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that mapping intersects of power and reciprocity, and attending to capacities for deliberative civic engagement and transformative learning, are crucial practices in effective community-engaged partnerships. These three vital practices contribute to the creation of conditions that nurture the emergence of individual, institutional, organizational, and social transformation generated through community-engaged scholarship.

Research Articles

This article describes the development of the Community-Based Learning (CBL) Scorecard by a grant-funded consortium of liberal arts institutions. The aim of the scorecard was to promote assessment that improves student learning with an instrument that employs a quantitative scale, allowing for benchmarking across institutions. Extensive interviews with faculty who participated in the pilot *(Charles & Choi, 2013)*, including specific perceptions of the value of using the scorecard to assess the students' CBL experience and improve learning outcomes, were reviewed. Results indicated that the CBL Scorecard, with appropriate administration, serves as an adaptable tool for assessment of CBL that can provide timely feedback and reminders of best practices to faculty. Increasing student response rates, the scorecard's value for faculty development, and improving the experience for community partners are discussed.

Although contemporary models of faculty involvement in publicly engaged scholarship recognize the important influence of disciplines on faculty members, few studies have investigated disciplinary variations empirically. This study used the Biglan classification of academic disciplines to analyze publicly engaged scholarly activities reported by faculty members during reappointment, promotion, and tenure review. The Biglan dimensions (pure/applied, soft/hard, life/

nonlife) were used to explore types of scholarly activity, intensity of activity, and degree of engagement. Using interpretive content analysis, we analyzed 171 reappointment, promotion, and tenure forms gathered from faculty members at one research-intensive, land-grant, Carnegie-engaged institution in the Midwest. Descriptive statistics revealed statistically significant disciplinary variations associated with all three Biglan dimensions. Study results provide evidence for moving beyond a universal, institutional approach to more nuanced discipline-specific policies, professional development programs, and support for faculty involved in publicly engaged scholarship.

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Joseph Gautner, Ph.D L.L.C

Catherine A. Hansman
Cleveland State University

It is common for universities that seek community partnerships to employ full-time staff, formally sanctioned as boundary spanners, to develop and manage such partnerships. These staff are frequently administrative or allied staff rather than tenure-track faculty or academic unit administrators. Given the multiple interests of universities and their community partners, it seems likely that boundary spanners attempting to design mutually beneficial relationships will experience role conflict as they seek to align diverse community and institutional agendas. This qualitative study explored the experience of role conflict as reported by university staff boundary spanners. This study found that role conflict was an integral part of the boundary spanner role and that boundary spanners exhibited two responses to role conflict: formative responses, directed toward continuing to seek mutual benefit, and adaptive responses, wherein mutual benefit was not pursued. External factors impacting role conflict were also identified.

Projects with Promise

134..... The Curriculum Innovation Canvas: A Design Thinking Framework for the Engaged Educational Entrepreneur

Chelsea Willness
University of Saskatchewan

Vince Bruni-Bossio
University of Saskatchewan

Integrating literature on entrepreneurial business models and community-based experiential learning, we propose a new frame-

work to advance the practice of curriculum innovation. Grounded in principles of design thinking, the curriculum innovation canvas provides a human-centered, collaborative, and holistic platform for instructors, curriculum developers, and administrators to engage in innovation and implementation of experiential courses or programs—particularly those that involve community or organizational partnerships. The canvas promotes a creative and fluid approach to curriculum development. It prompts the consideration of the value propositions offered to various stakeholders (students, community partners, faculty peers, etc.) as well as how to involve stakeholders in the development and implementation process toward mutually beneficial outcomes in a complex and challenging environment. Evidence from an extensive prototyping process indicates that it can effectively assist instructors, administrators, students, and community partners in a variety of contexts.

Book Reviews

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From the Editor…

Exploring Our Impact

"How do you capture impact?" For any community-engaged scholar or practitioner, this is a common refrain on campuses and among community partners. In the world of university–community engagement, what is meant by *impact* is an ongoing and contested question. In this issue of *JHEOE*, a recurring theme examined by authors is how to measure impact and, in turn, assess the quality of engaged scholarship and learning, along with its attendant partnerships. Capturing and presenting evidence for why the work we do as engaged scholars matters for community partners, students, and faculty, and has impact on the life and culture of an institution and a community, can be approached in diverse ways. In this issue, authors explore multiple avenues in demonstrating how our work has impact and how impact can be defined.

To explore this recurring thread and the concept of impact, this issue of *JHEOE* leads off with Garber and Adams's retrospective essay on a decade of community–university engagement work through the University of Georgia's Archway Partnership. The authors employ the collective impact model to analyze the principles that have guided the Archway Partnership and demonstrate how it functioned as a "backbone organization." Through examples and evidence from 10 years of community–university partnerships across the state of Georgia, they demonstrate useful strategies based in practice for achieving shared goals necessary for collective impact.

In another reflective essay, Davis, Kliewer, and Nicolaides present a hypothetical case study that examines how reciprocity and power in partnerships can be explicitly "mapped" in order to be understood by all partners. Using a framework for a deliberative civic engagement process drawing on democratic principles, the authors advance an approach to promoting transformative learning for all stakeholders that is a negotiation between the dynamics of power and mutual benefit that is often buried beneath the surface of partner relationships, but that can impact the health, quality, and success of the partnership and related outcomes.

Another dimension of understanding impact is assessing the quality of community-based experiences and whether a common assessment can be developed and implemented across institutions. Murphy and Flowers's study on the creation of the Community-

Based Learning (CBL) Scorecard addresses this question through a multi-institutional research project funded by a Teagle Foundation planning grant. This research sought to develop a quantitative instrument that provides feedback to faculty on ways to improve the student learning experience in CBL courses based on best practices identified from service-learning research. The rigorous process of developing the scorecard is documented in this study, and the authors also consider the purposes and applications of an assessment instrument focused not on evaluation of a course or faculty member, but on improving the quality of the student learning experience.

Understanding the influence of academic disciplines on the forms publicly engaged scholarship may take, and how the disciplines may impact faculty practice, is the main focus of a unique study conducted by Doberneck and Schweitzer. These researchers coded faculty promotion and tenure packages using the Biglan classification of academic disciplines. This framework provides a method for conducting a content analysis to look at the type, intensity, and degree of engagement in public scholarship activities faculty engage in, and whether these vary according to discipline. The findings of this research have implications for how institutions develop support, recognition, and eventual promotion expectations for faculty involved in publicly engaged scholarship based on disciplinary considerations, which in turn affect the diverse forms of engaged scholarly activity that they might undertake.

In the final research article of this issue, Gauntner and Hansman explore the concept of "role conflict" *(Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970)* that is experienced by university staff who function as boundary spanners in various community engagement roles and contexts. Interview participants in this qualitative, grounded theory study explore points of tension between the competing expectations, organizations, personal values, and other elements of their professional roles. This study also examines the strategies these boundary spanners employ in order to negotiate the competing interests and conflicts that are seemingly inherent in positions that must bridge organizational and sometimes cultural differences. Findings include recommendations for how institutions can reduce this role conflict experienced by higher education staff occupying these unique jobs.

How faculty create quality experiential learning courses that can have impact on students and community partners is the focus of this issue's Project With Promise. Willness and Bruni-Bossio introduce the curriculum innovation canvas, a tool that incor-

porates the principles of design thinking, such as collaboration and rapid prototyping, to facilitate creative and entrepreneurial thinking about the development of community-based learning experiences.

Once again, *JHEOE* features a diverse array of book reviews that remind us of the richness and breadth of engagement scholarship. Shaeffer leads off this issue's book reviews with an examination of *The Optimal Town–Gown Marriage* by Stephen Gavazzi. As the title suggests, Gavazzi explores relational aspects of institutions and their home communities, drawing from his experience as a dean at The Ohio State University at Mansfield. He further explores ways of gauging the quality of these relationships through his experience implementing the Optimal College Town Assessment (OCTA) tool as way of gathering perceptions and data from the community on the health of the town–gown relationship. Moving beyond town–gown relations to the vexing questions explored by faculty engaged with and immersed in communities in crisis, Renee Zientek reviews Reardon and Forester's edited volume, *Rebuilding Community After Katrina: Transformative Education in the New Orleans Planning Initiative*. According to Zientek, the contributors to this book illustrate the importance of putting into practice principles of good partnerships, and knowing the history and cultural landscape of a community in order to gain traction when working through a crisis together. Finally, Ann Vail offers a review of Nichols and Kay's book *Remaking Home Economics: Resourcefulness and Innovation in Changing Times*, which takes a historical look at the impact of the discipline and profession of home economics as it relates to everyday issues affecting people and communities.

As always, we thank the authors, peer reviewers, and associate editors of articles in this issue for their role in shaping these stories of impact and attempting to find ways to measure quality. With new ideas and findings that emerge from the long, hard work of engagement, articles in this issue pose provocative questions and illuminate research findings that we can learn from, implement, and, in turn, take a critical eye to as we explore new questions for scholarly inquiry.

Reference

Rizzo, J. R., House, R. J., & Lirtzman, S. I. (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 15,* 150–163.

Shannon O'Brien Wilder

Reflective Essays

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Achieving Collective Impact: Reflections on Ten Years of the University of Georgia Archway Partnership

Mel Garber and Katherine R. Adams

Abstract

Collective impact is a model for achieving tangible change and improvement in communities through a series of well-defined parameters of collaboration. This article provides a 10-year reflection on the University of Georgia Archway Partnership, a university–community collaboration, in the context of the parameters of collective impact. Emphasis is placed on the backbone organization and the opportunity for universities to serve as backbone organizations. The outcomes achieved through the Archway Partnership support the principles of collective impact and demonstrate the viability of a new model that could facilitate university–community engagement for regional and land-grant universities.

Introduction

Within higher education institutions, calls for engagement have been building the impetus to create partnerships with communities *(Boyer, 1991, 1996)*. This challenge paved the way for a change in what is thought of as citizenship, community engagement, and university–community partnerships. However, despite recent progress, researchers have found that community members recognize the inability of governments and existing societal structures to effectively address society's problems, and are now seeking alternatives that include more participant accountability *(Hanleybrown, Kania, & Kramer, 2012)*. Failures of seemingly promising endeavors are often associated with disparate interests, lack of coordination, and inadequate resources *(Kania & Kramer, 2011; Wandersman, Goodman, & Butterfoss, 2005)*. In 2011, Kania and Kramer proposed a new initiative designed to further collaborative partnerships in addressing these concerns: collective impact. This reflective essay will explore a sustained university–community partnership, the Archway Partnership, through the lens of collective impact theory as a model for an effective backbone organization. The essay includes the founding program director and co-creator's reflections on the Archway Partnership,

which spans 10 years and is intended to inform and build on the value of backbone organizations.

