type of assessment supports learning and typically works in congruence with summative assessment. Sometimes formative assessment can take priority over summative assessment in a fundamental shift, even to the point of being used for validation and accreditation rather than summative assessment *(Ayala et al., 2008; Taras, 2008).* Empirical evidence seems to suggest that formative assessment can increase student motivation and learning if used correctly *(Black & Wiliam, 1998; Cauley & McMillan, 2010)*.

Formative assessments are further distinguished as formal or informal. Formal assessments are assessments that have been researched and tested and measure the success of a student's work and/or course or program overall. Because of this protocol, these assessments are frequently quantitative. Informal assessments are not formally researched, but have been used pedagogically and anecdotally. These kinds of assessments check the progress of students' understanding and provide insight into the depth of the students' comprehension. Formal and informal assessments differ mainly in being structured or unstructured. Formal structured assessments have been researched and tested before their use, unlike the informal unstructured assessments. Table 1 provides examples of these kinds of assessments.

Table 1. Examples of Formative and Summative Assessments

Formative Assessments	Summative Assessments
Formal	Formal
Structured class presentations	Community partner/peer evaluations
Structured peer evaluations	Exams or quizzes
Surveys	Final report, paper, or project
Structured writing evaluations	Portfolios/e-folios
Structured interviews	Surveys
Structured community partner observations	Structured Course evaluations
	Standardized assessment
	Structured midterm report

Informal	Informal
Reflective papers	
Journal writing	Journal writing
Class discussions	Unstructured self-report
Instructor observations	Unstructured service-work sheets
Community partner observations	Unstructured exit interviews
Online discussions	Unstructured performance-based evaluation
Unstructured interviews	Focus groups
Class activities	Class activities
Focus groups	

Informal formative assessment. Ongoing informal formative assessment provides feedback to students using informal methods such as making observations and questioning students about content. The teacher assesses the feedback and ascertains what instruction is needed to correct student errors and improve learning *(Cauley & McMillan, 2010).* Ash, Clayton, and Atkinson *(2005)* constructed academic learning objectives with associated guiding questions that could be applied for reflective lessons in the service-learning classroom. Their hierarchical learning objective levels are: (1) Identify and Describe, (2) Apply, (3) Analyze, and (4) Evaluate. From this model, Ash and Clayton *(2009)* developed the DEAL model, which has three steps:

> (1) Description of experience in an objective and detailed manner; (2) Examination of those experiences in light of specific learning goals or objectives; and (3) Articulation of Learning, including goals for future action that can then be taken forward into the next experience for improved practice and further refinement of learning. *(p. 41)*

Although articulation of learning often comes in the form of qualitative measures of assessment, quantitative methods, which also measure learning, can provide additional insight into the DEAL model.

Formal formative assessment. Courses can embed formal formative assessment with clear protocols at decisive points in a semester, rather than relying on informal observations and student questions for assessment and feedback. This process has three phases: "(1) planning, designing, and developing the embedded assessments, (2) piloting the embedded assessments, and (3) refining the embedded assessments" *(Ayala et al., 2008, p. 317)*. Feedback is without question an indispensable component for the application of formative assessment in the service-learning course and as an assessment concept has evolved over the years. In the 1970s, feedback was defined as "any of the numerous procedures that are used to tell a learner if an instructional response is right or wrong" *(Kulhavy, 1977, p. 211)*. However, feedback is more complex than simply classifying student responses as right or wrong. "Feedback should help the student[s] understand more about the learning goal, more about their own achievement status in relation to that goal, and more about ways to bridge the gap between their current status and the desired status" *(Sadler, 2010, p. 536)*. A teacher provides constructive feedback by communicating to the student an analysis of the student's response in a timely and efficient manner, with or without a rating/grade.

Summative Assessment

Summative assessments, traditionally generated at the end of the service-learning activity or at the end of the semester, sum up how students achieved assigned tasks and goals. These assessments are typically graded and used to evaluate the students' learning outcomes and achievements and for accreditation. Aggregated results of student work are used to evaluate school effectiveness and set goals or targets for the long term in some school systems *(Harlen, 2009)*. Four areas of interest that can emerge in summative assessment are assessment validity, assessment reliability, a positive impact on teaching and learning, and effective use of resources (e.g., time, cost). Assessment validity means that the summative assessment in fact is consistent with the learning objectives and outcomes and that it measures what it is supposed to measure for a specific purpose. The accuracy of the assessment outcomes determines its assessment reliability and signifies how well the instructor controlled assessment conditions and considered fairness when constructing a test or assessment of a given length or level of difficulty. Whether testing has an overall positive impact on teaching and learning is debatable, since research has uncovered some negative impacts:

- test performance can become more highly valued than what is being learned;
- testing can reduce the self-esteem of lower achieving pupils and can make it harder to convince them that they can succeed in other tasks;

- constant failure in practice tests demoralizes some pupils and increases the gap between higher and lower achieving pupils;
- test anxiety affects girls more than boys; and
- teaching methods may be restricted to what is necessary for passing tests (e.g. neglect of practical work; *Assessment Reform Group, 2006, p. 8)*.

Finally, the practicability of summative assessment is difficult to estimate, since both direct and indirect costs are involved *(Harlen, 2009)*.

Summative and formative assessments are not mutually exclusive and overlap in concept and practice. Summative assessment can be used to improve a student's time management by periodically having parts of a project due and graded throughout the semester, rather than the student waiting until the end of the semester to complete a project. Summative assessment characteristically incorporates concepts from formative assessment such as verbal or written feedback, peer assessment, or writing journal/reflection papers at regular intervals throughout the semester *(Trotter, 2006)*. "Formative assessment justifies summative assessment, clarifies how the parameters have been addressed, and what needs to be done" *(Taras, 2005, p. 470)*. This leads to a discussion of the delineation of summative assessment through the examination of the difference between formal summative assessments and informal summative assessments.

Informal summative assessment. Summative assessments are graded or ranked assessments; therefore, most summative assessments are formal and measure the student's progress at a given point in the semester using some type of protocol. Informal summative assessments are used less frequently than formal summative assessments. Formative assessments, such as journal writing and focus groups, can be utilized as informal summative assessments when the instructor attaches grades and due dates (see Table 1 for examples). Class activities that include both points toward a student's grade and in-class performance-based evaluation can serve as informal summative assessments.

Formal summative assessment. Many assessment tools are available for formal summative assessments, since these kinds of assessment can accumulate and may count toward the student's grade as a record of his or her progress. Formal student summative assessment tools include exams, quizzes, final reports or projects, surveys, and structured midterm reports. On a broader scale within service-learning, self-reporting instruments are available for instructors to assess the student's view of service-learning or the student's or university's relationship with the community partner, such as those in Gelmon et al.'s *(2001)Assessing Service-Learning and Civic Engagement: Principles and Techniques*, Shumer's *(2003)* Self-assessment for Service-Learning, and Furco's "Evaluation System for Experiential Education" *(1997)*.

Reeb and Folger *(2013)* stress a need for "well-validated measures in service-learning research" *(p. 402)*, and using a wide variety of assessment tools for this purpose. Bringle, Hatcher, and Williams *(2011)*

> posit that a quantitative approach to research on ISL [international service learning] will yield fruitful results that can guide program design, improve practice, test theory, contribute to a knowledge base, and provide a basis for funding and support for program expansion. *(p. 275)*

Although surveys are not the only quantitative method for gathering data, surveys are widely used to collect quantitative data, gathering detailed information about respondents' demographics, knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs. A survey is an "empirical study that uses questionnaires or interviews to discover descriptive characteristics of phenomena" *(Reinard, 2001, p. 225)* which can yield fruitful results. Surveys used in service-learning are generally self-administered and can easily be administered online. Fink *(2009)* lists three reasons for conducting surveys: (1) setting policy or planning a program, (2) evaluating the effectiveness of programs, and (3) obtaining information to guide studies and programs. Surveys' strengths include the following: possible low financial cost to administer, good population coverage, convenience, and results that are precise if questions are well written. Some weaknesses of surveys include potential high financial cost for surveys if administered by phone or in person, inflexible design, lack of data due to lack of cooperation of participants (i.e., potential for nonresponse bias), artificiality of the respondents' answers, and potential self-reporting bias of respondents.

Gelmon et al.'s Assessment Approaches

As noted earlier, Gelmon et al.'s *(2001)* work on assessment provides a comprehensive approach to assessment of service-learning.

As part of this broader work, they developed an assessment matrix for students, faculty, and community partners.

Assessment matrix for student surveys. Gelmon et al.'s *(2001)* assessment matrix for student surveys consists of three broad categories. The first category, "affective student outcomes," *(p. 23)* based on Astin's *(1993)* work, is concerned with students' psychological changes regarding service-learning and has four component concepts. (1) The awareness of community concept determines students' awareness of community concerns. (2) The involvement with community concept explains the quantity and quality of interactions between students and community partners. (3) The commitment to service concept considers students' attitude toward service and possibility of future service. (4) The sensitivity to diversity concept measures students' attitudes toward work with individuals from unfamiliar or new communities. These four concepts broadly measure a student's affective attitude toward learning about the specific community and the service opportunity.

The second broad category measures "impact on students' cognitive development" *(Gelmon et al., 2001, p. 23)* and has three component concepts: (1) The career development concept examines professional skills gained through the project or awareness of employment opportunities or career interests. (2) The understanding course content concept explores students' ability to connect course goals with the service project or experience. (3) The communication concept studies development of community skills or understanding of the role of communication in community-based projects. The importance of cognitive development highlighted in these three categories connects directly to the mission and goals of institutions of higher learning *(Eyler, 2000)*. These three concepts broadly measure students' perception of their own cognitive learning.

The third broad category is concerned with "students' understanding of themselves as part of a learning community" *(Gelmon et al., 2001, p. 23)* and has three component concepts. (1) The self-awareness concept examines students' recognition/awareness of their strengths and weaknesses when engaging with the community. (2) The sense of ownership concept considers students' autonomy and sense of responsibility when working with the community partner. (3) The valuing of multiple teachers concept describes students' awareness that both community partner and peers may occupy the teaching role along with the instructor. These three concepts broadly measure students' own sense of impact and contributions to the community, project, and class.

Assessment matrix for faculty surveys. Gelmon et al. *(2001)* present seven core concepts for faculty assessment to assess "both the influence of faculty on service-learning and the impact of service-learning on faculty" *(p. 47).* (1) The motivation and attraction of faculty to service-learning concept explores why faculty use service-learning and find it satisfying, which in turn helps faculty recruitment and sustained involvement in service-learning endeavors. (2) The professional development concept addresses the faculty needs for service-learning, including institutional support of their efforts. (3) The impact/influence on teaching concept assesses how service-learning pedagogy can enhance and impact an instructor's efforts to increase student engagement within the community. (4) The impact/influence on scholarship concept reflects that although service-learning typically increases faculty time spent on course preparation, it can also offer new venues of scholarship. (5) The other personal/professional impact concept (e.g., increased faculty volunteerism, mentoring of students) examines an instructor's impact in novel roles within the campus, community, and classroom. (6) The barriers and facilitators concept (e.g., obstacles, workload) identifies facilitators that can ease the instructor's service-learning workload and barriers to needed support. (7) The satisfaction with service-learning experience concept explores ideas such as how instructors who use service-learning provide students with outcomes of community work commitment, new joys of learning, and innovative insights in their prospective careers. These seven concepts assess faculty's own sense of impact on the community, institution, and class.

Assessment matrix for community partner surveys. Gelmon et al. *(2001)* offer two broad, assets-based categories to assess community partners. The first category examines benefits for the community partner and includes three component concepts. (1) The capacity to fulfill organizational mission concept (e.g., types of services presented, number of clients provided for) explores how service-learning could positively affect organizational capacity and strategies. (2) The economic benefits concept (e.g., recruit staff, identify new funding) examines economic benefits or burdens that organizations might experience from participating in service-learning courses. (3) The social benefits concept (e.g., increase volunteer numbers, gain volunteers beyond semester project) assesses the impact that service-learning and the use of students for an activity or project could have on community issues, new connections, and other social benefits. These three concepts reflect how the service-learning project or activity shapes the community partner's organization.

The second broad category examines the community partner–university relationship framework and includes four component concepts. (1) The nature of the community–university relationship concept explores the nature of how the partnership was established. (2) The nature of community–university interaction concept (e.g., faculty member volunteering at community organization, partner helping with planning project in the classroom) investigates interactions between community partners and the university such as community partners acting as co-educators in the classroom or university representatives meeting with the community partner in some capacity. (3) The satisfaction with partnership concept is essential for both sides of the relationship and assesses how mutual effort in the service-learning project or activity is perceived. (4) The sustainability of partnership concept (e.g., key events, time constraints, meeting goals) addresses the desire for ways to continue a successful relationship between the university and community partner. These four concepts are integral to gaining a clear understanding of the community impact on the university–community partner relationship.