Understanding Collective Impact

Collective impact is a structured process that relies on the commitment of all stakeholders involved in partnerships to move beyond the initially proposed ideas and continuously work on addressing collectively agreed-upon larger social problems. Kania and Kramer *(2011)* stated that collective impact focuses on social problems within communities because this initiative is based on changing stakeholders' behaviors to bring about social change. Kania and Kramer found that successful collective impact initiatives possess five conditions: a common agenda, shared measurement systems, mutually reinforcing activities, continuous communication, and backbone support organizations.

Common Agenda

To form a common agenda, a group must hold a shared understanding of the problems confronting their communities and create a shared vision for approaching those issues. Additional research suggests that creating a common agenda requires establishing boundaries within the issues to be addressed and developing a strategic action framework *(Hanleybrown et al., 2012)*. Whether issue based, knowledge based, or geographically represented, these boundaries serve to create direction and clarity. As a means of generating a comprehensive understanding of relevant social issues, a strategic action framework is essential to building a shared agenda.

Shared Measurement

A shared measurement system reflects agreement on how outcomes will be evaluated through a mutual means of data collection and an accompanying collective process of analysis. Through this process, accountability is shared among participants, and various stakeholder groups benefit from an opportunity to learn. Edmondson and Hecht *(2014)* built on the concept of collective impact's measurement system by disaggregating data and sharing the independent results, thus furthering the impact of collected data. "Disaggregating data to understand what services best meet the needs of all [participants] enables communities to make informed decisions" *(Edmondson & Hecht, 2014, p. 6)*. Through this means, stakeholders can receive clearer evidence of all the vis-

ible disparities that may exist, and the collective impact agenda of large-scale social change is further supported.

Mutually Reinforcing Activities

When multiple organizations or participants act as isolated groups, the lack of interdependent concepts hinders progress toward community solutions. Collective impact involves the formation of a strategic plan for coordinating the various activities occurring within a diverse partnership to ensure continuously reinforcing mutual actions. "Each stakeholder's efforts must fit into an overarching plan if their combined efforts are to succeed" (*Kania & Kramer, 2011, p. 40)*.

Continuous Communication

Sandmann and Kliewer *(2012)* proposed that clear lines of communication between university–community partnership members can promote recognition of the visible and unseen structures that can impede reciprocity. Collective impact suggests that continuous communication and the creation of a common vocabulary are core for effective engagement *(Kania & Kramer, 2011)*. Keeping communication engaged throughout a partnership supports equity among partners. Listening to people can be an important technique to gain trust and ensure consistency among interdependent groups. Collective impact recognizes the value of maintaining a dialogue with all stakeholders to learn what knowledge, passion, and concerns exist, and how to communicate them to maximize their utilization for learning and problem solving.

Backbone Support Organizations

According to Kania and Kramer *(2011)*, "coordinating large groups in a collective impact initiative takes time and resources, [and] the expectation that collaboration can occur without a supporting infrastructure is one of the most frequent reasons why it fails" *(p. 40)*. They proposed that a backbone support organization is critical to collective impact. Backbone organizations have many roles, the most important of which are assisting with clarification of goals, managing the details of implementation, and facilitating communication. Possessing a dedicated staff who are separate from any participant organization and "who can plan, manage, and support the initiative through ongoing facilitation . . . needed for the initiative to function smoothly" *(p. 40)* is a core component. Backbone staff and functions can be shared across different mem-

bers of a partnership to assist in building group consensus, support, and trust.

Background activities play an important role in planning and sustaining successful collaborations. Backbone organizations provide direction, supportive backbone staff, improved communications across sectors, and backbone leadership *(Turner, Merchant, Kania, & Martin, 2012)*. Such organizations take into account the contextual aspects that go into planning initiatives, such as phase, capacity, geographic reach or scope, and structure. A supportive backbone organization is a vital key to sustained initiatives of collective impact.

The Archway Partnership

The Archway Partnership was created in 2005 after a comprehensive review of community-engaged programs at the University of Georgia (UGA) by its two major outreach units, Cooperative Extension and Public Service and Outreach, and was recognized by the Association of Public and Land-grant Universities as the Southern Region representative for the Magrath Award for community–university engagement in 2009 *(Garber, Creech, Epps, Bishop, & Chapman, 2010)*. All 17 academic colleges at UGA also had engagement programs; however, these were appropriately focused on serving their respective disciplines. The Archway Partnership was established to foster the UGA land-grant mission by engaging the entire university on community-identified needs. A key assumption was that an organization that added value to the community and the academic institution, as well as performing a neutral facilitator role, would enable greater collaboration within the community, within the institution, and between higher education and the community.

UGA stakeholders agreed to start the program on a small scale, relative to the ultimate vision of numerous programs geographically dispersed throughout Georgia. The first step was a one-county, pilot-scale program small enough in scope to allow correction of inevitable start-up problems but of sufficient scale to indicate the program's viability and scalability. A mutually agreed-upon minimum timeframe to achieve results and determine viability of the program was 2 years. In the initial discussions with the inaugural community, it was clearly articulated that the Archway Partnership was at the concept stage and needed a partner to help develop a program that could be shared with other communities. This created an atmosphere of entrepreneurship and leadership within the com-

munity. The community leaders saw their role as helping to develop something that could be shared and thus position their community as a leader in the state.

In the Archway Partnership process, two partnerships were created. One partnership was in the community and focused on economic development, and the other was on the UGA campus and focused on faculty and student involvement. This created a shared sense of responsibility and a strong desire not to fail. Now based in several counties around the state, Archway brings together stakeholders from across various sectors, such as business, local government, education, nonprofit organizations, and public health, and creates opportunities for community members to partner together in conjunction with assistance from UGA (and other entities such as other higher education organizations) in order to create sustainable change for complex social issues and economic development. In this role, Archway performed the essential activities of a backbone organization, thus facilitating collective impact in the participating communities.

Backbone Support Staff

The Archway Partnership's first action as a community backbone organization was to find and develop the staff to support the partnership development and efforts. The support staff of a backbone organization is vital to the achievement of collective impact *(Kania & Kramer, 2011)*. The Archway Partnership developed strong staff positions (director, operations coordinator, and Archway professional) and responsibilities to meet the needs of the backbone organization to ensure quality support and sustainability.

In the pilot stage, the heads of Public Service and Outreach and Cooperative Extension served as coleaders and worked as a team with the initial Archway professional and the chair of the community executive committee. The director position was formalized and staffed as a full-time position after the 2-year pilot stage, when the decision was made to expand the program to multiple communities in Georgia. The director's role evolved with expansion and maturation of the program so that in addition to personnel, budget, and planning functions, the position focused on development of new partnership communities (a process that generally required 12 to 18 months); formation of partnerships with academic colleges and public service units within UGA and with other University System of Georgia institutions, technical colleges, and state agen-

cies; setting the strategic direction of the program; and supporting the operations coordinators and Archway professionals.

Next, the operations coordinator position was created to facilitate access to higher education and other resources for the director and communities. Responsibilities included identifying emerging resource requirements, initiating relationship-building with appropriate academic units, coordinating work of the numerous graduate students, and working with academic faculty to develop meaningful internship and capstone experiences. The operations coordinator, along with the director, had responsibility for identification and development of the Archway Partnership communities.

The Archway professional facilitated community on-site daily activities and relationship building, student and faculty engagement, and implementation of results. This proved to be the most critical and treasured position in the Archway Partnership program. Although embedded in the community like the Cooperative Extension county agent position, the Archway professional was not represented as a content expert but rather as a skilled organizational facilitator. This allowed the Archway professional to perform the critical role of neutral third-party facilitator in the community, and to focus on mobilizing resources to address community-identified needs and issues. Within the community, the Archway professional facilitated the formation of the executive committee, which generally consisted of six to 12 representatives from key community organizations, elected and nonelected leaders, businesses, and nonprofits. The Archway professional and the executive committee meet monthly, solicit community input, make final decisions on priority areas, track progress of the work plan, and garner resources for work product development and implementation of results.

Archway and the University

In the early stages of partnership development, the community learned that one role of the Archway Partnership was connecting their needs to the vast array of resources at UGA and other institutions of higher education. Community partners developed genuine excitement as they began to think about the possibilities. It also became apparent that most community members have only a vague idea of what is available from higher education and how these resources can facilitate economic development. Although rich in resources, universities tend to exist in isolation from communities

that are need intensive but resource limited. This is especially true for smaller communities.

The engagement of academic faculty is important to a sustainable collective impact initiative. Most faculty are appointed to teaching and/or research positions, and thus their outreach activities are not necessarily supported by incremental compensation or recognized in the promotion and tenure process *(Holland, 1999)*. A key early assumption, influenced by faculty conversations over many years, was that faculty would like to share their knowledge and participate in engagement activities. Therefore, the Archway Partnership endeavored to make it easy for faculty to engage with communities, a simple but important operating principle. The operations coordinator position was able to facilitate the dialogue needed for understanding the interests of faculty and the constraints on their community engagement in order to enable maximum faculty participation. With a thorough understanding of community priorities and researcher interests, the Archway Partnership was able to create a competitive advantage for faculty seeking grants for applied community-based research.

University students began participating during the pilot phase, and it became readily apparent that their role, in addition to contributing to project outcomes, could be pivotal in bringing together university and community partners. Community partners also indicated that they were energized by students and wanted to be involved in the training of students during community-based projects *(Adams, 2014)*. At the same time, faculty became more engaged as student participation increased. The Archway Partnership managed the institutional process to help strive for constructive experiences and outcomes for community partners, faculty members, and students.

Archway Partnership as a Backbone Organization

Turner et al. *(2012)* consider backbone organizations the primary cause of the success or failure of collective impact initiatives. As defined by these theorists, backbone organizations are distinguished from other partners in that they seek to "improve social outcomes by organizing cross-sector groups of partners to transform an often inefficient, fragmented system" *(Turner et al, 2012, p. 3)*. The Archway Partnership was invited into communities that were composed of multiple cities, community organizations, and government agencies, and brought them to a space that enabled

shared communication to address their collective social needs. Defined as "the commitment of a group of important actors from different sectors to a common agenda for solving a specific social problem," collective impact theorizes that multisector partnerships are more effective than isolated approaches in addressing problems with no known solution *(Kania & Kramer, 2011, p. 36)*. The initiatives of collective impact focus on "a centralized infrastructure, a dedicated staff, and a structured process that leads to a common agenda" *(p. 38)*. Specifically, backbone organizations have been identified as pursuing six common activities: guiding vision and strategy; supporting aligned activities; establishing shared measures; building public will; advancing policy; and mobilizing funding. The Archway Partnership found evidence of these six common activities of backbone organizations within its mission (Table 1).