The present study investigated Campus Compact member online surveys that assess the service-learning experience from perspectives of students, faculty, and the community partners. When analyzing these online surveys, the researchers asked the following questions:

> Research Question 1: What student constructs from Gelmon et al.'s *(2001)* matrix for service-learning are being surveyed most frequently by Campus Compact members? Are there additional student constructs that extend Gelmon et al.'s assessment matrix?
>
> Research Question 2: What student constructs from Gelmon et al.'s matrix for service-learning are being surveyed least frequently or not at all by Campus Compact members?
>
> Research Question 3: What faculty constructs from Gelmon et al.'s matrix for service-learning are being surveyed most frequently by Campus Compact members? Are there additional faculty constructs that extend Gelmon et al.'s assessment matrix?

> Research Question 4: What faculty constructs from Gelmon et al.'s matrix for service-learning are being surveyed least frequently or not at all by Campus Compact members?
>
> Research Question 5: What community partner constructs from Gelmon et al.'s matrix for service-learning are being surveyed most frequently by Campus Compact members? Are there additional community partner constructs that extend Gelmon et al.'s assessment matrix?
>
> Research Question 6: What community partner constructs from Gelmon et al.'s matrix for service-learning are being surveyed least frequently or not at all by Campus Compact members?

Method

Sample and Procedure

This study presents three comprehensive models of survey questions derived from available online Campus Compact members' survey tools that could help to assess service-learning and its constituents: Student, faculty, and community partner. To address the research questions, the authors collected all available online surveys of Campus Compact members. This sample totaled 174 surveys collected from 121 institutions of higher learning. The researchers downloaded all available online Campus Compact member surveys, dividing them into student, faculty, and community partner surveys according to respondent, and examined the surveys to determine what constructs were surveyed most and least frequently by Campus Compact members. In addition, the researchers explored what constructs could be added to surveys to begin building a systematic service-learning assessment framework for use by universities as a holistic model.

The 174 surveys analyzed in this study were harvested by clicking into all of the Campus Compact members' websites listed under "All Members" *(Campus Compact, 2012)*, and then searching for service-learning survey tools from each school's website. For example, in the "All Members" list, a research assistant could click on the link for Boise State University. Once at the university homepage, the research assistant could type service-learning or a similar search term in the search box to ascertain whether Boise

State University provides online survey tools for instructors. After landing on the service-learning home page, a researcher could then click on "forms" and find a form titled "Supervisor Evaluation of Student," a survey tool used for a community partner to evaluate a student. The surveys were qualitatively coded to create three models of assessment that can be used by instructors or institutions: student, faculty, and community partner.

The research assistant created extensive pages of data that included links to the Campus Compact member sites, then downloaded all available survey tools, scanned the documents, and sorted them by state in a database. One of the researchers double-checked the research assistant's work on the data for accuracy every week for two semesters. Specifically, the research assistant visited the national Campus Compact website (www.compact.org) and found the alphabetical list of links for all college and university Campus Compact members. After landing on the linked page for the college or university, the research assistant looked for a search bar to navigate the website, using search terms such as "service-learning," "community," "civic," and/or "engagement." Once the service-learning or community engagement page was found, the research assistant explored the page for terms such as "forms," "resources," or "program models." The research assistant recorded information from each website, including the name of the college or university, the URL, and contact information. Then the research assistant sorted the information into one of four categories as follows: (1) "no service-learning information"—meaning no portion of the school's website was dedicated to a service-learning program/department (n = 288, 25.1%); (2) "no online assessment"—meaning a portion of the school's website was dedicated to its service-learning program/department, but no online assessment tools were listed (n = 717, 62.6%); (3) "online assessment"—meaning one or more types of assessment surveys were available online and could be downloaded (n = 121, 10.6%); and (4) "website down"—meaning the Campus Compact member's website was unavailable (n = 19, 1.7%). Service-learning departments/programs have many different names from website to website: for example, community-based learning, center for community engagement, civic engagement, experiential learning, service-learning, center for community learning, office of service-learning and community action, and center for community involvement. The survey tools that were found on the websites included three types differentiated by respondent: student assessment of the service-learning program and/or community partner, community partner assessment of the service-learning program and/or student, and instructor assessment of the service-learning program.

Data Analysis

Subsequently, the downloaded surveys were sorted according to survey respondent (student, faculty member, or community partner) and then into formative and summative surveys within each respondent grouping. The data were sorted into six groups: (1) student formative surveys, (2) student summative surveys, (3) faculty formative surveys, (4) faculty summative surveys, (5) community partner formative surveys, and (6) community partner summative surveys. Then a research assistant conducted an initial coding to group together similar questions into types of questions: closed questions, open-ended questions, or both closed and open-ended questions (see Table 2). For example, summative student surveys from 13 different institutions included an open-ended question that asked, "Explain how this service-learning project met or exceeded your goals and objectives." Eight of the 13 surveys used this exact wording, and the remaining five had variations such as "Explain how this project met your goals for the course" and "How did this project meet your objectives?"

Table 2. Question Themes by Respondent, Type of Assessment, and Kind of Question

Survey Variables	Student	Faculty	Community Partner
Formative assessment			
Open questions	2	6	0
Closed questions	6	0	3
Both open and closed	0	0	3
Total Formative	8	6	6
Summative assessment			
Open questions	23	11	3
Closed questions	39	9	37
Both open and closed	11	5	16
Total summative	73	25	56

Note. N = 174.

This initial sorting process was supervised and double-checked for accuracy, followed by verification of the types of questions and thematic coding of the question types. Existing research on service-learning assessment guided the qualitative coding process in this study. The general theoretical concepts from chosen topic-oriented codes informed the perspective of the researchers, yet permitted recognition of emerging categories from the text *(Kelle, 2004)*. "A heuristic coding scheme for the structuring of qualitative data may contain both general theoretical concepts drawn from grand theories and topic-oriented codes draw from stocks of everyday knowledge" *(Kelle, 2004, p. 450)*. For the purposes of this study, knowledge regarding assessment was drawn from Gelmon et al. *(2001)*, the primary text published by Campus Compact on assessment of service-learning and civic engagement. Categories used in Gelmon et al. served as a starting place for analysis, and then the qualitative coding process allowed emergent categories to be derived from the data beyond these specific categories. This particular approach to qualitative coding allows the researcher to engage in theoretical integration of existing theory rather than a grounded theory approach *(Corbin & Strauss, 2008).*

Initial coding categories for student surveys. Gelmon et al.'s *(2001)* assessment matrix for student surveys consists of three broad categories. The first category, "affective student outcomes," based on Astin's *(1993)* work, is concerned with students' psychological changes regarding service-learning and has four concepts: (1) awareness of community, (2) involvement with community, (3) commitment to service, and (4) sensitivity to diversity. The second broad category measures "impact on students' cognitive development" *(p. 23)* and has three concepts: (1) career development, (2) understanding course content, and (3) communication. The third broad category is concerned with the "students' understanding of themselves as part of a learning community" *(p. 23)* and has three concepts: (1) students' self-awareness, (2) sense of ownership, and (3) valuing of multiple teachers.

Initial coding categories for faculty surveys. Gelmon et al. *(2001)* present seven concepts for faculty assessment: (1) motivation and attraction of faculty to service-learning, (2) professional development, (3) impact/influence on teaching, (4) impact/influence on scholarship, (5) other personal/professional impact (e.g., increased faculty volunteerism, mentoring of students), (6) barriers and facilitators (e.g., obstacles, workload), and (7) satisfaction with service-learning experience.

Initial coding for community partner surveys. Gelmon et al. *(2001)* propose two categories to assess community partners. The first category examines service-learning's benefits to the community partner and includes: (1) capacity to fulfill organization's mission, (2) economic benefits (e.g., recruit staff, identify new funding), and (3) social benefits (e.g., increase volunteer numbers, gain volunteers beyond semester project). The second category is the community partner–university relationship that outlines: (1) the nature of the community-university relationship, (2) the nature of the interaction between community and university partners, (3) the general satisfaction with the partnership, and (4) sustainability of the partnership.

Cohen's kappa was computed to establish intercoder reliability, correcting for chance agreement. One coder coded the entire data set using the thematic categories and identified new themes based on data that did not fit into Gelmon et al.'s *(2003)*existing themes. Once the additional themes were established and clearly defined, a second coder then coded the entire student formative (*n*= 8), faculty formative (*n* = 6), faculty summative (*n*= 25), and community partner surveys (*n* = 6) for 100% overlap between coders. The second coder also coded 20 of the student summative surveys (*n* = 73) for a 27.4% overlap and 19 of the community partner summative surveys (*n* = 56) for a 33.9% overlap. Intercoder reliability of all categories for all survey types reached acceptable levels *(Cohen, 1960, 1968).* Table 3 shows values for Cohen's kappa by survey type and theme.

Table 3. Reliability Estimates by Respondent, Type of Assessment, and Kind of Question

Respondent/Question Type	Theme	Number of Questions	Cohen's Kappa
Student			
Formative open-ended	Self-awareness	2	1.00
Formative closed	Commitment to service	1	1.00
	Career development	1	1.00
	Understanding course content	1	1.00
	Understanding course details	1	1.00
Summative open-ended	Commitment to service	2	1.00
	Career development	1	1.00
	Understanding course content	1	0.77
	Self-awareness	4	0.91

Summative closed	Awareness of community	1	1.00
	Community involvement	1	1.00
	Commitment to service	1	1.00
	Leadership*	1	0.88
	Understanding course content	1	1.00
	Understanding course details*	2	0.86
	Understanding service learning method	1	1.00
	Benefit to community partner	1	1.00
	Resources	1	1.00
Faculty			
Formative open-ended	Course/project description*	3	1.00
Summative open-ended	Impact/influence on teaching	2	0.88
	Impact/influence on community partner*	1	1.00
	Satisfaction with service-learning experience	2	0.94
	Course/project description	1	1.00
Summative closed	Impact/influence on teaching	1	0.92
	Impact/influence on community partner	1	0.91
	Other personal-professional impact	1	0.87
Community Partner			
Formative open-ended	Nature of community-university partnership	4	1.00
Formative closed	Nature of community-university partnership	3	1.00
Summative open-ended	Capacity to fulfill organizational mission	1	1.00
	Nature of community-university partnership	2	0.87
	Nature of the community-partner interaction	3	1.00
	Satisfaction with partnership	1	1.00
Summative closed	Capacity to fulfill organizational mission	1	1.00
	Nature of community-university partnership	2	1.00
	Nature of community-university interaction	3	1.00
	Sustainability of partnership	1	1.00

Note. * Unique concepts/categories added to Gelmon et al. (2001) concepts/categories. There were no faculty formative closed questions.*

Results

The results were grouped according to the following schema. First, students, faculty, and community partners each had their own section of questions as identified on the accompanying tables. Second, questions were bifurcated into formative and summative questions, and subsequently into open-ended and closed questions for each constituent. Categories of questions according to Gelmon et al. *(2001)* specifically for the student constituent are located after the colon in each entry in row 1 of Table 4. These student categories grouped questions as they related to the learning community category, affective outcomes category, or cognitive development category. Question concepts were derived from Gelmon et al. with six unique concepts emerging in this research: (1) leadership, (2) understanding course details, (3) understanding the service-learning instructional method, (4) course/project description, (5) impact/influence on the community partner, and (6) commitment to service-learning. Finally, the column "Schools with similar responses" addressed whether questions were used frequently or seldomly within Campus Compact member surveys.

Student Surveys Analysis

> Research Question 1: What student constructs in service-learning courses are being surveyed most frequently by Campus Compact members? Are there unique student constructs?

Seventy-three Campus Compact members used summative open-ended and closed questions for student surveys most frequently, and eight university service-learning programs used online formative assessment survey questions for students. For example, 28 school surveys asked the student these summative open-ended questions: "Do you feel a greater sense of responsibility to the community because of this experience?" (i.e., affective outcome category) and "Were you able to understand the connection between the service-learning project and your course subjects?" (i.e., cognitive development category). Three unique student concepts emerged: (1) understanding course details, (2) leadership, and (3) understanding service-learning as an instructional method. See Table 4.

Table 4. Formative and Summative Student Questions by Question Concept

Concept: Category	Question	Schools with Similar Responses
Formative Open-Ended Self-awareness/ Part of learning community	What are your significant accomplishments or successes of the past month/week?	2
	What were the challenges of the past month/week?	2
Total Formative Open-Ended		4
Formative Closed		
Commitment to service: Affective outcome	Do you feel it is important to give back and work to help your community?	3
Career development: Cognitive development	Will service in the community help you to choose a future career path?	3
Understanding course content: Cognitive development	Did you see the connection between the service-learning project and the course?	3
Understanding course details*. Cognitive development	Do you clearly understand your goals and objectives and/or responsibilities?*	3
Total Formative Closed		12
Summative Open-Ended		
Commitment to service: Affective outcome	What are your recommendations for using this project in the future?	17
	How do you define service-learning? What are your expectations of service-learning?	5
Career development: Cognitive development	What were the specific tasks and skills acquired as part of this project?	15
Understanding course content: Cognitive development	How was this experience connected to your classroom topics and knowledge?	14
Self-awareness: Part of learning community	Explain how this service-learning project met or exceeded your goals and objectives.	13
	What were the challenges of this project?	14
	What were the successes of this project?	12
Total Summative Open-Ended		107
Summative Closed		
Awareness of Community: Affective outcome	Do you feel a greater sense of responsibility to the community because of this experience?	28
Community involvement: Affective outcome	Have you ever volunteered before this course?	9

Concept: Category	Question	Schools with Similar Responses
Leadership*: Cognitive development	Did this service-learning course help you to develop your personal leadership skills?*	10
Understanding course content: Cognitive development	Were you able to understand the connection between the service-learning project and your course subjects?	28
Understanding course details*: Cognitive development	How many hours did you serve/work?*	12
Understanding service-learning instructional method*: Cognitive development	Do you have a clear understanding of service-learning?*	11
Community Involvement: Affective outcome	Do you feel that the work that you did as part of this project benefitted the community?	20
	Did your agency provide you with the support you needed?	21
Total Summative Closed		161

*Note.*Unique category/concept added to Gelmon et al.'s (2001) categories/concepts. There were no faculty formative closed questions.*

> Research Question 2: What student constructs in service-learning courses are being surveyed least frequently or not at all by Campus Compact members?

Campus Compact members used formative open-ended and closed questions for student surveys least frequently. For example, only two school surveys asked the student these questions: "What are your significant accomplishments or successes of the past month/week?" (part of learning community) and "What were the challenges of the past month/week?" (part of learning community). Several concepts in Gelmon et al.'s *(2001)* assessment guide were not found in the coding of student surveys, such as "sensitivity to diversity," "sense of ownership," "communication," and "valuing of pedagogy of multiple teachers."

Faculty Surveys Analysis

> Research Question 3: What faculty constructs in service-learning courses are being surveyed most frequently by Campus Compact members? Are there unique faculty constructs?

Twenty-five Campus Compact members used summative closed questions for faculty surveys most frequently, and six universities used online formative assessment survey questions for faculty. For example, 12 school surveys asked the faculty this summative closed question: "Will you continue to use service-learning as part of your course?" Eleven school surveys asked the faculty "Did service-learning enhance the course?" Three unique faculty concepts emerged: (1) course project/description, (2) influence or impact on community partner, and (3) commitment to service-learning. No closed questions were found for faculty formative assessments. See Table 5.

Table 5. Formative and Summative Faculty Questions by Question Concept

Question Concept	Question	Schools with Similar Responses
Formative Open-Ended		
Course project description	Describe how your course is structured.*	2
	What are the goals and objectives of your course?*	5
	How will the service-learning portion of the course relate to course objectives?*	2
Total Formative Open-Ended		9
Summative Open-Ended Impact/influence on teaching	Explain any changes you plan to make to future service-learning projects in your course.	0
	In what ways did service-learning enhance the course content?	6
Community partner impact/influence	How did your students contribute to your partner organization's goals?*	4
Satisfaction with service-learning experience	What were the successes of the project?	4
	What were the challenges of the project?	7
Course/project description*	Explain how the project met your goals and objectives*	7
Total Summative Open-Ended		32
Summative Closed		
Impact/influence on teaching	Did service-learning enhance the course?	11

Question Concept	Question	Schools with Similar Responses
Community partner impact/influence*	Was the service-learning component of your course a service to the community?	7
Other personal/professional impact	Would you recommend other instructors incorporate service-learning into their course?	4
Commitment to service-learning*	Will you continue to use service-learning as part of your course?	12
Total Summative Closed		24

*Note.*Unique category/concept added to Gelmon et al.'s (2001) categories/concepts. No formative closed questions were found.*

> Research Question 4: What faculty constructs in service-learning courses are being surveyed least frequently or not at all by Campus Compact members?

Campus Compact members used formative open-ended questions for faculty surveys least frequently. For example, only two school surveys asked the faculty these questions: "Describe how your course is structured" and "How will the service-learning portion of the course relate to course objectives?" Several of the concepts in Gelmon et al.'s *(2001)* assessment guide were not found in the coding of the faculty surveys, such as "motivation and attraction of faculty to service-learning," "professional development," "impact/influence on scholarship," and "barriers and facilitators."

Community Partner Surveys Analysis

> Research Question 5: What community partner constructs in service-learning courses are being surveyed most frequently by Campus Compact members? Are there unique community partner constructs?

Fifty-six Campus Compact members used summative questions for community partner surveys most frequently. For example, nine school surveys asked the community partner "What contributions did the students make to your organization?" Seven school surveys asked the community partner "What challenges did you and the students face as part of this project?" No unique community partner concepts emerged. See Table 6.

Table 6. Formative and Summative Community Partner Questions by Question Category

Question Concept	Question	Schools with Similar Responses
Formative Open-Ended Nature of community-university partnership	Explain project that our students are working on.	1
	What are the current challenges?	1
	What are the successes?	1
	What are your recommendations for improving the student service-learning experience?	1
Total Formative Open-Ended		4
Formative Closed		3
Nature of community-university partnership	Are you satisfied with the student contributions?	
	Have the students established a relationship with your organization and community that you serve?	2
	Is the student on time and dependable?	4
Total Formative Closed		9
Summative Open-Ended Capacity to fulfill organizational mission	What were your organization's goals and objectives in working with our service-learning students?	3
Nature of community-university partnership	What challenges did you and the students face as part of this project?	7
	What contributions did the students make to your organization?	9
Nature of community-university interaction	What were the students' duties with your organization?	2
Satisfaction with partnership	What benefits do you think our students received by working with your organization?	8
Total Summative Open-Ended		29
Summative Closed		
Capacity to fulfill organizational mission	Were the students able to achieve the goals and objectives that you anticipated to meet your community's needs?	12
Nature of community-university partnership	Were the students prepared for the work they did with your program?	10
	Did the student(s) demonstrate an understanding of your organization's mission?	11

Question Concept	Question	Schools with Similar Responses
Nature of community-university interaction	Were the students reliable and punctual?	32
	Did the students follow directions and show genuine effort?	26
	Did the students use appropriate communication skills?	14
Sustainability of partnership	Are you interested in working with service-learning students in the future?	11
Total Summative Closed		116

> Research Question 6: What community partner constructs in service-learning courses are being surveyed least frequently or not at all by Campus Compact members?

Campus Compact members used formative open-ended questions for community partner surveys least frequently. For example, only one school survey asked the community partner "What are the current challenges?" Only one school survey asked the community partner "What are your recommendations for improving the student service-learning experience?" No unique concepts or categories were found in the community partner data. Two concepts from Gelmon et al.'s *(2001)* assessment guide were not found in the coding of the community partner surveys: "economic benefits" and "social benefits."

Discussion

The results of this study indicate that 121 Campus Compact member universities and colleges assess students, faculty, and community partners similarly, but not comprehensively. In many question categories only a few schools had similar questions, especially in the student formative question category, the faculty formative and summative open-ended question categories, and the community partner formative and summative open-ended question categories. The results illustrate that summative questions were preferred over formative questions on the surveys for all three constituents: student, faculty, and community partner. In addition, the analyzed surveys overlooked several themes from Gelmon et al. *(2001)*, including the following for the students: sensitivity to diversity, sense of ownership, communication, valuing of multiple teachers; for the instructors: motivation and attraction of faculty to service-learning, professional development, impact/influence on scholarship, barriers and facilitators; and for the community partners: economic benefits and social benefits. In addition, six unique concepts emerged: (1) leadership, (2) understanding course details, (3) understanding the service-learning instructional method, (4) course/project description, (5) impact/influence on the community partner, and (6) commitment to service-learning.

Unique Concepts

Leadership emerged as a unique concept, with one summative open-ended question asking if the student developed personal leadership skills, and *understanding course details* was a unique concept, with two summative open-ended questions about the student's total hours of work and whether the tasks and assignments were clear. *Understanding course details* was also found in the formative assessment survey questions for students section, with one question asking if the student clearly understands his or her goals, objectives, and responsibilities. A unique concept, *understanding service-learning as an instructional method,* was added to describe questions that ask students whether they have a clear understanding of what service-learning entails. This unique concept was grouped under the cognitive development category that Gelmon et al. *(2001)* established.

For faculty, three formative open-ended questions were coded under the unique concept *course/project description* that asked how the course was structured, how service-learning related to the course objectives, and how goals and objectives related to the course. One question was coded under the unique concept *impact/influence on community partner*, asking if faculty felt that their course was a service to the community. Finally, one question was coded under the unique concept *commitment to service-learning,* asking faculty if they would continue using service-learning as part of the course.

Formative Questions for Assessment

It became evident that Campus Compact members who had assessment tools available online were not using questions for formative assessment as frequently as questions for summative assessment. Nevertheless, this could be explained from the viewpoint that formative assessment is used within particular classroom contexts as a reflection exercise, whereas summative assessment is typically used more as a campus-wide survey or at the end of the semester for community partners. Formative assessment could be described as assessment *for* learning, whereas summative assessment could be described as assessment *of* learning. Formative assessment allows the student to participate in constructing knowledge and engages the student as an active learner throughout the semester through feedback mechanisms such as dialogue and participation *(McDowell, 2012)*. This valuable type of assessment asks for feedback from students, and that feedback allows the instructor to adjust teaching methods during the semester. In response to the amended teaching methods, the students adjust their learning approach. Since formative assessment occurs throughout the semester, formative assessment measures have a function similar to that intended for *reflection* in service-learning.

> While reflection, "the intentional consideration of experience in light of particular learning objectives" *(Hatcher & Bringle, 1997, p. 153)*, is one of the most important principles of good practice in the literature *(Honnet & Poulsen, 1989)*, there is reason to believe that reflection gets rather short shrift in typical service-learning experiences. *(Eyler, 2002, p. 518)*

This study reflects the short shrift that use of reflection receives in service-learning, since formative questions found online were few. Yet students must use structured continuous reflection or "reflective judgment" to attain the high levels of cognitive development necessary for understanding and managing social issues *(Eyler, 2002)*. The formative questions found in the tables can be used for intentional structured reflection, encouraging cognitive development. Instructors can integrate and guide reflection (i.e., formative assessment) throughout the semester, so that a student carefully considers knowledge and/or beliefs and how to support knowledge or beliefs, along with results of those beliefs or knowledge *(Dewey, 1933)*. At the completion of the project, reflection is vital: reflecting on the project, perhaps professionally presenting the project to the community partner, and afterward summatively assessing the experience. The DEAL model *(Ash & Clayton, 2009)*, created for reflection, includes prompting questions that can be used to guide students to critically reflect on academic enhancement, personal growth, and civic engagement. For example, the DEAL model has prompts for the student's personal growth, such as: "What did I learn?, "How did I learn it?," "Why does it matter?"

and "What will I do in light of it?" The model has proved to be a rigorous tool for assessing reflective learning *(Molee, Henry, Sessa, & McKinney-Prupis, 2010)*. Thus far, reflection is used rather sparsely in comparison to summative assessment and assessing reflection is difficult to accomplish *(Molee et al., 2010)*.

In the survey tables, formative questions were bifurcated into open-ended and closed questions. Formative *open-ended* questions are qualitative in nature, and their purpose is to interpret social interactions in order to understand the relationship more deeply. The respondent is invited to answer formative open-ended questions with a unique response. The formative *closed* questions are quantitative in nature and their purpose is explaining, predicting, and generalizing about the population under study.

Summative Questions for Assessment

Summative and formative assessment could be considered interdependent and not necessarily discrete categories *(Taras, 2010).* Taras argues:

> Summative assessment must come first: it is necessary to assess the quality of the work before feedback can be given for the learner to use. Feedback cannot come from thin air: examining the work with implicit or explicit criteria and standards will result in judgments. What differentiates summative and formative assessment is that the latter is used by the learner to update and improve the work (or, at the minimum, to understand what would need to be done and how). *(p. 127)*

Nevertheless, for this study, summative assessment is primarily used to judge learning and frequently had high-stakes consequences, while formative assessment was primarily used to improve learning *(Crisp, 2012)*. Formative assessment always requires feedback, whereas summative assessment does not *(Taras, 2010)*. For survey construction, whether to use open-ended, closed questions, or both is a matter of preference rather than privileging one type of question over the other *(Andres, 2012)*. A variety of questions, both closed and open-ended, contributes a mixed-methods approach to the research. Open-ended questions, qualitative in nature, which allow a respondent to provide answers in his or her own words, have advantages such as allowing the respondent to develop a topic from the survey, bring up a new issue, or address a sensitive topic *(Andres, 2012)*. Closed dichotomous questions are advantageous because they are simple and specific and can be tailored to be followed by an open-ended response factor such as "Please use the space below to explain your answer" *(p. 71).* Unordered response categories, ordered response categories, and rating scales are other types of response categories to consider. All the types of questions with response categories are closed questions, quantitative in nature, which can lead to generalizability in results.