The Archway Partnership performed each of the functions of a backbone organization.

Guiding vision and strategy. It was established early in the start-up for each partnership that the proposed collaboration would be a partnership of equals between the community and the university, and the Archway Partnership would serve as a neutral facilitator for all partners. The community was assured that the Archway Partnership would not be an expert-driven model but would start with community-identified needs. The strategy was to start small, develop local and campus ownership, and then expand the geographic reach.

Initially the two goals of the Archway program were (a) creation of a cohesive working relationship within the community so the community priorities could be developed and (b) the formation of a mutually beneficial relationship between the community and the university. Early in the formation of the community partnership, it was important to emphasize that the community needed to establish its goals and priority issues. Community members tended to expect the university to determine the priorities or solutions. The university helped to inform the process of priority setting and acquisition of resources but did not make final decisions.

At the community level, one challenge was translating the needs and interests of individual organizations into a community vision and list of priorities. Initially, each executive committee member advocated for the interest of the organization they represented as top priority. The result was an array of silo-based priorities but no

Table 1. Best Practices for Backbone Organizations in Collective Impact

Backbone Organization Activities	Archway Partnership Best Practices
Guiding vision and strategy	Archway as a neutral facilitator Establish community-based priorities Reciprocity between university and community through creation of mutually beneficial projects
Supporting aligned activities	Annual listening sessions to solicit community-wide input to develop project goals Collaborative dissemination of implementations and outcomes Archway Professional serves to align the overall process
Establishing shared measures	Measurements change as partnership evolves More active and diverse participants; the increase of community progress Community and university share responsibility for outcomes through established commitments to implementation of project outcomes
Building public will	Create early, strong sense of local ownership Identification of engaged citizens and university partners Involvement of experiential learning opportunities for students and faculty
Advancing policy	Ongoing communication with key decision makers Partnering with influential entities (chamber of commerce, board of education) Policy decisions should align with priorities and resources
Mobilizing funding	Shared financial investment from all partners Annual MOUs and funding commitment renewals provide incentive and sustainability Joint financial support of backbone organizations establishes mutual accountability

identification of community priorities. Eventually executive committee members were asked to check their organizational hats at the door and to wear their shared community hats. This helped everyone to move past their individual organizations and think about their common or overlapping priorities. Establishing community-identified priorities before utilizing university resources made it possible to achieve trust and form reciprocal relationships. There proved to be sufficient opportunities to share new technolo-

gies, resources, and skills of the university, which in turn influenced the final priorities.

An example of guiding strategies for collective impact can be seen in results obtained by the Archway Executive Committee in Dalton–Whitfield County in 2009–2010. Through a community-wide visioning process that reached hundreds of citizens, economic development, education, and a vibrant living environment were identified as top priority areas. Over the next year, hundreds of citizens engaged in issue workgroups to address the long-term goals the visioning process had identified in each of these areas. Through this process, local leaders began to notice a trend. Regardless of the goal the issue workgroups coalesced around, the tactics involved early intervention for the next generation of the workforce. As a result, the community embarked on a multifaceted workforce development effort. Local leaders worked with the Technical College System of Georgia to bring Georgia Northwestern Technical College to the local Career Academy campus. The local University System of Georgia institution, Dalton State University, reached out to area manufacturers to create long-term plans for workforce development needs. The Chamber of Commerce hired its first workforce development coordinator, who spearheaded career exposure programs for high schoolers, as well as a design, engineering, and manufacturing camp for middle schoolers. The development of this cohesive vision for strategies to guide the life of the programs demonstrates how long-term ventures can be developed and implemented.

Supporting aligned activities. Generating and sustaining enthusiasm for complex community work over long periods of time has proven to be a challenge for collaborations within a community *(Gray, 1989; Kegler, Rigler, & Honeycutt, 2010)* and between university and community *(Hawkins, Shapiro, & Fagan, 2010)*. The steps developed through the Archway Partnership that proved effective for creation of aligned activities began with annual listening sessions with the broader community and solicitation of input on future priorities, and continued with regular monthly updates for the executive committee regarding current projects, a cumulative list of completed projects, and implementation status. Another effective support process was the dissemination of outcomes and implementations. These were communicated within the community by publishing project progress in local news media and social media, and within the institution by reporting the progress and outcomes of the involved student and faculty member to their academic department and college. A culture was developed through

the executive committee to pause and celebrate small accomplishments on a regular basis, which in turn energized the group to prepare for future activities.

The Archway professional position served a critical role in the overall functioning of the process in the community by ensuring that community organizations and resources were coordinated in the establishment of priorities, completion of projects, and implementation of results. In particular, the position supported alignment of activities when the process occurred over several years and involved numerous community and higher education partners. Aligning the scope and timetable of community needs with the academic timetable of semesters and internships was a challenge that the partnership met primarily through clear understanding of community priorities, early adjustment of expectations on the part of the community, and utilizing a mix of undergraduate and graduate students to ensure steady availability of resources.

Establishing shared measures. In the community, the measurement of outcomes changed with the duration of engagement. In the beginning, attendance and active participation at the executive committee meetings was a key barometer of community interest. The number of active projects became more important over the course of the first year. Eventually, the key measures included the number of issue workgroups and implemented projects. Of equal importance was the number of community participants and the diversity of participants, with particular attention to representation of groups not generally involved in community decision making. In 12 community programs conducted over 10 years, the best progress occurred in communities with the largest number of active volunteers and the greatest diversity of participants.

In several communities, the partners revealed that university faculty and students had previously been involved in projects. However, it seemed that little in the way of information or work products actually resulted, and thus these projects yielded a lack of recognizable change. It was acknowledged that the community and the students and faculty shared responsibility for the outcome. There was a strong desire to ensure implementation of findings, recommendations, and results from faculty and student projects. Therefore, a commitment was required of both partners to stay engaged until recommendations and results were implemented and change had occurred. Providing feedback to faculty and students proved to be one of the most important steps for ensuring university faculty and student enthusiasm and continued involvement.

Measured achievements were influenced not only by projects completed but implementation of plans and a visible effect in the community. Executive committee methods evolved toward earlier discussion of the likelihood of implementation before committing to a project. This focused efforts on projects that were not only important but also likely to be implemented. In most programs, the result was a mix of small projects perceived as easily implemented and a few longer term projects that presented more of an implementation challenge. Implementing numerous small projects with a common goal had the cumulative effect of enhancing sustainability in the community and on campus. It also provided the basis for securing greater resources for the larger long-term projects.

A key responsibility of the community was to articulate goals and prioritize needs so efforts could be focused on the top priorities. This was one of the most important responsibilities of the community and one that was often difficult to achieve. It required that multiple segments of the community come together and consider the needs of the entire community, not just individual groups. An example of this process occurred in an East Georgia community, Washington County, that identified the need for additional health care professionals, including medical doctors and registered nurses. An Archway Partnership community group consisting of hospital administrators, medical doctors, nurses, public health department personnel, and interested citizens was formed to identify specific needs and develop strategies. With the Archway professional serving as facilitator, the community group concluded that the initial need was for a larger number of registered nurses (RNs), and the preferred strategy for filling this need was to provide additional training for existing licensed practical nurses (LPNs) and emergency medical technicians (EMTs). The partnership decided to assess interest from the local region in an expedited LPN to RN bridge program, which ultimately included the six contiguous counties where most hospital staff resided. A survey conducted by the Archway Partnership, with assistance from UGA faculty, revealed a high level of interest in the surrounding communities. As a result of the survey, the local technical college, Oconee Fall Line Technical College, hosted an online LPN/EMT to RN bridge program developed by Dalton College. By 2010, the program had graduated 27 students. At the end of 2014, the program had graduated a total of 262 RNs, with a 98% pass rate on the state board exam. The early stage priority setting and strategy development were key to developing a program that was effective and sustainable. The collaborative efforts of the community, the Archway Partnership, the local

technical college, and a University System of Georgia institution resulted in an ongoing program that is addressing the critical need for health care professionals and benefiting the local and regional economy.

Building public will. To ensure a high level of involvement and enthusiasm by community members in the Archway Partnership, it was considered important to create a strong sense of community ownership early in the process. This was achieved through a commitment to two principles: The work plan was driven by issues of greatest importance to the community, and the partnership operated on a shared governance and decision making model so that all parties acted as equal partners. This gave the community partners confidence that their investment of time and money would be directed to issues of greatest importance locally. On the university's part, this required that the Archway Partnership spend substantial up-front time helping the community organize and determine their priorities. Once the priority needs were identified, university resources could be engaged.

The building of public will on campus was aided primarily through involvement of students and facilitation of a meaningful initial work experience. The involvement of undergraduate and graduate students led to greater faculty involvement and eventually administrative support. The rallying of community and university involvement was greatly enhanced by sharing stories from student portfolios; college administration shared these stories with alumni. The sharing of faculty and student achievement stories in the community through feedback of this information to students and faculty members generated enthusiasm and renewed commitment in the community and university.

The building of public will occurred in the community progressively over time through several actions. In the beginning, identification and engagement of citizens who exemplified good leadership was critical. These boundary spanners *(Adams, 2014)* quickly understood the potential of the Archway Partnership and generally engaged the initial core of motivated community leaders. Community listening sessions during the start-up phase and annually thereafter increased community commitment and evolved into participation in issue workgroups. The presentation by issue workgroup members to the executive committee also added to understanding of the process and sustained participation to project completion. The longer term driver of community involvement came from the broader community transformation that occurred. For instance, recognition at every level in the community that educa-

tion is important and must be a community priority, not just a school priority, energized several communities. The involvement of newly trained leaders led to the formation of new organizations and engagement of new citizen groups, which served also to energize and sustain the process.

An example of community transformation was Dalton–Whitfield County, which had experienced a decade of rapid growth in the Hispanic population. The parents generally did not have a high school diploma and rarely attained a postsecondary degree, yet their children represented the majority of elementary school students. With the long-term viability of the community in mind, the Archway Partnership Executive Committee focused on preparing children and their parents for kindergarten. The priority, viewed as critical, was to address the birth-to-5 segment of the population. Stakeholders from industry, education, the chamber of commerce, and local education groups formed Readers to Leaders, an initiative that served as an umbrella for many birth–work education initiatives. The local library established a workforce development center to provide citizens with resources and classes. A local First Five task force was created to address prenatal to pre-K gaps. The local Northwest Georgia Healthcare Partnership began efforts to launch a prenatal care program for uninsured mothers. In addition to helping children and parents learn to read, the initiative helped integrate the Hispanic population into the community, since all citizens had a common goal of enhancing the education of children. In this example, the four core beliefs were that (1) healthy communities support education from birth to work, (2) teachers are everywhere, not just in the classroom, (3) early investments in education have a higher return, and (4) community engagement is essential. The results of this program demonstrated that building grassroots programming toward public will can guide program development.