Limitations. While these surveys were posted online, the researchers did not know how many students, faculty, or community partners were assessed with each measure. Additionally, the researchers did not have data regarding the specific validity or reliability of any of the surveys examined. Thus, concepts coded in this study are representative of the posted campus compact surveys, but have not been validated. Another limitation is what is posted on a university website at a particular point in time is not necessarily a reliable indicator of whether or not the university has a survey available. Some surveys were only available by use of a password, so this study could not include those surveys. Finally, using only Campus Compact institutions' surveys is limiting, since there are many more institutions that use service-learning than Campus Compact members.

Future research. The database of institutional assessment was not used for this research because it is presently being analyzed for a future study. This institutional assessment data was collected simultaneously with the community partner, student, and faculty assessment data. The future research of this assessment data will address specifically how universities are using their online assessment instruments toward institutionalization and whether this is mediated by institutional variables such as institutional type (e.g., community college, graduate research institution). Moreover, each of the other three constituents—student, faculty, and community partner—will be researched separately, examining current assessment studies about each constituent. Assessment tools obtained from these studies could be used to create aggregate assessment survey tools for assessing a student's learning outcomes, helping with a university's accreditation purposes, evaluating outcomes of service-learning courses on campus, and evaluating the service-learning relationship between the community partner, institution, student, and faculty. A future study could address how the 121 institutions used the survey tools; for example, whether the surveys were administered by a service-learning office or by faculty in their classes. Another study could mine the list of Carnegie Foundation community-engaged institutions' websites for assessment data to answer the following question: Is there a difference in the quantity and kinds of service-learning surveys that an institution provides to its constituents, based on institutional variables of interest (e.g., type of institution, Carnegie community-engagement classification, etc.)?

Conclusion

Suggestions for using unique concepts. All of these unique concepts have merit, and the questions found in the tables accompanying these concepts are available to develop surveys using the unique concepts. Several questions align with the unique concept *understanding course details* (see Table 4), such as "Do you clearly understand your goals and objectives and/or responsibilities?" This formative question could be used for a journal entry, a reflective paper, a class discussion topic, or unstructured interviews by the instructor during the semester (see Table 1). Students' understanding of the community partner's goals and objectives, and/or the responsibilities of the service-learning project, found in the unique concept *understanding course details*, is essential for the engaged activity to proceed efficiently. Leadership skills, as noted in the unique concept *leadership,* are becoming increasingly important for students to obtain. One summative question aligns with this concept: "Did the service-learning course help you to develop your personal leadership skills?," and it could be used at the end of the semester on a survey, a journal entry, an unstructured exit interview, or during a class activity (see Table 1). The third unique concept, *understanding service-learning as an instructional method,* with the question that accompanies it (see Table 4), could be used at the end of the semester for a discussion topic during a class activity. The fourth unique concept, *community partner impact/influence*, with the formative and summative questions that accompany it (see Table 5), highlights the importance of a mutually beneficial relationship between the student and community partner. The fifth unique concept, *course/project description* with three faculty questions that accompany it (see Table 5), assists faculty with cognitively integrating service-learning into a course. The sixth unique concept, *commitment to service-learning*, and the question that accompanies it (see Table 5), helps the institution understand whether the instructor will continue using service-learning in his or her courses. The question that accompanies the unique concept, "Will you continue to use service-learning as part of your course?" could be open-ended by adding, "Please explain" to the end of the question.

Constructing Assessment Surveys

Assessment assists universities in understanding the quality and effectiveness of outcomes; consequently, reliable, high-quality assessments can support universities' continuous investment of resources into service-learning. Higher education institutions are becoming more rigorous in their assessment of service-learning's effects on faculty, students, and community partners. As a result of rigorous assessment of these three constituents, the researchers anticipate the engaged campus becoming a sustainable entity and visibly positioned in the university's mission statement. All of the questions from the tables presented in this research can be used to develop surveys for assessment. The six unique concepts that emerged from the student and faculty assessment data expand and advance assessment options for faculty when assessing students, community partners, and/or themselves. Designing an assessment survey warrants deliberation of the goal of the assessment, recipient of assessment results, supportive resources, implementation of assessment, and how results will be used *(Gelmon et al., 2001).* Assessment contributes to understanding the impact of an educator's service-learning project, communicating service-learning suggestions to others, and recognizing the value and scope of service-learning.

Careful preparation is the key to successful implementation of formative and summative assessments into a service-learning course. Learning objectives and outcomes are thoughtfully constructed in advance of teaching the course and taken into consideration when deciding what formative and summative assessment tools to use. Quality assessment legitimizes both service-learning and community engagement and is a fruitful strategy for improvement and future planning. The service-learning instructor understands that the student is an active, engaged learner, and realizes that assessing the learning process in a service-learning class is time-consuming yet well worth the effort. "Designing research using quantitative designs can contribute to understanding both why particular outcomes occurred and the net impact of the program intervention" *(Bringle, Hatcher, & Williams, 2011, p. 277)*.

References

Andres, L. (2012). *Designing & doing survey research.* Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Ash, S. L., & Clayton, P. H. (2009). Generating, deepening, and documenting learning: The power of critical reflection in applied learning. *Journal of Applied Learning in Higher Education, 1*, 25–48.

Ash, S. L., Clayton, P. H., & Atkinson, M. P. (2005). Integrating reflection and assessment to capture and improve student learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 11*(2), 49–60.

Assessment Reform Group. (2006). *The role of teachers in the assessment of learning.* London, England: Institute of Education, University of London. Retrieved from http://www.assessment-reform-group.org

Astin, A. (1993). *Assessment for excellence.* Phoenix, AZ: Oryx Press.

Astin, A. W., Vogelgesang, L. J., Ikeda, E. K., & Yee, J. A. (2000). *How service-learning affects students: Executive summary.* Los Angeles, CA: Higher Education Research Institute. Retrieved from http://gseis.ucla.edu/heri/PDFs/rhowas.pdf

Ayala, C. C., Shavelson, R. J., Ruiz-Primo, M. A., Brandon, P. R., Yin, Y., Furtak, E. M., . . . Tomita, M. K. (2008). From formal embedded assessment to reflective lessons: The development of formative assessment studies. *Applied Measurement in Education, 21*, 315–334. doi:10.1080/08957340802347787

Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (1998). Assessment and classroom learning. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice, 5*(1), 7–74.

Bringle, R. G., & Hatcher, J. A. (1995). A service-learning curriculum for faculty. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 2*, 112–122.

Bringle, R. G., & Hatcher, J. A. (2000, Fall). Meaningful measurement of theory-based service-learning outcomes: Making the case with quantitative research. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning* [Special issue], 68–75.

Bringle, R. G., Philips, M. A., & Hudson, M. (2004). *The measure of service-learning: Research scales to access student experiences.* Washington, DC: APA.

Bringle, R. G., Hatcher, J. A., & Williams, M. J. (2011). Quantitative approaches to research on international service learning: Design, measurement, and theory. In R. G. Bringle, J. A. Hatcher, & S. G. Jones (Eds.), *International service learning: Conceptual frameworks and research* (pp. 275–290). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.

Campus Compact. (2011a). About us. Retrieved from http://www.compact.org/about/history-mission-vision/

Campus Compact. (2011b). Presidents' statement of principles. Retrieved from http://www.compact.org/about/presidents-statement-of-principles/

Campus Compact. (2012). All members. Retrieved from http://www.compact.org/membership/list-of-members-by-state/list/

Campus Compact. (2013). Bookstore. Retrieved from https://www.e2e-store.com/compact/compact-product.cgi?category_id=2&product_id=131

Cauley, K. M., & McMillan, J. H. (2010). Formative assessment techniques to support student motivation and achievement. *Clearing House, 83*(1), 1–6.

Cohen, J. (1960). A coefficient of agreement of nominal scales. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 20,* 37–46.

Cohen, J. (1968). Weighted kappa: Nominal scale agreement with provision for scaled disagreement of partial credit. *Psychological Bulletin, 70*, 213–220.

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Crisp, G. T. (2012). Integrative assessment: Reframing assessment practice for current and future learning. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 37*(1), 33–43.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think: A restatement of the relation of reflective thinking to the educative process.* Boston, MA: D.C. Heath.

Driscoll, A., Holland, B., Gelmon, S., & Kerrigan, S. (1996). An assessment model for service-learning: Comprehensive case studies of impact on faculty, students, community, and institution. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 3*, 66–71.

Eyler, J. (2000, Fall). What do we most need to know about the impact of service-learning on student learning? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning* [Special issue], 11–17.

Eyler, J. (2002). Reflection: Linking service and learning—linking students and communities. *Journal of Social Issues, 58*(3), 517–534.

Eyler, J. (2011). What international service learning research can learn from research on service learning. In R. G. Bringle, J. A. Hatcher, & S. G. Jones (Eds.), *International service learning: Conceptual frameworks and research* (pp. 225–241). Sterling, VA: Stylus.

Fink, A. (2009). *How to conduct surveys: A step-by-step guide* (4th ed.). London, England: Sage.

Fluckiger, J., Tixier y Vigil, Y., Pasco, R., & Danielson, K. (2010). Formative feedback: Involving students as partners in assessment to enhance learning. *College Teaching, 58*, 136–140. doi:10.1080/87567555.2010.484031

Furco, A. (1997). *Evaluation system for experiential education.* Berkeley, CA: Service-learning Research and Development Center, University of California at Berkeley.

Furco, A., & Billig, S. H. (2002). Establishing norms for scientific inquiry in service-learning. In S. H. Billig & A. Furco (Eds.), *Advances in service-learning research: Vol. 2. Service-learning research through a multidisciplinary lens* (pp. 15–29). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.

Gelmon, S. B., Holland, B. A., Driscoll, A., Spring, A., & Kerrigan, S. (2001). *Assessing service-learning and civic engagement: Principals and techniques.* Providence, RI: Campus Compact, Brown University.

Harlen, W. (2009). Improving assessment of learning and for learning. *Education 3–13, 37*(3), 247–257.

Hatcher, J. A., & Bringle, R. G. (1997). Reflection: Bridging the gap between service and learning. *College Teaching, 45*(4), 153–158.

Honnet, E. P., & Poulsen, S. (1989). *Principles of good practice in combining service and learning* (Wingspread Special Report). Racine, WI: The Johnson Foundation.

Kelle, U. (2004). Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis. In C. Seale, G. Gobo, J. F. Gubrium, & D. Silverman (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice* (pp. 443–459). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Kulhavy, R. W. (1977). Feedback in written instruction. *Review of Educational Research, 47*, 211–232.

McDowell, L. (2012). Assessment for learning. In L. Clouder, C. Broughan, S. Jewell, & G. Steventon (Eds.), *Improving student engagement and development through assessment* (pp. 73–85). London, England: Routledge.

Molee, L. M., Henry, M. E., Sessa, V. I., & McKinney-Prupis, E. R. (2010). Assessing learning in service-learning courses through critical reflection. *Journal of Experiential Education, 33*(3), 239–257.

National Service-Learning Clearinghouse.(2011). *Civic engagement*. Retrieved from http://servicelearning.org/topic/theory-practice/civic-engagement

Popham, W. J. (2005). *Assessment for educational leaders*. Boston: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.

Popham, W. J. (2008). *Transformative assessment*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Reeb, R. N., & Folger, S. F. (2013). Community outcomes of service learning. In P. H. Clayton, R. G. Bringle, & J. A. Hatcher (Eds.), *Research on service learning: Conceptual frameworks and assessment* (pp. 389–418). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.

Reinard, J. C. (2001). *Introduction to communication research* (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.

Sadler, D. R. (2010). Beyond feedback: Developing student capability in complex appraisal. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 35*(5), 535–550.

Shumer, R. (2003). Self-assessment for service-learning. In S. H. Billig & A. S. Waterman (Eds.), *Studying service-learning: Innovations in education research methodology* (pp. 149–171). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Taras, M. (2005). Assessment—summative and formative—some theoretical reflections. *British Journal of Educational Studies, 53*(4), 466–478.

Taras, M. (2008). Summative and formative assessment: Perceptions and realities. *Active Learning in Higher Education, 9*(2), 172–192.

Taras, M. (2010). Back to basics: Definitions and processes of assessments. *Praxis Educativa, Ponta Grossa, 5*(2), 123–130.

Trotter, E. (2006). Student perceptions of continuous summative assessment. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education, 31*(5), 505–521. doi:10.1080/02602930600679506

Waters, S., & Carmichael Burton, E. (2008). Building ethical citizen scholars: Student success in service-learning. In M. A. Bowden, S. H. Billig, & B. A. Holland (Eds.), *Scholarship for sustaining service-learning and community engagement* (pp. 163–183). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.

About the Authors

Susan Waters is an assistant professor in the School of Communication & Journalism at Auburn University. Waters' research and teaching interests focus on social media, service-learning, and ethics. She earned her Ph.D. from the University of Kansas.

Karen Anderson-Lain is an instructor of communication studies at the University of North Texas. Anderson-Lain's research on pedagogy and communication in higher education explores issues related to service-learning and community engagement; assessment; and online and blended learning. She earned her Ph.D. from the University of Kansas.