Advancing policy. In the early stages of the Archway Partnership, a common frustration was the lack of implementation of recommended and completed projects. This was addressed in part through more extensive and ongoing communication with public and private decision makers, which allowed for timely policy decisions and alignment of priorities and resources. In addition, the Archway Partnership platform provided a neutral table in the community where other higher education institutions from the University System of Georgia (USG) and the Technical College System of Georgia (TCSG) could cooperate as partners, an important policy initiative for both systems. During a span of 10 years,

about 50% of the USG and TCSG institutions participated in the Archway Partnership with the 12 Archway Partnership communities. In some communities, these institutions were asked to serve on the governing executive committee, further enhancing cooperation between higher education institutions and communities.

A key policy initiative in several communities was improvement of graduation rates and workforce preparation. In one rural Georgia community, Pulaski County, this was accomplished through development of a local leadership program and 501(c)(3) nonprofit organization, Pulaski Tomorrow, which empowered graduates to develop specific leadership initiatives. The leadership program has continually increased community participation and deepened the relationship with area technical colleges as well as UGA. In 2014, the organization partnered with the local board of education and the chamber of commerce to implement a similar leadership curriculum for high school students to address high school completion rates, postsecondary education, and life skills. Life League, a program to help at-risk youth prepare for postsecondary education, was created. The organization initially used basketball as a motivator to get youth involved, and then utilized basketball sessions to instill interest in postsecondary education. During an early meeting, the students were asked if they had considered postsecondary education, and only one of 30 students raised their hand. To encourage students to envision themselves in a place of higher education, the Archway Partnership hosted their championship basketball game on the UGA campus. Their visit included touring the campus and, at the end of the day, meeting with UGA Admissions. Life League has helped over 300 at-risk young men and women prepare for a bright future. Participants in the program graduated from high school at a 91% rate, nearly 20 points higher than the local and state average. In post survey self-assessments, all participants responded that the program had improved their leadership and life skills.

Mobilizing funding. In recognizing an important effect of mobilized and shared funding on successful collective impact initiatives, Kania and Kramer *(2011)* found that "funders must help create and sustain the collective processes, measurement reporting systems, and community leadership that enable cross-sector coalitions to arise and thrive" *(p. 41)*. The Archway Partnership was structured to ensure that the community and university partners had a vested interest in a positive outcome. In addition to the commitment to focus on community needs, joint financial support of the backbone organization (Archway Partnership) established

mutual accountability. The university and community agreed on the total annual contribution required to operate the program, and the community decided how to share costs among members of the executive committee. This kept responsibility for the community contribution at the local level and not with the university. Although the Archway professional facilitated the annual memorandum of understanding (MOU) renewal, the primary responsibility for securing local funds resided with the community. Contributions varied among community funding partners, but an equitable sharing was maintained so one partner did not appear to "own" the program or carry undue influence. For instance, if the county commission contributed 50% of the funds, other partners tended to view the Archway Partnership as a county program, when the Archway Partnership goal was to establish a community program. Annual MOUs and funding commitments provided incentives to all partners to achieve measurable results so they could be accountable to constituents. As the backbone organization, the Archway Partnership served as a neutral third-party facilitator within the community and contributed financially. Each member of the executive committee contributed to funding unless exempted by consensus of the group. The university established the total funding needed for basic operations and institutional staff. Additional funds needed for special studies or project implementation were secured from funding sources in the community.

The Archway Partnership ensured that partnering communities were always motivated to participate in the partnership. This was accomplished in part by requiring the communities to contribute financially and to renew their financial commitment on an annual basis. Communities that recognized the value of shared buy-in to the collaboration proved to be highly motivated partners with the desire to see changes through to implementation. The initial funding of the initial community established the parameters used throughout the subsequent partnerships. The two internal UGA partners and the community, Colquitt County, each provided one third of the funding to form the first partnership. This ratio of funding demonstrated both that the university was serious about working with the community and that the community needed to contribute to funding of the project. Additional funding for specific projects and for implementation was generally forthcoming since it was well established that these were high-priority community projects and goals. For instance, Colquitt County, located about a 4-hour drive from Athens, addressed the issue of distance and housing of long-term visitations by purchasing a house for

use by Archway Partnership interns. The Archway professional also assisted communities with obtaining grants from various foundations, industry, and state agencies to support implementation of projects. A College of Public Health researcher obtained a 5-year USDA grant in which the reviewers cited the existing relationship in the Archway Partnership community as a competitive advantage over other applicants. The Archway Partnership provided a platform for the community and university researchers to discuss key research needs, and these discussions guided researchers as they determined grants to seek. The executive committee partners also assist in providing annual financial support to cover ongoing personnel and operating expenses for the Archway Partnership. For instance, when the executive committee includes a representative of the county commission government, it provides an opportunity for direct questioning by the commissioners and a better understanding of projects pursued and future hurdles. This is much more effective than a presentation at the end of the project, followed by a request for funds. Commissioners can share this information with constituents and plan months in advance for financial resources required for future programs.

Reflections and Recommendations

As this 10-year retrospective indicates, the Archway Partnership clearly encompasses the roles and characteristics of a backbone organization, and the overall initiatives of collective impact theory apply to its functions. The establishment of a common agenda, shared measurement, mutually reinforcing activities, continuous communication, and a backbone support organization were very important to addressing the larger social impact of collaboration within the Archway Partnership. The Archway Partnership developed several best practices that reinforce the five conditions of collective impact (Table 2) as described in the literature.

Upon the reflection of these activities, a number of key points emerge as recommendations to those seeking to engage in collaborative partnerships. These key points include creating a new model, practicing leadership development, valuing backbone organization staff, and creating a sustainable program.

Table 2. Best Practices of Collective Impact

Conditions of Collective Impact Theory	Archway Partnership Best Practices
Common agenda *All participants have a shared vision for change, including a common understanding of the problem and a joint approach to solving it through agreed-upon actions*	Priorities developed by community and not by university, although facilitated by university Not an expert-driven process but rather a mobilization of university resources in response to identified community needs University performs proactive backbone organization role rather than a passive anchor organization role
Shared measurement *Collecting data and measuring results consistently across all participants ensures efforts remain aligned and participants hold each other accountable*	Start with simple, easy-to-measure results that do not require much time by community Focus on implemented results and impact and not reports/recommendations that usually sit on a shelf
Mutually reinforcing activities *Participant activities must be differentiated while still being coordinated through a mutually reinforcing plan of action.*	Cost sharing by university and community to enhance ownership by both parties Leadership development achieved through the Archway process to build local capacity
Continuous communication *Consistent and open communication is needed across the many players to build trust, assure mutual objectives, and create common motivation*	Monthly status updates to community executive committee on projects and implementation of results Regular articles in local news media on priorities, student and faculty involvement, and resultant changes in the community Circulate community articles on faculty and students to college administration, who in turn share with alumni
Backbone support organization *Creating and managing collective impact requires a separate organization(s) with staff and a specific set of skills to serve as the backbone for the entire initiative and coordinate participating*	Archway Professional serves as neutral third-party facilitator in community Archway Professional is an organizational facilitator rather than content expert

Note: Adapted from *Kania & Kramer, 2011*

Creating a New Model

The Archway Partnership was created to help the University of Georgia continue its historic mission as a land-grant institution connecting the university to the people of Georgia. The university had a proud and long tradition of community engagement

through units such as Public Service and Outreach and Cooperative Extension. The academic colleges had outreach programs appropriately geared toward continuing education of their alumni and affiliated constituents. What appeared to be missing was a mechanism to facilitate connecting the resources of the 17 academic colleges to the priorities of communities for the advancement of economic and community development. The Archway Partnership incorporated several features of Cooperative Extension, such as an embedded position in the community, but it differed from Cooperative Extension in that it connected all academic colleges at UGA to the community, and it was a time-limited program (albeit of several years' duration) intended to build capacity in the community to continue the program once the formal relationship ended. This resulted in ongoing community conversation about how to make sure the process continued once UGA ended the formal phase, which in turn made sustainability an ongoing part of the conversation. This approach allowed the Archway Partnership to shift resources to other communities and kept the overall cost of the program within the realities of today's public funding. Another important distinction from existing UGA community engagement programs was that the Archway Partnership did not develop or deliver its own programs, which enabled the organization to perform the critical and needed role of third-party facilitator in the community and on campus. It was found that it is important when creating university–community partnerships that the community organization is viewed as an equal partner. University personnel may bring certain technical information, but community leaders have a deep understanding of issues and requirements for implementation of technology or practices.

Leadership Development

Creation of a new model for interacting with communities required creation of new leadership development within the backbone organization and within the community. The Archway Partnership performed a different role from other community engagement organizations, and the Archway professional was the key position within the backbone organization for success in the community. Archway professionals needed to work effectively with a diverse set of community and university leaders and to navigate community and university politics. Archway professionals came from diverse educational backgrounds and prior work experience. The selection criteria emphasized facilitation and leadership skills as opposed to content expertise. Archway Professionals received

extensive ongoing professional development through facilitation training, in-service training through bimonthly Archway meetings, and professional development seminars related to community priorities. Community leadership development occurred through the monthly community partner meetings where key issues were discussed and solutions identified. Each of the community members became more informed regarding their community and how to engage others within and outside the community to help address local needs and opportunities. The process employed by the Archway Partnership became a leadership development process for the community. The process was consistently praised by the community as a great way to develop a new and diverse pool of leaders.

Leadership development during the direct involvement of the Archway Partnership as the backbone organization (usually 5–7 years) is critical to sustaining the process once the program relocates to another community. Although the Archway Partnership has so far graduated only a few communities, successful continuation has been enhanced by strong local leadership and the continued functioning of established issue work groups that appreciate the need to function as facilitators of broad community needs. However, it has also been apparent that a neutral backbone organization is critical to a high level of community accomplishment.

Value of Backbone Organization Staff

The Archway Partnership staff was instrumental in the achievement of community goals and enhancement of university participation. Contributors ranged from the Archway professional, who nurtured the process within the community by facilitating priority setting, keeping the community partnership together, and ensuring implementation of projects, to the operations coordinators and director, who cultivated academic partnerships and managed student involvement. The Archway organization clearly demonstrated the necessity and benefits of a university-staffed backbone organization. The Archway Partnership was able to foster community collaboration that previously had been difficult to achieve and assist communities in accessing higher education resources. It created a seamless transition from community to campus and campus to community. The process started with formation of the local community group and identification of priorities and subsequent conveyance to the operations coordinator on the UGA campus. Prior to discussion of specific needs, the operations coordinator developed an understanding of the operation of each college and identified one or more key contacts. The connection between commu-

nity and academic unit was simplified to a single clearly identified person in Archway, the operations coordinator, who served as the intake and coordination portal and who interacted with one person in each academic college (usually the internship coordinator or associate dean for outreach and engagement).