© *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, Volume 18, Number 1, p. 123, (2014)
 ISSN 1534-6104

Scholarship Perceptions of Academic Department Heads: Implications for Promoting Faculty Community Engagement Scholarship

Patricia Sobrero and K. S. U. Jayaratne

Abstract

After North Carolina State University developed recommendations for departments and faculty to integrate learning, discovery, and engagement through the scholarship of engagement, the issue was raised: "What do department heads think, and how do they support engagement especially during promotion, tenure, and reappointment of engaged faculty?" This study found that 75% of departments say they value community-engagement scholarship when making promotion and tenure decisions, 73% of the departments include standards to reward community-engagement scholarship, and 20% of the departments have no expectations for faculty to be community-engagement scholars. When asked if community engaged participatory research was valued, it ranked between minimally valued and somewhat valued. Department heads reported that they are not likely to promote faculty who publish in peer reviewed community engagement journals. These journals were reported as only somewhat valued.

Introduction

Judith Ramaley *(2000)*, when president at Winona State University, stated:

> Unless the institution as a whole embraces the value as well as the validity of engagement as legitimate scholarly work and provides both moral support and concrete financial resources to sustain this work, engagement will remain individually defined by the interests of committed faculty and sporadic in nature. *(p. 9)*

A year later, in her study of community engagement scholarship in the promotion and tenure process, Baker *(2001)* concluded, "Faculty members are getting mixed messages about the importance of engagement scholarship from department heads that discourage untenured faculty from engagement activity and from higher administrators who are encouraging it as a more balanced approach" *(p. 140)*.

These two quotes set the stage for a dialogue along with interviews with the North Carolina State University (N.C. State) department heads and faculty members and have resulted in this study. Several task force reports at N.C. State from 2009 to 2011 uncovered issues and barriers affecting faculty and staff who practice community engagement scholarship and publish the results in scholarly community engagement journals. Often these faculty members have not received scholarship credit for their work.

Setting the Stage for Study

In 2006 a task force of faculty, staff, administrators, and community volunteers from N.C. State University applied for and was honored to receive the engaged university designation from the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. During the process we discovered that our campus needed to improve evaluation of engagement programs. We wanted to be confident that each engaged program would be able to provide evidence of outcomes for individuals, families, communities, and society as a result of education programs implemented with the community.

The Benchmarking Economic Development Impacts (BEDI) Task Force was formed in 2007, and had developed two more reports over three years. The first report identified ways community engagement can yield demonstrable monetary impact, and the second report included other resulting types of community capital, such as (1) improved infrastructure and built resources, (2) enhanced natural resources, (3) improved quality of life, and (4) human and social empowerment *(North Carolina State University, 2008, 2010a, p.14)*.

During this work with departments and colleges to develop program logic models and evaluation plans, we discovered that tenure track faculty members were reporting problems in gaining recognition for their scholarship of engagement programs. Others were not publishing about their engagement work because they felt departments would not recognize this scholarship. As a result, we decided it was time to study that subject separately.

In 2008 a task force was charged to look at this issue. Integrating Learning, Discovery, and Engagement Through the Scholarship of Engagement *(North Carolina State University, 2010b)* was developed as a report to strengthen the way faculty document community engagement scholarship, to recommend institutional performance indicators for engagement, and to improve reporting and research funding language that included credit for the integration of mission areas in funded grants or contracts. It was discovered that faculty may not always be supported by their department heads to pursue community engagement scholarship or to publish their engagement scholarship outcomes. The complete report may be found under The Scholarship of Engagement: Integrating Learning, Discovery, and Engagement through the Scholarship of Engagement. Other community engagement scholarship presentations and resources used with faculty and staff are also displayed on this web page. See http://www.ncsu.edu/extension/scholarship_engagement/engagement.html.

The BEDI reports and the scholarship of engagement report brought this issue to the forefront. Faculty members believed that several department heads failed to support community engagement scholarship or to prepare re-appointment, tenure, and promotion committee members to recognize and reward the various types of scholarship recognized by Carnegie and N.C. State's six realms of scholarship. They also felt that some of their peers considered their community engagement scholarship second-class work.

Views of Other Department Heads and Administrators

The study by Baker *(2001)* found that department heads at Southeastern University expressed these values about engagement scholarship:

> Faculty felt that engagement scholarship was not highly valued by department heads and they were being evaluated by their research and publications. They believe that engagement was valued for public relations purposes, but not encouraged or reinforced. They felt to be a top 30 institution that engagement is devalued. *(p.82)*

Few of the respondents in the Baker *(2001)* study could explain the reciprocal nature of community engagement scholarship using democratic strategies and mutually beneficial partnership methods, and they failed to see the integration of teaching and research with community engagement scholarship. Respondents framed responses as either teaching, or research, or service, with each mission area in competition with the others.

Change in Culture to Support Community Engagement Scholarship

The culture of faculty, department heads, and administration has been changing at N.C. State since the mid-1990s. This change began after Boyer called for a broader view of scholarship in *Scholarship Reconsidered (1990)*. N.C. State, led by the faculty senate, developed and approved six realms of faculty responsibility for documenting scholarship beginning in 2000. The description of these realms was revised in 2003 and adopted by the administration in 2006. The realms include (1) teaching and mentoring of undergraduate and graduate students; (2) discovery of knowledge through discipline-guided inquiry; (3) creative artistry and literature; (4) technological and managerial innovation; (5) extension and engagement constituencies outside the university; and (6) service in professional societies, including service and engagement within the university *(North Carolina State University, 2010b, p. 28)*. These realms of scholarship are outlined in Regulation 05.20.20—Reappointment, Promotion, and Tenure Dossier Format Requirements *(North Carolina State University, 2012)*.

The six realms of scholarship influenced standards for re-appointment, promotion, and tenure in many departments across the campus. Beginning in 2004 to 2005 all 64 departments revised their standards of re-appointment, promotion, and tenure. Since 2005, 63% of the departments have revised them again, 7% as recently as 2010.

Prior to launching the study at N.C. State, interviews were conducted with the campus department heads who attended group discussions during a department head seminar in 2010 and a forum in 2011. This group comprised 50% of the 64 department heads at N.C. State. Their perceptions informed the need to conduct this study. They referred us to the Administrative Advisory Committee on Academic Departments, which assisted in planning the Engaged Department 2011 forum, and also recommended developing the survey instrument. Five former department heads reviewed the draft survey questions in order to determine their relevance. The survey questions were finalized and submitted to the Institutional Review Board, and the study was approved.

Department Standards Review

During this time (2010–2012) the re-appointment, tenure, and promotion standards were reviewed in each of the 64 departments at N.C. State. The department standards were reviewed again in the fall of 2013 and there were no significant changes since 2010-12. Some of these departments were led by department leaders and directors who were not called department heads. There were 51 official department heads in 2011 and 53 in 2012. Sixty-four individuals were listed as department heads, interim department heads, directors, or leaders in departments that listed academic standards. Standards were analyzed to determine which of the six realms of scholarship were included for reappointment, promotion, and tenure.

We discovered that 100% of the standards in the 64 departments included Realm 1, teaching and mentoring of undergraduate and graduate students; Realm 2, discovery of knowledge through discipline-guided inquiry; and Realm 6, service in professional societies, and service and engagement within the university itself. This was no surprise since these were the traditional criteria for performance prior to Boyer's *(1990)* influence.

Seventy-three percent of the standards included Realm 5, extension and engagement constituencies outside the university. The College of Management had no expectations for community engagement scholarship. Faculty members in the College of Management often consulted with companies, but this work was not considered community engagement scholarship for the purposes of reappointment, promotion, and tenure decisions. Departments in the other nine colleges developed criteria for community engagement scholarship with communities outside the university. Out of 64 departments, 13 (20%) had no expectations for community engagement scholarship. These departments were in five of the 10 colleges: Agriculture and Life Sciences, Education, Humanities and Social Sciences, Management, and Physical and Mathematical Sciences.

Realm 3, creative artistry and literature, was selected by 16% of the departments. These departments were in six colleges: Design, Engineering, Humanities and Social Sciences, Natural Resources, Physical and Mathematical Sciences, and Textiles. Realm 4, technological and managerial innovation, was selected by 25% of the departments. These departments were in seven colleges: Agriculture and Life Sciences, Engineering, Humanities and Social Sciences, Natural Resources, Physical and Mathematical Sciences, Textiles, and Veterinary Medicine.

The gap between institutional support for community engagement scholarship and practice at the department level was described by Sandmann, Saltmarsh, and O'Meara *(2008)* when they stated:

> Although many institutions have revised tenure and promotion guidelines to align in some fashion with Boyer's categories of scholarship in *Scholarship Reconsidered (1990)*, the faculty who apply the guidelines have not internalized the criteria and standards for evaluating engaged scholarship, leaving the institutional culture unchanged. *(p. 47)*

The standards for re-appointment, promotion, and tenure (RPT) in some N.C. State departments demonstrate the lack of internalization by department heads, RPT committees, and faculty. Ramaley *(2000)* reported a similar situation. She found that the major emphasis on research, teaching, and service demonstrated that the culture was slow to change in many departments, as these areas have existed since the university was established. Seifer, Wong, Gelmon, and Lederer *(2009)* reported that "there is a tendency of colleagues to classify work in the community as 'service' simply because of its venue, rather than looking at the many other factors that might qualify the work as 'scholarship'" (*p. 6*). Even though the six realms of scholarship allowed for clear differentiation between service and engagement, there may have been a lack of understanding in many departments by RPT committees and mentors of new faculty. The findings for this review of departmental standards demonstrated improvement in the percentages of department heads who valued community engagement scholarship, but the traditional areas of teaching, research, and service remain dominant in departmental culture.

Beyond the Expert Model to Co-Learning and Co-Creation of Knowledge

There is a dichotomy in the way departments and administrators think about community engagement scholarship. This results in a gap between perceived institutional support and the criteria supported in department practice. N.C. State administrators and the strategic goals of the university support community engagement scholarship, but departmental culture across the campus does not, in many cases. Department heads reported that the RPT committees were not accepting of the metrics for community engagement scholarship because when they achieved tenure and were promoted they were reviewed based on traditional basic research metrics. Department heads reported it difficult for RPT faculty members to understand and reward metrics for other realms of scholarship.

A second type of gap exists between expert methods faculty practice and the collaborative methods and roles supported through authentic community engagement scholarship. Rice described it this way: "the scholarship of engagement requires going beyond the 'expert' model that both informs and gets in the way of constructive university-community collaboration"*(p. 13)*. Saltmarsh *(2010)* gave this example:

> The implication of this shift from teaching and learning is that it relocates students and community partners as co-producers of knowledge, valuing the knowledge and experience they contribute to the educational process, sharing authority for the process of knowledge generation and pedagogy, and allowing them to practice and experiment with a public culture of democracy as part of higher education. *(p. 348)*

This type of community engagement scholarship can conflict with faculty identity. Rice *(2002)* stated that faculty roles and identities were tied to a department-centric culture that supported selected journals, literature, networks, and organizations. The multidisciplinary and transdisciplinary nature of community engagement expands the former role, making it more inclusive, honoring partner roles, and recognizing that co-learning with community members is valuable to discovery and knowledge. Transdisciplinary initiatives include academic representatives from multiple departments and expert community members representing business, industry, nonprofits, government, and community members. This knowledge applies to application and community engagement discovery *(Holland, 2005b)*.

As a result of N.C. State symposiums, engagement councils, task forces, interviews, forums, surveys, and a review of the literature on community engagement scholarship, a study of perceptions for department heads concerning the scholarship of learning, discovery, and engagement was established in 2010 and continued through 2011.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this N.C. State study was to determine department heads' perceptions about the contribution of community engagement scholarship (engagement with constituents outside the university) in the faculty tenure and promotion process in a land-grant university. The study was expected to accomplish the following objectives while benchmarking the status of scholarship based on the N.C. State six realms:

1. Determine the extent to which faculty members understand the importance of aligning their Statements of Mutual Expectations (SME) with the six realms of faculty responsibility when preparing their dossiers for promotion and tenure
2. Determine the level of priority given for extension and community engagement scholarship in making promotion and tenure decisions
3. Determine the level of faculty efforts in extension and community engagement scholarship
4. Determine the perceptions about the value of community engaged participatory research

Methods

This was a descriptive survey research study conducted online with the 64 department heads in North Carolina State University. The survey instrument was intended to determine the department heads' perceptions about the role of community engagement scholarship in the faculty promotion and tenure process in relation to the other five realms of scholarship. The instrument was developed as an online survey consisting of close-ended questions and few open-ended questions. There were 12 questions, including demographic questions. One demographic question ascertained the respondent's years of experience as a department head. Participants accessed the survey through a link to the online questionnaire.

Validity and Reliability

Content validity was established by using a panel of experts in extension and engagement. The members of the panel of former department heads and administrators were given copies of the instrument and were asked to comment on its contents. Their comments and suggestions were incorporated into the final instrument. The instrument was then pilot tested with 12 extension and engagement administrators and past department heads. The purpose of the pilot test was to identify face validity and determine the reliability of the competency recording scale. Changes were made according to the pilot study participants' suggestions to ensure that the questions were clear and meaningful. Data from the pilot test were analyzed to assess the reliability of the instrument, and it was determined that the Cronbach alpha was .79 for the department heads' perception recording instrument.

Data Collection and Analysis

In summer 2010, data were collected using an online survey. First, an e-mail was sent to the N.C. State department heads in the study population explaining the purpose of the study. This communication included a consent form and the survey link. Participants were given two weeks to respond. After two weeks, a follow-up e-mail was sent with the survey link asking department heads to respond to the survey within a week. The respondents and non-respondents were not identified by the researchers in order to maintain the respondents' anonymity. However, the online survey software permitted sending follow-up e-mails only to non-responding participants in the study population after the first deadline for submission. The survey received 52 responses, or a 77.6% response rate. Early and late respondents were compared to address non-response error as recommended by Lindner, Murphy, and Briers *(2001)*. No significant difference was found between early and late respondents, indicating that results can be generalized for the study population.

The data were analyzed using the IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0 program.. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize findings. The data obtained from the open-ended questions were summarized by using content analysis.

Findings and Discussion

Demographics of Respondents

Nearly 69% of the respondents had less than 7 years of experience as department heads, as summarized in Table 1. Five (9.6%) of the 52 respondents had 10 years or more of experience as department heads. These findings demonstrate a change in tenure of department heads when compared to Hecht's finding in 2007 that half of department heads had been at the institution for more than 10 years. In 2011 the NCSU Department of University Planning and Analysis reported that more than 68% of the department heads had 6 or fewer years of experience. This compared with the actual percentage of N.C. State department heads each year since 2000. These data show that in 2000, 45% had 10 or more years of experience as department heads. By 2011 there were 22% with 10 years or more experience, and in 2012, the number diminished to 19%.

This present study surveyed department heads with less experience than those in previous studies, as documented by Cipriano & Riccardi *(2012),* Hecht *(2007),* and O'Meara *(2005)*.

Table 1. Distribution of Respondents by Years of Experience as a Department Head

Years of Experience	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Respondents
0-3 years	18	35.3%
4-6 years	17	33.3%
7-9 years	11	21.6%
10 or more years	5	9.8%

The majority of the respondents had experience in holding various positions of responsibility in the RPT process, as summarized in Table 2. Seventy-five percent of the respondents had experience as departmental voting faculty members. It was found that 17 (32.7%) of the respondents had experience as members of a college RPT review committee. Overall, 94% had experience with RPT as a department head. This figure likely fell short of 100% because three department heads may have been interim or newly hired from faculty ranks and had not yet gone through the RPT process.

Table 2. Distribution of Department Heads' Experience of Various Responsibilities in RPT Process

Type of Responsibility	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Respondents
As a candidate	39	75.0%
As a departmental voting faculty member	39	75.0%
As a department head	49	94.2%
As a member of college RPT review committee	17	32.7%
As a member of the university RPT review committee	3	5.8%

Lack of experience as department head at the institutional level with RPT committees and also in job experience could be a contributing factor to lack of knowledge and understanding of community engagement scholarship metrics, standards, and processes. This could also be a factor reinforcing the single-discipline approach to scholarship reported by community-engaged faculty, as opposed to a multidisciplinary and community-based transdisciplinary approach. Comparing the responses of the 52 department heads who completed the survey to the entire faculty of NCSU revealed a steady decline in years of experience as department head. In 2000, 22% of the department heads had 6 years or less of experience. By 2012, 64% had 6 years or less of experience. This was an increase of 8% since the previous year, 2011.

Sandmann et al., reported after the 2008 Wingspread conference that new doctoral students prepared by community engagement scholars for faculty positions may find that their "institutional homes . . . have not yet changed their evaluation systems in ways that welcome, as opposed to simply tolerate, engaged scholarship" *(p. 50)*. This poses the question of whether community engagement scholarship is challenging the department and institutional culture, or is being institutionalized so that the dominant culture remains the same. In 2009, Seifer et al. reported, "Unfortunately, few faculty development programs explicitly support community-engaged faculty and even fewer incorporate characteristics of successful faculty development: sustained, longitudinal, multi-disciplinary, experiential and competency-based best practices" *(p.13).*

Faculty Knowledge About RPT Process

Nearly 55% of the responding department heads perceived that their faculty members understood the importance of aligning the statement of mutual expectations (SME) with the six realms of faculty responsibilities (that is, the six realms of scholarship previously described) *very well.* (see Table 3). However, nearly 6% felt that their faculty members failed to understand the importance of aligning the SME and the six realms of faculty responsibilities when preparing their RPT dossier.

Table 3. How Well Do Faculty Understand the Importance of Aligning Their (SME) and the Six Scholarship Realms of Faculty Responsibility When Preparing Their Dossiers?

Response Options	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Respondents
Not at all	1	2.0%
Not very well	2	3.9%
Fairly well	20	39.2%
Very well	28	54.9%

This level of understanding of the six realms of scholarship is a positive change for faculty and department heads since 2000. These last two tables may also illustrate why some departments lack an adequate understanding of collaborative teaching, learning, research, and engagement models. Nearly 46% of the faculty members who are evaluating peer faculty practicing community engagement scholarship may have an inadequate understanding of the metrics and standards for community engagement scholarship and therefore they may be highly critical of scholarship that does not look like their own. Calleson, Jordan, and Seifer *(2005)* reported that departmental barriers made faculty members hesitant to work in community engagement scholarship when rewards were risky and they were, at the time, untenured. Driscoll and Sandmann (2001)also discussed the frustration assistant professors experienced when promotion and tenure committees failed to understand and reward their community-based engagement scholarship. They used the case study of a faculty member who was encouraged by the community to be engaged with them, but was discouraged by her faculty peers.

The lack of attention to the link between expectations in scholarship realms and the results reported on dossiers can be a serious problem to reviewers and a career-changing issue for the faculty member being reviewed. In her study of campuses establishing reforms that honor multiple forms of scholarship, O'Meara *(2005)* reported that the award of promotion and tenure for teaching and/or engagement scholarship demonstrated "an increase in congruence between faculty priorities and institutional mission."

Statement of Mutual Expectation (SME)

N.C. State uses a (SME) as the agreement between the University and the faculty member to plan, report, and communicate the expectation of faculty scholarship in the six realms of university responsibilities and scholarship. Department heads' belief about when SMEs should be revised was recorded on a four-point Likert scale ranging from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 4 *(strongly agree)*. The highest mean value (3.7) was reported for the stage when the scope of the faculty member's work responsibility changed. This indicates that it was the most common stage, as summarized in Table 4. The second-highest mean (3.0) was reported for the stage when the faculty member received a promotion, indicating that it was the second most commonly perceived stage of changing SMEs. The smallest mean (2.5) was reported during a faculty member's annual review.

Table 4. Department Heads' Perceptions of the Stages of Revising Faculty Members' SME

Revising Stages	*n*	*M*	*SD*
During their annual review process	45	2.5	.843
Upon reapointment	46	2.8	.947
Upon promotion	47	3.0	.885
When the scope of their work changes	49	3.7	.466

Note. Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = agree, 4 = strongly agree.

However, if the agreement of faculty work fails to be revisited annually, the SME may become outdated and thus irrelevant. This issue needs further study.

Values Placed on Six Realms of Faculty Responsibilities in the RPT Process

N.C. State began recognizing the scholarship of extension and engagement in 2001. The same year, Hollander, Saltmarsh, and Zoltowski *(2001)* stated:

> No matter how genuine a school's commitment to engagement as articulated by its mission, that commitment will probably amount to little, at least in the long run, if the school is unwilling to address the specific ways in which it formally recognizes a faculty member's contribution to that commitment *(p.15)*.

In this N.C. State study, more than 90% of the department heads indicated that they use (1) teaching and mentoring students, (2) discovery of knowledge through discipline-guided inquiry, and (3) service in professional societies, and service and engagement within the university, as important faculty responsibilities when making RPT decisions, as summarized in Table 5.

Teaching is the most commonly used faculty responsibility for making RPT decisions, followed by discovery of knowledge and service in professional societies and within the university. Seventy-five percent of the department heads indicated that they used extension and engagement with constituencies outside the university as a faculty responsibility when making RPT decisions.

This finding shows that the traditional scholarship realms remain valued and unchanged in practice, even though the university adopted six realms for documenting scholarship. However, the six realms of scholarship appear to be understood by most faculty members. The emerging realm of scholarship being used in RPT decisions is community engagement scholarship. This is a significant positive change since 2000. Baker's *(2001)* findings at Southeastern University showed that faculty members were receiving mixed messages in that department heads encouraged basic research, while university administration encouraged a balanced approach with engagement scholarship. This type of inconsistent messaging was also reported by Calleson et al. *(2005)*,Cantor *(2006)*, and Foster *(2010)*.

Table 5. Distribution of the Use of Six Realms of Faculty Responsibilities When Making Decisions About Reappointment, Promotion , and Tenure

Six Realms of Faculty Responsibilities	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Respondents
Teaching and mentoring of undergraduate and graduate students	51	98.1%
Discovery of knowledge through discipline-guided inquiry	49	94.2%
Service in professional societies and service and engagement within the university itself	48	92.3%
Extension and engagement with constituencies outside the university	39	75.0%
Technical and managerial innovation	19	36.5%
Creative artistry and literature	7	13.5%

Note. Scale 1= Not valued, 2 = Minimally valued, 3 = Somewhat valued, 4 = Highly valued.

In many departments service continues to be confused with community engagement scholarship, according to pre-survey interviews conducted with department heads. Several authors believe this may be due to lack of administrative leadership education of department heads in all realms of scholarship. Current department head training across the United States appears to focus on department management processes and required reports needed, so that training in metrics for various realms of scholarship is often missing *(Burkhardt, Holland, Percy, & Zimpher, 2004; Carroll & Wolverton, 2004; Cipriano & Riccardi, 2012; Sirkis, 2011)*. Because of the confusion between service and engagement, Ramaley *(2011)* recommended that "universities retire the term service from use except for work on committees or governance". (*p. 360)*

N.C. State clarified each realm by defining each of the six realms of scholarship, but confusion remains about how to report scholarship of engagement. Seifer et al. *(2009)* attributed this to "a tendency of colleagues to classify work in the community as 'service' simply because of its venue, rather than looking at the many other factors that might qualify the work as 'scholarship' *(p. 6)*. This was verified by department heads in narrative responses and comments prior to the design of the study.

Department heads were asked to rate the general distribution of faculty efforts on the six realms of faculty responsibilities in faculty SMEs on an 11-point scale (1 = *0%*, 2 = *1–9%*, 3 = *10–19%*, 4 = *20–29%*, 5 = *30–39%*, 6 = *40–49%*, 7 = *50–59%*, 8 = *60–69%*, 9 = *70–79%,* 10 = *80–89%*, 11 = *90–100%*). Discovery of knowledge through discipline-guided inquiry was the highest-ranked faculty effort, with a mean value of 6 (40–49% effort), followed by teaching and mentoring students, with a mean value of 5.7 (about 30–49% effort), as summarized in Table 6. Extension and engagement with constituencies outside the university was rated third most important, with a mean value of 3.2 (about 10–20% effort). The large standard deviation indicates wide variation among the department heads about the allocation of faculty efforts on extension and engagement with constituencies outside the university.

Table 6. General Distribution of the Six Realms of Faculty Responsibilities on Faculty Members' Statements of Mutual Expectations

Six Realms of Faculty Responsibilities	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Discovery of knowledge through discipline-guided inquiry	50	6.0	1.78
Teaching and mentoring of undergraduate and graduate students	51	5.7	1.53
Extension and engagement with constituencies outside the university	45	3.2	2.05
Service in professional societies, and service and engagement within the university itself	51	3.1	1.58
Technological and managerial innovation	33	2.2	1.25
Creative artistry and literature	28	2.0	2.21

Note. Scale: 1 = 0%, 2 = 1-9%, 3 = 10-19%, 4 = 20-29%, 5 = 30-39%, 6=40-49%, 7 = 50-59%, 8 = 60-69% 9 = 70-79%, 10 = 80-89%, 11 = 90-100%.

Tables 5 and 6 reflect the 13 departments (20.3% of departments) that failed to recognize community engagement scholarship with constituencies outside the university in their standards for RPE. This factor accounted for part of the 25% of departments that failed to recognize community engagement scholarship. The faculty members in each department also had different percentages of assignment across the six realms of scholarship recorded in their SME. However, in these thirteen departments no faculty member can be given credit for community engagement scholarship, nor expect any recognition or reward for such efforts. Members of these departments were unlikely to connect with any North Carolina communities while practicing mutually beneficial partnerships. However, they may have been earning personal consulting fees for after-hours consulting jobs.