Alignment of needs from the community vis-à-vis the operating constraints on campus was an iterative process. The communities were particularly interested in receiving a work product that could be implemented or built upon by subsequent students. The managed process implemented by the Archway Partnership helped each participant (community, student, and faculty member) understand their role and the expectations of the other partners. Once the community and academic unit were in contact, the Archway professional monitored and provided guidance to achieve timely delivery of a work product while ensuring that student and faculty needs were met. The Archway professionals have been seen as the connectors and facilitators of the programs, and the community members perceive the role as very connected to the community *(Tetloff, 2012)*.

Creating a Sustainable Program

Several early-stage decisions on approach, community engagement, organization structure, and campus incentives have been key to the pilot, expansion to eight simultaneous programs, and sustainability of the Archway Partnership throughout 10 years and counting. This suggests that sustainability should be considered at the early stages of program formation. One key recommendation is a clear understanding of the incentives for each partner to come to, and stay at, the table of collaboration. The engagement effort must be a win-win situation for the community and university to be sustainable over a long period of time. Creating ownership on the part of the community partner was key to their continued involvement as they dealt with very difficult issues. Local ownership was cultivated and maintained by focusing on priorities determined by the community; establishing a local executive committee where higher education and community partners sought consensus; maintaining shared financial support for the backbone organization (Archway Partnership) and the community, which created mutual accountability; celebrating small achievements; and maximizing visibility and communications in the community. On campus, the partnership was sustained by ensuring that academic faculty and students benefited from the program. For students, the real-world needs of communities represented valuable experiential learning opportu-

nities to apply their classrooms skills. In short, sustainability was achieved by ensuring that both the community and the university benefited.

Conclusion

Collective impact suggests that viable partnerships depend on the implementation of certain conditions, as well as backbone organizations that play an essential role in providing the tools, support, and strategies for the achievement of productive collaboration *(Kania & Kramer, 2011)*. The success of the Archway Partnership serves as evidence for the value of collective impact theory as a foundation for an effective backbone organization. This reflective essay explored this theory using case studies and experiences of the founding program director and co-creator of the Archway Partnership from a 10-year period to demonstrate the value of backbone organizations. The director also shared reflections and recommendations for future collaborators within the higher education system. Creating a new model, practicing leadership development, valuing backbone organization staff, and creating a sustainable program were areas of achievement associated with the Archway Partnership.

In addition to the many generic features of collective impact and backbone organizations, the Archway Partnership illustrates a number of characteristics specific to higher education: (a) Institutions of higher education can perform the role of the backbone organization in communities; (b) communities need a trusted facilitator organization to help bridge the inevitable divisions that occur, and higher education is uniquely situated in society to perform the role of neutral facilitator; (c) students want to give back to communities and the state that educated them, but a mechanism is needed to enable them to engage in a meaningful manner; (d) faculty are generally interested in giving back and applying their research, but because of teaching and research time constraints, a mechanism is needed to simplify faculty engagement in current high-priority community needs; and (e) resources are available for this type of work once the program has demonstrated a willingness to work on priority local needs and work products have been generated and implemented. The Archway process created a system change in the communities as individual organizations that previously worked in isolation began to ask, "Who can I collaborate with?" as an early step in achieving their goals. These individual organizations began to talk about their community needs and goals and found that seeking the resources of external partners would

develop their needs while sharing their experiences with the academic community. Evidence that the Archway Partnership changed the relationship between Georgia communities and the University of Georgia comes from a partner in Colquitt County who captured the changed relationship between community and higher education during a meeting of Archway communities: "Before the Archway Partnership, we never thought to reach out to UGA for help; now they are always in the conversation." The Archway Partnership demonstrates the effectiveness of collective impact as an approach to community and economic development; further, it shows that higher education can play a key role in achieving collective impact by serving as a backbone organization.

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Power and Reciprocity in Partnerships: Deliberative Civic Engagement and Transformative Learning in Community-Engaged Scholarship

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Abstract

The purpose of this work is to assist partners in identifying, naming, and facilitating dynamic relational forces and learning processes that shape the effectiveness of community engagement practice and partnerships. We offer a hypothetical case to assist in framing and discussing concepts of reciprocity and power in partnerships and how these dynamics can be mediated through practices and processes of civic engagement and transformative learning. We advocate that mapping intersects of power and reciprocity, and attending to capacities for deliberative civic engagement and transformative learning, are crucial practices in effective community-engaged partnerships. These three vital practices contribute to the creation of conditions that nurture the emergence of individual, institutional, organizational, and social transformation generated through community-engaged scholarship.

Introduction

Adaptive challenges faced by campuses and communities, by definition, require new paradigms of knowing and understanding in order to intervene in ways that catalyze progress on important issues *(Chrislip & O'Malley, 2013; Heifetz, Grashow, & Linsky, 2009)*. This essay discusses the implications of a conceptual framework that intersects the notions of relational power *(Rowlands, 1997)* and generative reciprocity *(Dostilio et al., 2012; Gutmann & Thompson, 1996)* through deliberative civic engagement and transformative learning practices and processes. We consider how acknowledging and mapping enactments of power will open conditions for promoting generative reciprocity in community–campus partnerships. Likewise, understanding reciprocity from the perspective of manifestations of power *(Rowlands, 1997)* reinforces the civic engagement and transformative learning necessary to increase the effectiveness of community-engaged partnerships and scholarship.

Community-engaged scholarship (CES) has a role in making progress on addressing tough social challenges and improving practices of democracy. When partners employ deliberative civic engagement activities in which intersections of power and reciprocity can be illuminated and considered, CES increases the possibilities for functioning effectively in its progressive democratic role. In an iterative cycle, when scholar-practitioners and community leaders more effectively map power and reciprocity within deliberative community engagement practices, they increase capacities associated with more effectively managing partnership power inequities. Our purpose is to provide a conceptual framework to promote identifying, naming, and facilitating these dynamic relational forces and learning processes that shape the effectiveness of community engagement partnerships.

In order to more clearly identify the constructs considered, we will offer a hypothetical community engagement example. After presenting the example, we will clarify our use of key concepts as they are situated in adult learning, leadership, and civic engagement literatures. At points in the discussion, we return to the example to demonstrate how the constructs might link to community-engaged scholarship practices in a theory-to-practice progression and, finally, we offer conclusions about application and further research.

Hypothetical Example

A community-engaged scholarship (CES) project is being designed to consider how local neighborhoods can more actively participate in managing the quality of water in the area. The community–campus partnership hopes to balance economic needs with principles of environmental sustainability. Water-use issues have historically been contested in this particular region. Not only is water quality essential to industry, but a sensitive local ecosystem hinges on clean groundwater. The partnership is a community-engaged scholarship project designed to consider mechanisms and pathways that offer neighborhoods increased responsibility in managing and enforcing water quality measures. The partners are recognizing that improving water quality in the region through the active participation of local neighborhoods falls into the category of adaptive challenges.

An adaptive challenge, by definition, requires new ways of knowing and understanding issues. In this case, participants will leverage community-engaged scholarship with the expectation of generating transformative learning across community–campus

partnerships. The goal is that deliberative civic engagement and transformative learning processes will uncover ways in which the entire community feels ownership of the solution and actively participates in the self-rule/regulatory process. The assumption is that if a balance between concerns for water quality and economic growth is to be realized, the community will have to approach this challenge equipped with new knowledge and alternative ways of thinking about the issue, as well as increasing deliberative democratic processes in their engagement.

The community–campus partnership includes students, faculty, professional organizations, civic organizations, and concerned citizens from the various neighborhoods connected to the project. Throughout the design process all of the stakeholders have been informed and have discussed how community-engaged scholarship differs from expert-driven models. Everybody involved in the project has made a good faith effort to shape the partnership in ways that conform to the principles of community engagement (partnership, cocreation, community values, reciprocity, mutual benefit, exchange of knowledge and resources, etc.). The community is supportive of cocreating teaching processes and outcomes with professors and students, and research processes and outcomes with faculty, which can be cycled as new knowledge about the issues.

The participants have also recognized the need to create new ways of knowing and learning in order to respond to this particular adaptive challenge. The community-engaged scholarship plan includes water quality tests, citizen science, traditional surveys, dialogue, interviews, public drama performances, and an art collective at a local farmers market. The partners have intentionally designed a scholarly process that includes multiple ways of knowing, as well as a range of scholarly and research methods. Using a range of ways of knowing in the community-engaged scholarship process is intended to enable connection with a wider range of community stakeholders.

Despite all of the intentional partnership-building efforts, the community inquiry process is currently heading toward an impasse. If the potential stalemate is not recognized and mapped, communication and power enactment norms will continue to structure power differentials and potentially undermine the quality of the partnership. The emerging community and partnership tension can be viewed through the lens of communication and power enactments, as well as transformative learning and deliberative civic engagement.

The business advocacy groups in the community have historically had significant influence in the region. In fact, key industries have previously commissioned and made investments in expert-driven studies to determine economic growth strategies. Acting in their best interests, representatives from the business community are leveraging professional jargon, media outlets, and results from their studies to influence the design of the community-engagement process in ways that differ from those that all stakeholders had initially agreed upon.

The environmental group would prefer a strategy that considers how the scholarly process can support environmental sustainability and a form of economic growth that is focused on improving the quality of jobs that exist in the region. The proposed growth rates from the environmental group do not align with those of the progrowth business community, which would prefer a strategy that is focused on development and creating new jobs. The quality of the jobs that are created and future environmental impacts are not a primary concern for the progrowth business community.

At this point in the project, before further decisions are considered, the partners agree to create a time and space in a neutral location that will be facilitated by a neutral moderator for all involved to voice their positions, values, risks, concerns, fears, wishes, and demands. The facilitated process provides a holding environment in which the partners may openly and transparently share all information about the project that might have been previously hidden or withheld. The goal of the facilitated discussion is for all to listen and be heard; for all to *see* and *be seen* by themselves and all others.

The partners are aware that this process will require time, funds, and an experienced facilitator, and they have been proactive in planning for this contingency. They realize that this type of open dialogue holds risks for all stakeholders, but the greater risk is the failure of the project to reach its primary goal, which is for the entire community to claim ownership of the solutions and equitably participate in the decision-making process. The leaders recognize a need for partners to engage in mapping of power and reciprocity, deliberative civic engagement, and transformative learning. If they do not take time to create a holding environment that will allow these processes to emerge, the continuation of the project could be at risk.

Literature Review of Key Concepts

We will consider first our use of five key concepts in adult learning, leadership, and civic engagement literatures, and connect these to our hypothetical example for clarification. We are interested in constructs of power, reciprocity, the intersects of power and reciprocity, deliberative civic engagement, and transformative learning. Foucault *(1980, 1990, 2001)* and Rowlands *(1997)* have developed theories of power that have informed the framework under discussion. Dostilio et al. *(2012)*; Hoyt *(2011)*; Jameson, Clayton, and Jaeger *(2010)*; Janke *(2012)*; and Saltmarsh and Hartley *(2011)* offer constructs of reciprocity that connect with our framework. Himmelman *(2001)* suggests a continuum that reflects the intersects of power and reciprocity. We turn to Gutmann and Thompson *(1996)*, Nabatchi *(2012)*, and Offe and Preuss *(1990)*, for our consideration of deliberative civic engagement processes and activities. Finally, we review the ways in which the thinking of Drago-Severson *(2004)*, Mezirow *(1990, 1991, 1998)*, and Taylor *(2009)* influence our integration of transformative learning theory and practices into community-engaged partnerships.

Constructs of Power—Foucault, Rowlands

Systems that connect and network people, including community-engaged scholarship partnerships, inherently involve elements of power *(Sandmann & Kliewer, 2012)*. The contextual and social features of community-engaged scholarship produce a matrix of power relations that impacts effectiveness. Foucault *(1990)* defined power as the

> multiplicity of force relations immanent in the sphere in which they operate and which constitute their organization; as the process which, through ceaseless struggles and confrontations, transforms, strengthens, or reverses them; as the support which these force relations find in one another, thus forming a chain or a system, or on the contrary, the disjunctions and contradictions which isolate them from one another; and lastly, as the strategies in which they take effect, whose general design or institutional crystallization is embodied in the state apparatus, in the formation of the law, in the various social hegemonies. *(pp. 92–93)*

Foucault's understanding of power includes an account of both the production of the subject and of the subjugation of the

object within *force relations*. Notably, Foucault's description of power offers no judgment of power relations; that is, as conceived by Foucault, power is neither positive nor negative; it just *is*. For Foucault, power is not so much agency that people possess as it is the sociopolitical economic contexts in which we exist. Yet, in the contexts of community-engaged partnerships, we also recognize inequalities and the negative impacts of power enactments by individuals who are acting out of their particular contexts *(Dempsey, 2010; Sandmann & Kliewer, 2012; Stoecker, Tryon, & Hilgendorf, 2009)*. With power existing in the environment, as Foucault theorized, persons are communicating and acting out those systems of power in their partnerships. Recognizing and mapping inequities in our systemic contexts, and facilitating the mutual sharing of power from within those contexts, helps to mitigate the negative impacts of inequitable force relations in the partnership.

In her work empowering women in Honduras, Jo Rowlands *(1997)* applied postmodern understandings of power to outline the following four manifestations or enactments of power: (1) power over, indicating control or compliance; (2) power with, such as collaborative action; (3) power to, connoting productive action to create new possibility; and (4) power within, or the sense of agency, efficacy, and dignity *(p. 13)*. In the framework we are recommending, the dimensions of power suggested by Rowlands overlap, bound, and define constructs of power enacted in community-engaged scholarship, and also coincide with typologies of community-engaged partnerships and reciprocity suggested within the literature.

Enactments of power are apparent in the hypothetical case. For example, there is a tension between how power and knowledge are experienced and managed by the various partners in the change process. The progrowth group has commissioned an economic study that is expert-driven and relies on forms of technical rationality and knowing, which can be interpreted as a power enactment for control over the decision-making process. The use of jargon, media, and research results are normative technical mechanisms that tend to exclude local neighborhoods and communities from the decision-making process. The partners with capital who can access technical mechanisms often wield power in decision-making in U.S. culture.

Meanwhile, the environmental sustainability group is endeavoring to arbitrate the economic realities of job growth in relation to sustainability objectives—a step toward creating new possibilities and power within the partnership for the entire community

to engage its own efficacy in problem-solving. The project is at a moment that requires an acknowledgment of these differing ways of knowing and enacting power, in order for adaptive learning outcomes to emerge alongside technical learning outcomes.

For the partnership to make progress, it is necessary to expose and mediate the partners' various ways of knowing and enactments of power. Understanding this point of tension through the lens of power and knowledge promotes giving proper value to each competing perspective and moves the process from one of competition to one of reciprocity. As suggested in the example, the ways in which power is acknowledged and managed have implications for how effectively reciprocity is developed in the partnership.

Constructs of Reciprocity—Janke, Hoyt, Dostilio et al.

"Building on Furco's *(2010)* cone of engagement with ideas advanced by Jameson, Clayton, and Jaeger *(2010)* on thick and thin reciprocity, I developed the cone of reciprocity" (*Janke, 2012, p.12)*. Janke's *(2012) cone of reciprocity* is a tool that tracks reciprocity according to the form of engagement developed in the partnership. The cone of reciprocity suggests that engagement begins more narrowly and opens into reciprocity as the engagement becomes more collaborative, or thicker. In other words, the type of reciprocity developed in the partnership corresponds to the level of engagement developed in the partnership.

Janke and Clayton *(2012)* defined reciprocity as "recognizing, respecting, and valuing of the knowledge, perspective, and resources that each partner contributes to the collaboration" *(p. 3)*. Janke *(2012)* proposed that reciprocity becomes more reciprocal as it becomes *thicker*, that is, as "partners share and shape ideas together in a generative and collaborative spirit" (as suggested by *Jameson, Clayton, and Jaeger, 2010, in Janke, 2012, p. 16)*. Similarly, Hoyt *(2011)* described different types of community-engaged partnerships and stages of engagement commensurate with the level of power sharing and reciprocity between the partners. Her study revealed stages in partnerships from pseudo-engagement to tentative, stable, authentic, and, finally, sustained engagement. Hoyt *(2011)* and Janke *(2012)* both pointed out that types of engagement and reciprocity are iterative and fluctuate with varying degrees of involvement, which arise from a multiplicity of relational motives and social contexts.

Dostilio et al. *(2012)* offer a construction of nuanced orientations of reciprocity—those of exchange, influence, and generative reciprocity. These various concepts of reciprocity inform the basis and design of deliberative civic engagement spaces. *Generative reciprocity (Dostilio et al., 2012)* is a synergistic joining of partners across diversity of interests and perspectives from which emerges a new entity that would not have been possible within any partner alone, that is, a transformational partnership *(Enos & Morton, 2003)*. In the hypothetical example, the partners are at an intersection that holds the potential for increased, thicker engagement, and the possibility for generative reciprocity to emerge. Through a facilitated dialogue of listening and sharing differing ways of knowing, values, and goals, the partnership has the potential to create an outcome that none of the partners could have created alone, or could have generated without a thicker, more authentic engagement among them.

Here we add the notion that as relational and contextual power differentials *(Rowlands, 1997)* are identified, mapped, and managed, and as control for decision-making is shifted to a shared synergistic agency, reciprocity becomes more generative and transformative, and new and/or different actions and outcomes are produced from the partnership. Further, as shown in Table 1, Janke's *(2012)* cone of reciprocity, and Hoyt's *(2011)* stages of engagement can be matched with Rowlands's *(1997)* manifestations of power to provide an understanding of how manifestations of power intersect and impact reciprocity and engagement in partnerships.

Table 1. Power Manifestations Matched With Cone of Reciprocity, Stages of Engagement

Power Manifestations; Rowlands (*1997*)	Cone of Reciprocity; Janke (*2012*)	Stages of Engagement; Hoyt (*2011*)
Power Over—Control	On	Pseudo-engagement
Power Over—Control	To	Pseudo-engagement
Power Over—Control	For	Pseudo-engagement
Power With—Collaborative	With	Tentative/Stable engagement
Power to—Creative	With	Stable/Authentic engagement
Power Within—Agency	With	Authentic/Sustained engagement

Intersects of Power and Reciprocity—Himmelman; Saltmarsh and Hartley

Janke *(2012)* posed a germane question for community-engagement leaders: "How then might one consider and plan a path that is reciprocal, yet avoids exploitation?" *(p. 14)*. In other words, how does one mediate and manage the intersects of power and reciprocity? Himmelman *(2001)* offered a basis for understanding the nuances of reciprocity versus exploitation that further explains the distinction. He describes a continuum of community action from *collaborative betterment* to *collaborative empowerment*. Collaborative betterment coalitions do not seek to shift power relations or produce community ownership, or to increase a community's control in decision-making and action *(p. 281)*. Collaborative betterment partnerships might be characterized as those in which the campus has contracted with a community in a short-term project designed for the mutual benefit of both (i.e., exchange reciprocity). An example of a collaborative betterment partnership would be a semester-limited service-learning project. Himmelman suggests, however, that collaborative empowerment coalitions are initiated from within communities that institute mutual power relations and then invite the participation of entities that might partner with them to create a new entity between the two (i.e., potential for generative reciprocity), as our hypothetical example suggests.

The characteristic that distinguishes *collaborative betterment* from *collaborative empowerment* coalitions is enactments of power, that is, who in the coalition has the "*capacity to produce intended results*" (*Himmelman, 2001, p. 278)*. Himmelman further insisted that the transformation of power relations in coalitions requires the development of practices of deliberative civic engagement. That is, "power . . . must be guided by principles and practices of democratic governance, grassroots leadership development, and community organizing" *(p. 278)*. He suggested that the conditions for engagement should provide opportunities for those involved to "practice becoming more powerful in a democratic manner" *(p. 284)*, which includes learning to be accountable to others in the partnership through civic engagement.

Saltmarsh and Hartley *(2011)* took a further step by proposing that community-engaged scholarship must attend radically to its civic mission with "innovative practices that shift epistemology, reshape the curriculum, alter pedagogy, and redefine scholarship" *(p. 23)*. They distinguish between civic engagement that is focused on *activity and place* from that focused on *purpose and process*, that is, reciprocity with democratic dimensions *(pp. 19–22)*. They

understood reciprocity to situate persons and organizations in the community with whom scholars partner "not just as consumers of knowledge and services but also as participants in the larger public culture of democracy" *(p. 21)*.

Generative reciprocity within the partnership allows for knowledge produced in the community to be valued equally with that produced through technical means—such as the research studies offered by the progrowth group in the hypothetical example. Community-generated knowledge, such as knowledge generated through local culture, the arts, or efforts in support of the environment, joined with technical and campus-generated knowledge, allows for a process of synergistic cocreation of knowledge. Mutual sharing of power is seen as a democratic practice that opens the partnership for a reciprocal joining in which new ways of knowing and learning emerge, enabling the cocreation of new knowledge. Deliberative civic engagement practices in this framework would allow for adaptive learning and generation of questions and knowledge previously not considered in the partnership.

Deliberative Civic Engagement—Space for Disagreement and Communion

Deliberative civic engagement is defined by a particular approach to public communication, partnership, and decision-making. Deliberative engagement is a reference to forms of communication that include "respectful and rigorous communication about public problems" (*Nabatchi, 2012, p. 8)*. As a result, deliberative civic engagement describes a process groups use in "working to make a difference in the civic life of our community and developing the combination of knowledge, skills, values, and motivation to make that difference" (*Ehrlich, 2000, p. vi)*. Deliberative civic engagement activity not only provides the conditions necessary to make progress on tough issues, such as the one presented in the hypothetical example, but also includes learning of democratic values and processes.

Deliberation seeks to uncover "justifications which are acceptable to all" (*Gutmann & Thompson, 1996, p. 232)*. The justification process that extends from deliberation ensures that partnership parameters move toward standards of fairness and consensus. Capacities for dialogue and deliberation, then, become crucial elements of building effective engaged-scholarship partnerships, in which all partners develop agency, or the "capacity to produce intended results" (*Himmelman, 2001, p. 278)*, and share in mutual

power. Developing adaptive leadership capacities through deliberative civic engagement, positions individuals in ways that allow them to manage disagreement and contestation and maintain cohesion of the group's actions and partnership. Clas Offe and Ulrich Preuss *(1990)* suggested that processes intended to define the general will of a group can overcome disagreement when deliberation meets three criteria being: (1) fact-regarding, as opposed to dogma or pure ideology; (2) future-regarding, which moves beyond only short-term considerations; and (3) other-regarding, which includes consideration of the public good over simple calculations of self-interest *(pp. 156–157)*.

The criteria of deliberation take on different meanings depending on one's orientation toward deliberative civic engagement and reciprocity in partnerships. Impartialist orientations to deliberative civic engagement are the most common approach to understanding the role of deliberation in responding to disagreement *(Held, 2006)*. The impartialist perspective assumes that the best way to overcome disagreement is to link processes that produce "an expectation of rationally acceptable results" (*Habermas, 1996, p. 546)* with the goals of deliberative democracy. The impartialist view advances an understanding that disagreement can be overcome by connecting deliberation to the consideration of all possible public positions and all associated justifications. Deliberation and disagreement, from the impartialist perspective, become what Benhabib *(1992)* referred to as "reasoning from the point of view of others" *(pp. 9–10)*. Deliberative processes that are perceived as legitimate will be able to overcome disagreement because individuals will be prepared to accept the strongest publicly justified position.

Critics of the impartialist view suggest that it is unrealistic to measure standards of deliberative civic engagement against ideal-speech conditions. Amy Gutmann and Dennis Thompson *(1996)* proposed that deliberative processes ought to account for nonideal conditions. Gutmann and Thompson suggested that *incompatible values* and *incompatible understanding* will always be an element of associational politics; differing values and ways of knowing among citizens will assuredly give rise to incompatible perspectives and actions. They asserted that deliberation avoids gridlock and allows for the negotiation of disagreement when individuals justify public positions with "reasons that can be accepted by others who are similarly motivated to find reasons that can be accepted by others" *(p. 232)*. Locating a space of agreeable justification that will be accepted by all is an essential component of associational politics.

Creating conditions for disagreement and agreeable justification. In the field of community outreach and community-engaged scholarship, there has been an implied assumption that being an effective community–campus partnership means moving directly toward increasing degrees of consensus. Assuming that consensus forms in a linear fashion and will include no incidents of disagreement is problematic. Creating and protecting productive channels of disagreement can promote higher levels of interpersonal reciprocity between individual partners who possess varied levels of power, communication skills, and learning capacities.

In this essay, we are interested in identifying frameworks that allow for disagreement to lead to more effective and robust partnerships. The question becomes "In what conditions can community-engaged partners reasonably ensure that disagreement in the community–campus partnership process will be productive in advancing community-engaged scholarship?" We suggest that the implementation of three practices—(a) mapping intersects of power and reciprocity, (b) deliberative civic engagement, and (c) attending to transformative learning—build conditions for the emergence of individual and social transformation in community-engaged scholarship.

The general conception of reciprocity presented by Gutmann and Thompson *(1996)* bounds the parameters of partnership into an area that will accommodate disagreement that can still produce "mutually acceptable reasons" for collective decisions and "adheres to basic levels of respect" *(p. 79)*. When incompatibility arises in the partnership, as suggested in the hypothetical example, mapping power and reciprocity through practices of deliberative civic engagement would allow for those involved to unmask differences in ways of knowing and uses of knowledge in order to share resources and power in decision-making.

Creating conditions for communion. Realization of a joined community promotes emergence of a "we identity" *(Janke, 2012)* that takes into account all values and positions in determining the best course of action for the common good. Lorlene Hoyt *(2011)*, for example, theorized that engagement reflects reciprocity as a nonlinear process, in fluctuating stages of mutually shared power that reaches its full potential in the cocreation of knowledge that affects social change. She recommended an epistemology of *relational knowing*, which supports mutual power sharing and generative reciprocity.

From within an epistemology of relational knowing, communication evolves into a process of communion in which partners may recognize that even though they have incompatible values in some arenas, they have shared values and goals in the particular project on which they have committed to work together. Conditions for agreeable justification and communion allow for disagreement in the community–campus partnership to become generative and productive, whereas masking and disallowing disagreement becomes counterproductive.

Transformative Learning

Community-engaged scholarship creates the conditions in which individuals, partnerships, organizations, and communities may be shaped to strengthen structures of democracy and deepen learning. Taylor *(2009)* identified researchers who recognize "transformative learning as being as much about social change as personal transformation, where individual and social transformation are inherently linked" *(p. 5)*. Transformative learning and improving the practice of democracy are integral to community-engaged scholarship *(Saltmarsh & Hartley, 2011; Sherman & Torbert, 2000)*.

Transformative learning *(Mezirow, 1990, 1991, 1998)* that is linked to community-engaged scholarship meets transformative learning conditions when stakeholders are negotiating their interests *(Dempsey, 2010; Sandmann & Kliewer, 2012; Stoecker, Tryon, & Hilgendorf, 2009)*. During the process of forming community–campus partnerships that are working toward a common goal, competing interests among stakeholders will inevitably emerge and be expressed within differentials in power, communicative action, and orientations of reciprocity, as suggested in the hypothetical example. In this example, if the partners with differing values and ways of knowing are supported in the transformative learning processes of recognizing disorienting dilemmas and reflective dialogue, the possibilities for shifts in perspective increase, and the levels of engagement and reciprocity thicken. Therefore, transformative learning *(Mezirow, 1990, 1991, 1998)* becomes vital for enabling community-engagement partners can navigate fluctuations in levels of reciprocity and power-sharing.

Davis and Kliewer *(2014)* proposed that "transformative learning may be enabled . . . precisely because community–campus partnerships are contexts in which different stakeholders are negotiating their individual and organizational interests . . . while also

conveying differing ways of knowing and understanding" *(p. 478)*. They suggested that the process of forming community–campus partnerships creates conditions in which competing interests will inevitably emerge due to differing contexts, ontologies, and epistemologies, much as Gutmann and Thompson *(1996)* noted regarding deliberative civic engagement.

Dempsey *(2010)* noted that "deliberative processes play a critical role in surfacing meaningful differences among participants within community engagement initiatives" *(p. 382)*. Expressions of, and exposure to, differences in perspectives and actions might serve as catalysts for appraisal of previously held assumptions, beliefs, and perspectives, which inform frames of reference *(Mezirow, 1990, 1991, 1998)*. Differing perspectives, if allowed to be voiced and discussed to reach understanding, may serve to produce a disorienting dilemma *(Mezirow, 1990, 1991, 1998)* for some individuals. Transformative learning theory proposes that the experience of a disorienting dilemma is the initial catalyst for transformation, which is required for dislodging entrenched, traditional perspectives. Once these perspectives are dislodged, consideration of other perspectives might allow for management of power in positive ways. Davis and Kliewer *(2014)* proposed that the process of building partnerships within engaged scholarship through mutually shared power and generative reciprocity provides a context for disorienting dilemmas to emerge, offering opportunities for transformative learning and contributing to the transformations in higher education and society originally envisioned by community-engaged scholarship *(Saltmarsh & Hartley, 2011)*.

Generative orientations of reciprocity shape transformative learning by allowing for the possibilities of disorienting dilemmas, reflective thinking and dialogue, shifts in frames of reference, and shifts in actions *(Mezirow, 1990, 1991, 1998)*. Generative orientations to reciprocity support what Martin Luther King Jr. *(1963)* referred to as *creative tensions* that produce conditions for transformative learning. When speaking regarding the relationships between nonviolent direct action and social change, King highlighted how this idea of creative tensions leads to a type of transformative learning that can point toward social change.

King *(1963)* urged us to consider how creative tensions can facilitate a learning process that moves people beyond "myths and half-truths to the unfettered realm of creative analysis and objective appraisal" *(p. 3)*. The concept of creative tension can be constructed within deliberative civic engagement frameworks, tied to community-engaged scholarship, and designed to produce gen-

erative orientations to reciprocity that maintain the potential of transformative learning.

In our hypothetical example, the tension between the pro-environment community and the progrowth community can become a potentiality for generative reciprocity within deliberative civic engagement and transformative learning practices and processes. At this juncture, the partners must be reminded of, and take seriously, their initial commitments in shaping the partnership to conform to the principles of community engagement. In order to respond to the community's adaptive challenge, partners must recognize and respond to the need to create new ways of knowing and learning.

Community-Engaged Partnerships—Power and Reciprocity Framework

As depicted in our hypothetical example, inequalities and unbalanced power relations on multiple dimensions limit the potential, integrity, and effectiveness of community-engaged partnerships *(Dempsey, 2010; Sandmann & Kliewer, 2012; Stoecker, Tryon, & Hilgendorf, 2009)*. Currently, the literature fails to provide a comprehensive framework that accounts for power and reciprocity in ways that can improve the effectiveness of community–campus partnerships. We offer the following framework in an effort to begin to close this gap in the literature and in practice.

Creating Conditions for Deliberative Civic Engagement and Transformative Learning

Community-engaged scholarship can be understood as a holding environment *(Drago-Severson, 2004)* in which adults might experience opportunities for transformative learning *(Mezirow, 1990, 1991, 1998; Mezirow & Taylor, 2009)*. Drago-Severson *(2004)* suggested that the transformative growth of individuals and organizations depends upon reflective practices in "a community where open and honest communication is the norm, where critical dialogue is a priority, and where a supportive, trusting environment encourages and embraces risk taking" *(p. 76)*. Manin, Stein, and Mansbridge *(1987)* argued that deliberative civic engagement is in itself an educative and training process, and any instrumental outcomes of deliberation are likely a result of "educative effect of repeated deliberation" *(p. 363)*. There is a need for individuals to exercise leadership in ways that make space for "inclusion, deliberation, and transparency" (*Dostilio, 2014, p. 243)*. The process of

building reciprocal partnerships within community-engaged scholarship offers opportunities for transformative learning and provides a bridge for the scholarly process to address adaptive challenges of the 21st century.

In order to improve the outcomes of community-engaged scholarship, we suggest that partners create holding environments *(Drago-Severson, 2004)* for the enactments of deliberative civic engagement, where intersects of power and reciprocity are acknowledged and mapped among individual and organizational partners. Such a holding environment will increase the likelihood that partners will develop the capacity to engage with deliberative dialogue and enable generative reciprocity. As depicted in our example, the partnership leaders must be intentional about planning for the creation of holding environments in which dialogue and reciprocity can emerge from inherent tensions within the partnership.

Differing Types of Reciprocity and Differing Types of Partnerships

Practices of civic engagement, mapping power and reciprocity, and attending to transformative learning create conditions for the development of transformational partnerships, as envisioned by community-engaged scholarship. By appropriating the differentiation that Burns *(1998)* made between transactional and transformational leadership, Enos and Morton *(2003)* identified a similar functional distinction in community-engaged partnerships. They described *transactional partnerships* as those that are instrumental in nature and are generally framed to meet limited tasks, outcomes, calendars, and budgets. *Transformational partnerships*, in contrast, are those in which "persons come together in more open-ended processes . . . to explore emergent possibilities, revisit and revise their own goals and identities, and develop systems they work within beyond the status quo" (*Clayton, Bringle, Senor, Huq, & Morrison, 2010, pp. 7–8)*. The typology of transactional and transformational partnerships matches the manifestations of power *(Rowlands, 1997)*, types of civic engagement, orientations of reciprocity *(Dostilio et al., 2012)*, and stages of engagement *(Hoyt, 2011)* considered in this study, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Power, Partnerships, Civic Engagement, Reciprocity, and Stages of Engagement

Power Manifestations; Rowlands (*1997*)	Types of Partnerships; Enos & Morton (*2003*)	Civic Engagement Communication Pattern	Reciprocity Orientation; Dostilio et al. (*2012*)	Stages of Engagement; Hoyt (*2011*)
Power Over—Control	N/A	Directive	N/A	Pseudo-engagement
Power With—Collaborative	Transactional [Transitional]	Persuasive	Exchange	Tentative/Stable engagement
Power to—Creative	Transformational [Transitional]	Relational	Influence	Stable/Authentic engagement
Power Within—Agency	Transformational	Deliberative dialogue	Generative	Sustained engagement

Hoyt *(2011)* aptly summarized that "human relationships, particularly those that are resilient and capable of thriving through adversity, are the most critical element for achieving sustained engagement" *(p. 282)*. As her theory of engagement proposed, resilient relationships are not automatic; rather, they are developed in stages over time. Engagement that is based on "an epistemology of reciprocal knowledge, realized through a two-way network of human relationships, allows faculty, students, civic leaders, and residents to experiment as they learn the norms and develop the values of democracy through sustained city–campus partnerships" *(p. 285)*.

Stakeholders begin to acknowledge that the interests of their partners are also their own interests, and the divisions between *us and them* become more fluid. As distinctions break down, identity becomes a *shared we (Janke, 2009)*. All involved become both teachers and learners (*Jacoby, 2003, p. 4)*, and the cocreation of knowledge emerges. Table 2 displays a match, or cross-walk, between manifestations of power, types of partnerships, types of civic engagement communication, and how these align with orientations of reciprocity and stages of engagement.

Mapping Power and Reciprocity Applied

The core issue of productive disagreement is one of communicating underlying assumptions that inform partners' self-interests, intersected with their greater commitments to the common good. In their initial planning, community–campus partnerships need to anticipate strategies and practices designed to uncover premature consensus and insincere tolerance, as well as to build a space

of agreeable justification *(Gutmann & Thompson, 1996)*. A holding environment in which all involved have equitable access to decision-making allows for everyone in the partnership to enact the "capacity to produce intended results" (*Himmelman, 2001, p. 278)*.

Revisiting the Hypothetical Example

In the hypothetical example, where the various factions are trying to make sense of how to approach the research and contextualization of the issue, the progrowth group commissioned a traditional expert-driven project, and the sustainability group is trying to mobilize the community by leveraging a range of ways of knowing. The controversy depicted in the example results from the seemingly competing ways of framing the issue—a controversy that can evolve in response to innumerable issues in partnerships. Our framework suggests that one practical response to *contestations of ways of knowing* is to create transparent processes that speak to the value of the differing approaches. The objective is to break down the tendency of differing groups to take opposing positions, and instead to find overlapping areas of agreement from which they can move forward.

As portrayed in the example, intentional development of a holding environment for the enactment of deliberative civic engagement and transformative learning must begin at the outset of the community-engaged project. In the example, all partners are informed and agree to the principles on which the partnership will be built: cocreation and accountability, community values, reciprocity, exchange of knowledge and resources, and so on. The project plan intentionally included multiple ways of knowing that would connect to a wide range of community stakeholders. The plan further intentionally included practices of deliberative democracy, as Himmelman *(2001)* suggested, to "practice becoming more powerful in a democratic manner" *(p. 284)*, and learning to be accountable to others in the community. To support the processes necessary for managing these differing approaches, the project design proactively included the potential for time, location, funding support, and an agreed-upon neutral moderator—ideally someone with experience in facilitating deliberative civic engagement and transformative learning practices and processes.

As the progrowth business partners began to leverage their own influence and resources to gain inequitable power in the decision-making process, the coalition called for an information-sharing session, as had been initially agreed upon in the project's design.

Although open, honest dialogue holds risks for each partner, the greater risk is the failure of a project to which the partners have agreed and made commitments. In the case of the hypothetical example, the goal was for the entire community to recognize ownership of the quality of their water, and have opportunities to participate in the decision-making process, or as Himmelman *(2001)* suggests, to have the "capacity to produce intended results" *(p. 278)*.

The values and processes integrated into the structure of deliberative civic engagement support a community in speaking truth to power. When acknowledging and mapping enactments of power, the values and processes of deliberative civic engagement can be organized in ways that bring controversies to the surface, as opposed to defaulting to the interests of the most powerful. Nothing about this structure assumes that power will always be negotiated in equitable ways. However, by accounting for power and reciprocity through deliberative civic engagement structures, community-engagement partnerships have the capacity to work through contested issues in more equitable ways.

Thus, at the information-sharing session, the facilitator would be tasked with creating a holding environment in which the partners could revisit their mutually agreed upon goals, consider possible shifts in the goals, and voice their current concerns and contentions to unmask hidden agendas, premature consensus, and previously insincere tolerances. The intention for dialogue at this point in the project is not for agreement, but for understanding. The moderator must be one who has proven capacities for creating such an environment and facilitating such a dialogue.

The Transformational Process of Mapping Power and Reciprocity

In creating conditions in which all involved may *see and be seen* inside a context of positive regard, reciprocity develops from a mutual sharing of power. Mutual sharing of power assumes a mutual sharing of risk and emerges from a mutual opening to vulnerability, which iteratively deepens or thickens reciprocity *(Jameson, Clayton, & Jaeger, 2010)*. In the hypothetical story, if the community does not create job growth, it risks losing a tax base as industry moves elsewhere; if the community does not protect its environment, it risks losing an identity as citizens move elsewhere; further, if the community dwindles, the academic partners dwindle with it. The realities and nuances of all perspectives must be fully understood in order for the partnership to generate a unique response that would

not have been possible with any partner alone. The power inequities must be shifted in order for all voices to be heard.

Partners must recognize that they may be transformed in this process, for people are not truly listening to each other unless they are willing to be changed by what they hear (*Hall, 2012, p. 5)*. The vulnerabilities and risks involved can be real for representatives of both community and campus, including being perceived as a *traitor* by constituents and employers when one appears to *take the side* of the other in an identity with the other. Reciprocity, however, requires that all involved maintain their integrity to their own perspective, and bring their unique perspective to the project, sharing openly so that all may benefit from others' knowledge; the process is one in which diversity is truly a strength. Reciprocity cannot be reached if the partners are not fully informed and truly understanding of all perspectives in the project, since reciprocity depends on valuing and respecting all stakeholders' positions. One cannot reciprocally value what one does not understand.

Those who might undermine the process are exposed to the possibility of experiencing a disorienting dilemma, in which their previous frames of reference are challenged by new information. If reflection upon the dilemma and its implications is facilitated in open dialogue and reflection with others, transformation of perspectives may occur for some or all partners, and the project will produce the opportunity to move forward. Without the vulnerabilities and risks of transparent dialogue, there is no potential for moving beyond the impasse, and the partners must conclude in this instance that their separate goals and individual agendas became more important than the community goals upon which they originally agreed.

Conclusions

This essay presents a framework from adult learning and leadership research and practice that considers the potential for designing community-engaged partnerships to create intentional spaces of generative reciprocity through deliberative civic engagement and transformative learning. Our concept aims to map the dynamics of power and reciprocity through deliberative civic engagement processes and activities. We suggest this frame as a potentially generative design for community-engaged scholarship that stimulates transformative learning practices within democratic environments.

The foundational principles of engaged scholarship specify that teaching, research, and outreach need to be informed by the community (both public and private enterprises), in which knowledge and resources that contribute to the public good intrinsically reside *(Carnegie Foundation, 2017)*. Deliberative civic engagement, based on mutual sharing of power, as well as space for voice and choice, would nurture a generativity orientation to reciprocity. Dostilio et al. *(2012)* summarized the process of mapping power in generative reciprocity:

> In sum, generativity-oriented reciprocity emerges within the domain of a worldview in which . . . power, privilege, and oppression are actively and intentionally considered. . . . This form of reciprocity can lead to transformation . . . within individuals, systems, and paradigms. *(p. 25)*

The transformation of power relations in community-campus partnerships requires that enactments of power "must be guided by principles and practices of democratic governance, grassroots leadership development, and community organizing" (*Himmelman, 2001, p. 278)*. Mutual sharing of power that produces generative reciprocity enables all stakeholders to join together synergistically to build capacities and produce outcomes that none could otherwise produce separately. Deliberative civic engagement, mapping intersects of power and reciprocity, and attending to capacities for transformative learning are all essential practices in community-engaged partnerships. We recommend these three essential practices in order to create conditions for the emergence of individual, institutional, organizational, and social transformation in community-engaged scholarship. Further research needs to explore empirically the application and efficacy of these practices in order to further inform the development of these concepts within