This problem was addressed in the Wingspread Statement of 2004 *(Burkhardt et al.)*. This report stated:

> . . .few institutions have made the significant, sustainable structural reforms that will result in an academic culture that values community engagement as a core

> function of the institution. . . . We propose, instead, a couplet—engaged teaching and learning, and engaged discovery and research scholarship. . . . It values all scholarship but particularly that within a context of contemporary need. *(p. 5)*

The demarcation of types of scholarship continues to further separate faculty. Colbeck and Wharton-Michael *(2006)* recommended that "Rather than subdividing teaching, research, and ervice, colleges and universities should integrate all forms of intellectual activity into public scholarship" *(*p 18 *)*. This is consistent with the report of 2010 developed by the faculty of N.C. State that focused on Integrating Learning, Discovery, and Engagement through the Scholarship of Engagement *(North Carolina State University, 2010b)*. As Holland *(2005)* described it, "Engagement, as an integrative and collaborative mode of scholarly work, is proving effective in creating institutional clarity and focus that collectively ensures a strong higher education system working in the public interest" *(p. 31)*. This is very different from the current N.C. State culture, where faculty must choose which mission area receives credit for grants, contracts, and donor funding. There is no option for choosing integration of mission and scholarship realms. The current process drives division across scholarship realms rather than encouraging integration.

Types of Research Value in the RPT Process

The department heads were asked to rate the value they place on different types of research when making RPT decisions on a four-point Likert scale ranging from 1 *(not valued)* to 4 *(highly valued)*. The highest mean on this scale was reported for basic research, followed by applied research. The lowest mean was reported for community engaged participatory research, as summarized in Table 7.

Table 7. Perceptions of Department Heads About the Value of Different Types of Research When Making RPT Decisions

Types of Research	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Basic research	52	3.8	.605
Applied research	51	3.7	.666
Community-engaged participatory research	50	2.8	.938

Note. Scale: 1 = Not valued, 2 = Minimally valued, 3 = Somewhat valued, 4 = Highly valued.

The rating of community-engaged participatory research as "participatory research as *minimally valued* to s*omewhat valued* indicates" a major issue for champions of service-learning, civic engagement, extension in communities, and community engaged researchers. This also begins to show where inconsistencies exist within departmental cultures. Stanton *(2008)*observed that a major

> …challenge to expanding engaged research is a perception held by many faculty members that it is not valued in promotion and tenure processes. Without academic recognition and reward, scholars are unlikely to carry out community-engaged inquiry in great numbers or over long periods of time. *(p. 24)*

Holland and Ramaley *(2008)* described how Boyer *(1990)*established integration of the separate mission areas and realms of scholarship. Boyer's view of integration established a holistic higher education image uniting the past separate functions within universities of research discovery, interpretation through teaching, and application through service. By 1996, he reinterpreted this integration as "engagement" *(p. 39).*

Perception of Acceptable Journals

The extent to which the department heads agree with the value of publishing in different types of journals was recorded on a four-point Likert scale ranging from 1 *(strongly disagree)* to 4 *(strongly agree)*. The highest mean reported on this scale (3.7) was for publishing in peer-reviewed research journals, followed by publishing in peer-reviewed teaching journals. The department heads perceived publishing in peer-reviewed community engagement journals as the least valued scholarly work to be considered when making RPT decisions, as summarized in Table 8. Currently, there are 38 discipline-based, multidisciplinary, or transdisciplinary community engagement scholarship academic journals as identified by Sandmann *(2012)*.

Table 8. Perceptions of Department Heads About the RPT Value of Publishing in Different Journals

Perception about publishing	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Faculty who publish in peer-reviewed research journals are likely to succeed in the RPT process	52	3.7	0.612
Faculty who publish in peer-reviewed research journals are likely to succeed in the RPT process.	52	2.7	1.024
Faculty who publish in peer-reviewed community engagement journals are likely to succeed in the RPT process	39	2.4	.940
Faculty who publish in more than one of the above types of journals are likely to succeed in the RPT process	51	3.4	0.799

Note. Scale: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly agree.

Rice *(2002)* reported on the importance of department culture, including journals recognized and supported for tenure and promotion. He stated that "most faculty members have their identities imbedded in their disciplines and align themselves institutionally with their departments" *(p. 10)*. According to comments provided in interviews with department heads, engagement journals are often unknown to the department members, and their acceptance rates and impact are not compared to the tier one journals accepted for scholarship in their department. Even more problematic, when these transdisciplinary and multidisciplinary engagement journals become known to faculty members, their transdisciplinary nature does not fit with the single-discipline culture valued in the department. Seifer et al. *(2009)* reported that academic journal articles are rarely beneficial to partnering community members. "They do little, for example, to reach community members, practitioners, policymakers, and other key audiences" *(p. 13)*. These scholars recommended the use of diverse materials and products such as presentations, local media articles, web-based articles and reports, and public testimony. In addition, many of the effective community-based reporting products were not peer reviewed; therefore, the academy devalued these when making RPT decisions. The Community-Campus Partnerships for Health addressed this challenge and now provides peer review for products that were effective with communities during community engagement. This enables departments to adjust their culture and include these effective community engagement scholarship products *(Jordan, Seifer, Sandmann & Gilmon, 2009)*.

Ramaley *(2001)* supported Holland's idea *(2005)* that the boundaries in disciplines and departments are naturally crossed when practicing mutually beneficial community engagement scholarship. Boundary spanning often challenges the traditional research, teaching, and service department culture of selected discipline-based departmentally approved journals. Ramaley *(2011)* also introduced the idea of interpretation as an "aspect of scholarly work" that she included as "discovery, integration, interpretation, and application" *(p. 356)*. Several department heads noted that some of their journals were now adding engagement sections, but these individuals said that they still would not support scholarship published only in engagement journals.

The Work Value in RPT Process

Department heads were asked to rate what they valued when they made RPT decisions about faculty using a four-point Likert scale ranging from 1 *(not valued)* to 4 *(highly valued)*. The highest mean (3.9) on this scale was reported for teaching and discovery of knowledge, indicating that these department heads valued teaching and research as the most important work in making RPT decisions about their faculty. The next highest means (3.2) were reported for extension and engagement with constituents outside the university and service in professional societies and service and engagement within the university, as summarized in Table 9. However, extension and engagement with constituents outside the university had a slightly larger standard deviation, indicating that there was a wider variation of opinions among the department heads about the value of this factor in making RPT decisions.

Table 9. What Department Heads Value When Making RPT Decisions

Types of Faculty Activities	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Teaching & mentoring of students	51	3.9	0.300
Discovery of knowledge through discipline-guided inquiry	51	3.9	0.431
Service in professional societies and service and engagement within the university	51	3.2	0.566
Extension and engagement with constituents outside the university	49	3.2	0.816
Technological and managerial innovation	41	2.6	0.948
Creative artistry and literature	40	1.9	1.047

Note. Scale: 1 = Not valued, 2 = Minimally valued, 3 = Somewhat valued, 4 = Highly valued.

In comments on the narrative section of the survey, N.C. State department heads reported that even though many of them supported community engagement scholarship, their RPT faculty committees did not. This was also cited in interviews prior to developing the survey and comments in narrative responses on the survey. The department heads reported that it is very difficult for them to influence these faculty members to be more inclusive. They also reported a dearth of meetings and networks among N.C. State department heads. Instead, they described a loose network that is ineffective for the most part. They also reported not knowing many department heads outside their college.

Previous studies reported that it is the norm for department heads to receive very little training on how to document and evaluate multiple realms of scholarship. Although department heads have been invited to annual engagement symposiums and forums, many chose not to attend. The types of training often reported by department heads primarily focused on management of the RPT process. This was reported during interviews to be the case at N.C. State; therefore department heads may not have knowledge of scholarship metrics for each area of scholarship identified in the six realms. For department heads who were trained on management of the department scholarship process, Jones'*(2011)* study identified 20 important competencies. Only two of the 20 related to management. The remaining 18 were leadership competencies. Working with faculty to document each realm of their scholarship, and adopting evaluation metrics for each realm that are appropriate for the department, would be a leadership competency.

Department heads' perceived value of different categories of engagement work of faculty when making RPT decisions about them were recorded on a four-point Likert scale ranging from 1 *(not valued)* to 4 *(highly valued)*. The highest mean (3.8) on this scale was reported for knowledge creation and transfer, followed by curricular engagement in classes, as summarized in Table 10. The lowest mean (1.8) was reported for the clinical and diagnostic testing services.

Table 10. Department Heads' Perceived Value of Different Categories of Engagement for Making RPT Decisions

Types of Engagement Work	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Knowledge creation and transfer	51	3.8	0.541
Curricular engagement in classes	48	3.1	0.799
University and industry cooperative partnership	45	3.0	0.965
Public events and understanding	48	2.8	0.668
Technical and expert assistance	48	2.8	0.751
Technology transfer and communications	48	2.7	1.011
Co-curricular service-learning	48	2.4	0.796
Clinical & diagnostic testing services	48	1.8	0.905

Note. Scale: 1 = Not valued, 2 = Minimally valued, 3 = Somewhat valued, 4 = Highly valued.

The eight categories of work listed in Table 10 were identified by a team of faculty studying how community engagement faculty can benchmark economic benefits of their accomplishments with communities in the state *(N.C. State, 2008, p. 6-7)*. Some of these eight categories may not be among favored approaches for demonstration of scholarship, and some of them may not have peer-reviewed reports, or be products that easily match research scholarship criteria. This is why Community-Compass Partnership for Health developed a peer review process for products that were not journal articles *(Jordon et al., 2009)* Calleson et al. *(2005)* developed an inclusive list of community peer-reviewed publications that are effective and should be considered. CES (community engaged scholarship) requires diverse pathways and products for dissemination, including those that communities value most. These include applied products such as training materials and resource guides as well as community dissemination products such as newspaper articles and editorials, websites, and public testimony.

Conclusions

This study provides evidence that the number of departments supporting community engagement scholarship has increased since 2000. Seventy-five percent of departments reward extension and engagement with constituencies outside the university (Realm 5), and department heads value this realm with a score of 3.2 out of 4. This represents outstanding progress over the past 12 years. Although awareness and support of Realm 5 have increased more than 20% of the departments do not yet have departmental standards that will support or reward community engagement scholarship. Below are factors that have influenced positive changes and issues that require additional work to achieve equal status of community engagement scholarship with other realms.

North Carolina State University has developed significant institutional procedures and policies to support community engagement scholarship. In addition, many of the recommendations from Integrating Learning, Discovery, and Engagement Through the Scholarship of Engagement *(North Carolina State University, 2010b)* have been implemented as procedures for developing dossiers for RPT at the university policy and procedures level. This includes incorporating the definition for community engagement scholarship, as well as the standards and processes for reporting community engagement scholarship. However, as this study shows, even with great progress, the implementation of these policies is not complete and lacks broad understanding. When reviewing the department standards, many departments still use the terminology of research, teaching, and service and classify only research outputs as scholarship. Many departments also report faculty percentages of responsibility by these three mission areas, even when they say they include Realm 5, extension and engagement with constituencies outside the university.

This occurs even though in 2004, the Faculty Senate introduced six realms of scholarship in evaluating faculty for RPT, and the university policy included the six realms of scholarship in practice by 2004, and officially in 2006. Department heads continue to perceive research, teaching, and service to professional associations as the three areas of scholarly work that count most when making RPT decisions in their departments. These were the traditional areas of scholarship rewarded prior to 2006, when the six realms were approved, and N.C. State was awarded the Carnegie designation as an engaged university. Department heads agree that significant effort must continue in order to change the department culture so that community engagement scholarship is valued for tenured and non-tenured faculty. However, none of the department heads reported that an integrative model of scholarship exists in their department when making comments in narrative responses.

One major change with department heads is that the majority are relatively new to their job. This seems to follow a national trend. Most of the department heads perceived that the faculty members were well aware of the significance of aligning their SME with the six realms of scholarship when preparing their RPT dossiers. However, preparation of the dossier is guided by the dominant culture and coaching by senior professors in the department. This is an issue for department heads to address, and several mentioned this in their comments. In addition, conducting scholarly community engagement and publishing findings in community engagement scholarship journals may have little or no value in making RPT decisions, unless the faculty member also publishes in discipline-based research journals valued by the department. This is a topic for a future study.

A contributing factor, as this study shows, is that department heads do not consider participatory research to be as important as basic or applied research. Since community engagement scholarship projects use multiple methods of evaluation, work with many variables, and use mixed methods of research, community participatory research is often the preferred choice for project evaluation with community members. This gap in departmental values related to varying types of research is also a factor in recognizing the value of community engagement scholarship.

Department heads have indicated that department cultures are beginning to reflect more awareness of standards and metrics for documenting community engagement scholarship, but RPT committees often are less accepting. These comments were made in the narrative sections of the survey. Only a few respondents mentioned this factor; however, they believe it is an issue that must be addressed at several levels across the university. The complex picture of why community engagement scholarship lacks equitable footing with teaching and research requires further study.

Recommendations and Implications

Recommendations are based on the many gains of the past 12 years in providing support for faculty who demonstrate community engagement scholarship; however, new issues should be addressed in the future based on the results of this study. N.C. State and other institutions with an engagement mission should continue to provide equitable administrative leadership and funding support for engagement through the president's or chancellor's office, just as the university supports the mission areas of research and teaching. Individuals at this level of leadership should focus on integrating learning, discovery, and engagement through the scholarship of engagement. They also should work to ensure that tenured and non-tenured faculty and staff receive recognition and rewards for their scholarship. The faculty senate should support this matter and call for action of the president, chancellor, and provost when support wanes.

There remains a critical need to develop an integrative model that will influence department culture, affect grant and contract application designations, support collaboration across disciplines, and recognize excellence, while rewarding community engagement scholarship faculty during the RPT process. The faculty members who demonstrate community engagement scholarship currently lack collaborative mechanisms for reporting the integrated nature of community engagement scholarship. The university, led by the chancellor and provost, should model and reward the integration of learning, discovery, and engagement and include faculty support along with significant financial and leadership support for all the land-grant mission areas of learning, discovery, and engagement equally.

It is critical to expand the education and training of faculty, department heads, and RPT committee members so they will embrace community engagement scholarship as a valuable component of RPT and apply the tools, metrics, and scholarship standards for each of the six realms of scholarship. The provost is responsible for leading deans to make this happen. Deans and department heads will then be responsible for directing RPT committees. This should be a continuous process so that all realms of scholarship become integral to the academy's culture in departments, units, and colleges.

N.C. State should continue to monitor the status of community engagement scholarship for faculty, community partners, and beneficiaries of the partnership through University Planning and Analysis. Many reports already focus on extramural expenditures and teaching outcomes; in addition, statistics showing outcomes of community engagement scholarship should be included in university reports by the chancellor and provost. The outcomes of community engagement should reflect integration of community engagement into teaching, learning, and research across the state.

Support for faculty should include mentoring of engagement faculty members from various disciplines so they can be coached on documentation of their community engagement scholarship in alignment with N.C. State University institutional guidance. Deans and department heads can initiate cross-discipline mentoring to strengthen multidisciplinary and transdisciplinary approaches. It is critical to select experienced mentors who can assist faculty in designing and documenting each realm of scholarship, including community engagement scholarship. These mentors need to be trained and willing to work with other faculty in their departments and across disciplines, colleges, and units.

Community engagement scholarship is taking place across many departments and units, but it is not reported accurately by faculty and departments because it is perceived as not valued. This makes community engagement, outcomes achieved, learners taught, and societal outcomes invisible to other academians as well as to external stakeholders. This silence is a disservice to community engagement scholarship faculty members who partner with communities to measure these outcomes, and to the public who wants to know how we are engaged with the people of North Carolina. N.C. State, through the chancellor's administration, should devise a reporting system that includes the accomplishments of all mission areas of the university so that community engagement scholarship is reported to stakeholders internally and externally.

Departments' failure to give credit for this type of scholarship, and lack of acceptance of engagement journals, has led to a lack of published peer-reviewed community engagement scholarship. As a result, community engagement scholarship programs, projects, and accomplishments have not become part of the academic record of the university or its faculty. Department heads should update the department standards to include cross-discipline and trans-disciplinary journals. Because of the current dearth of publishing, the state, nation, and world have no way to build on this excellent engagement scholarship work, or to accept or challenge its findings. Community engagement scholarship must become more than the work of individual faculty members who persist in the face of a tradition-dominant culture, often with little support. All aspects of N.C. State University's community engagement should be visible, publishable through a variety of methods, and known to the world. Regional, national, and global partnerships can be built with institutional and departmental support. The faculty and community partners of N.C. State University can become known globally for their significant community engagement that integrates learning, discovery, and engagement and results in scholarship.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

This study established a benchmark for understanding department head perceptions and comparing them to approved department standards. All of the standards were evaluated, but not all of the department leaders, directors, and heads responded to the survey. This study evaluated perceived department culture; however, actual practices were not verified with faculty members in the departments. Future research should be conducted to close this loop. These issues should be continuously assessed and monitored in order to improve department culture, practices, and acceptance of all six realms of scholarship at N.C. State.

This study did not document extramural funding that supports community engagement and scholarship. The office of sponsored programs could provide such documentation for comparison to changes in new extramural funding and published documentation of community engagement scholarship. This will be possible if all faculty members have the opportunity to select the integration of their learning, discovery, and engagement using percentages, instead of designating projects as 100% research. The percent of indirect costs for research is higher for the university (51.5%) than that of public service (33.6%). The incentive for the university is to classify integrated community engagement projects as research benefits the university as a result. Future extramural funding reports should compare universities that track the integration of mission areas with those using the traditional method of forced choice among mission areas.

Future research to discover the degree to which journal-rating services include community engagement scholarship journals would indicate whether these journals are even included in the analysis. It would also be valuable to study the inclusion of engagement and practice sections in current single-discipline journals to determine the integration of community engagement scholarship in typical department-centric journals.

References

Baker, D. A. (2001). *The evaluation of university-community engagement scholarship within the college level promotion and tenure process* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from http://scholar.lib.vt.edu/theses/available/etd-05102001-213726/

Boyer, E. L. (1990). *Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate*. Princeton, NJ: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.

Boyer, E. L. (1996). The scholarship of engagement. *Bulletin of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences*, 49(7), 18–33. Retrieved from http://www.ithaca.edu/cfe/docs/Resources/TenPrepResources/Boyer_SchEngage.pdf

Burkhardt, M. J., Holland, B., Percy, S. L., & Zimpher, N. (2004). *Calling the question: Is higher education really ready to commit to community engagement? A wingspread statement.* Milwaukee Idea Office, University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee. Retrieved from http://www.servicelearning.org/library/resource/6108

Calleson, D. C., Jordan, C., & Seifer, S. (2005). Community-engaged scholarship: Is faculty work in communities a true academic enterprise? *Academic Medicine, 80*(4), 317–321.

Cantor, N. (2006). *Taking public scholarship seriously.* Office of the Chancellor, Syracuse University. Retrieved from http://surface.syr.edu/chancellor/34

Carroll, J. B., & Wolverton, M. (2004). Who becomes a chair? *New Directions for Higher Education, 126*, 3–10. Retrieved from ERIC database. (EJ 760446)

Cipriano, R. E., & Riccardi, R. (2012). Competencies, challenges, and collegiality: A four-year study of department chairs. *The Department Chair, 22*(4), 14–17. Retrieved from http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/dch.20046/abstract

Colbeck, C. L., & Wharton-Michael, P. (2006). Individual and organizational influences on faculty members' engagement in public scholarship. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 105*. doi:10.1002/tl.220

Driscoll, A., & Sandmann, L. R. (2001). From maverick to mainstream: The scholarship of engagement. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 6*(2), 9–19. Retrieved from http://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/index.php/jheoe/article/viewArticle/241

Foster, K. M. (2010). Taking a stand: Community-engaged scholarship on the tenure track. *Journal of Community Engagement* *and Scholarship, 3*(2), 20–30. Retrieved from http://jces.ua.edu/taking-a-stand-community-engaged-scholarship-on-the-tenure-track/

Hecht, I.W.D. (2007). Chairing departments: The changing scenery. *The Department Head: A Resource for Academic Administrators, 17*(4), 3–5. Retrieved from http://media.wiley.com/assets/1308/42/DepartmentChairSample051507.pdf

Holland, B. A. (2005a). Real change in higher education: Understanding differences in institutional commitment to engagement. In A. J. Kezar, T. C. Chambers, J. C. Burkhardt, & Associates (Eds.), *Higher education for the public good: Emerging voices from a national movement* (pp. 235–259). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Holland, B. A. (2005b). Scholarship and mission in the 21st century university: The role of engagement. *AUQA Occasional Publication Proceedings of the Australian Universities Quality Forum 2005* (pp. 25–31). Retrieved from http://depts.washington.edu/ccph/pdf_files/AUQA_paper_final_05.pdf

Holland, B. A., & Ramaley, J. A. (2008). Creating a supportive environment for community-university engagement: Conceptual frameworks. In Engaging communities, *Proceedings of the 31st HERDSA Annual Conference, Rotorua, 1–4 July 2008* (pp. 11–25). Retrieved from http://www.herdsa.org.au/wp-content/uploads/conference/2008/papers/Holland%20&%20Ramaley.pdf

Hollander, E. L., Saltmarsh, J., & Zlotkowski, E. (2001). Indicators of engagement. In L. A. Simon, M. Kenny, K. Brabeck, & R. M. Lerner (Eds.), *Learning to serve: Promoting civil society through service-learning.* Retrieved from http://www.springerlink.com/content/n6872427322mgu48/

Jones, F. R. (2011). *The future competencies of department chairs: A human resource perspective* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from http://diginole.lib.fsu.edu/etd/3461

Jordan, C., Seifer, S., Sandmann, L. R., & Gelmon. S. (2009). CES4Health.info: Development of peer-reviewed mechanism for dissemination of innovative products of health-related community-engaged scholarship. *International Journal of Prevention Practice and Research, 1*(1), 21-28.

Lindner, J. R., Murphy, T. H., & Briers, G. H. (2001). Handling nonresponse in social science research. *Journal of Agricultural Education, 42*(4), 43–53.

North Carolina State University. (2008). *BEDI report I—impact!* Raleigh, NC: North Carolina State University Office of Extension, Engagement, & Economic Development. Retrieved from http://www.ncsu.edu/extension/BEDI.html

North Carolina State University. (2010a). *BEDI report II—impact: What counts is what's counted.* Raleigh, NC: North Carolina State University Office of Extension, Engagement, & Economic Development. Retrieved from http://www.ncsu.edu/extension/BEDI.html

North Carolina State University. (2010b). *Integrating learning, discovery, and engagement through the scholarship of engagement: Report of the Scholarship of Engagement Task Force.* North Carolina State University Office of Extension, Engagement, & Economic Development. Retrieved from http://www.ncsu.edu/extension/documents/SET2010.pdf

North Carolina State University. (2012). REG 05.20.20—Reappointment, promotion, and tenure dossier format requirements. In *N.C. State University* *policies, regulations and rules*. Retrieved from http://policies.ncsu.edu/regulation/reg-05-20-20

O'Meara, K. (2005). Encouraging multiple forms of scholarship in faculty reward systems: Does it make a difference? *Research in Higher Education, 46*(5), 479–510. Retrieved from http://www.ccas.net/files/ADVANCE/Encouraging%20Multiple.pdf

Ramaley, J. A. (2000). Embracing civic responsibility. *AAHE Bulletin*, 9. Retrieved from http://www.aahea.org/articles/march00f2.htm

Ramaley, J. A. (2011). Students as scholars: Integrating research, education, and professional practice. In H. E. Fitzgerald, C. Burack, & S. D. Seifer (Eds.), *Handbook of engaged scholarship: Contemporary landscapes, future directions: Vol. 1. Institutional change* (pp. 353–368). East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University Press.

Rice, R. E. (2002). Beyond scholarship reconsidered: Toward an enlarged vision of the scholarly work of faculty members. N*ew Directions for Teaching and Learning, 2002*, 7–17. doi:10.1002/tl.51

Saltmarsh, J. (2010). Changing pedagogies. In H. E. Fitzgerald, C. Burack, & S. D. Seifer (Eds.), *Handbook of engaged scholarship: Contemporary landscapes, future directions: Vol. 1. Institutional change* (pp. 331–352). East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University Press.

Sandmann, L. R. (2012). Community engagement publication outlets. Retrieved from https://www.uidaho.edu/~/media/Files/orgs/Outreach/Office%20of%20Community%20Partnerships/community_engagement_pubs%208.22.12.ashx

Sandmann, L. R., Saltmarsh, J., & O'Meara, K.A. (2008). An integrated model for advancing the scholarship of engagement: Creating academic homes for the engaged scholar. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 12*(1), 47–64. Retrieved from http://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/index.php/jheoe/article/view/125

Seifer, S. D., Wong, K., Gelmon, S. B., & Lederer, M. (2009). The Community-engaged Scholarship for Health Collaborative: A national change initiative focused on faculty roles and rewards. *Metropolitan Universities, 20*(2), 5-21. Indiana University–Purdue University Indianapolis. Retrieved from ERIC database. (EJ 866771)

Sirkis, J. E. (2011). Development of leadership skills in community college department chairs. *Community College Enterprise, 17*(2), 46–61. Retrieved from http://www.schoolcraft.edu/pdfs/cce/17.2.46-61.pdf

Stanton, T. K. (2008). New times demand new scholarship: Opportunities and challenges for civic engagement at research universities. *Education, Citizenship and Social Justice, 3*(19), 21–42. Retrieved from http://esj.sagepub.com/content/3/1/19.refs.html

About the Authors

Patricia M. Sobrero, is a professor and Extension education specialist in Agricultural and Extension Education, and former associate vice chancellor, extension, engagement and economic development, at North Carolina State University. She helped

establish the Academy of Community Engagement Scholarship (ACES), and currently she is the president of the ACES board of directors. Dr. Sobrero received an Ed.D. in Educational Leadership, Teaching and Learning from George Peabody College for Teachers of Vanderbilt University.

Jay Jayaratne is as an associate professor and state leader for Extension program evaluation at North Carolina State University, Raleigh, North Carolina. He has more than 25 years of experience in extension program development, delivery, and evaluation including extension experience in Shri Lanka. He earned his Ph. D. from Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa.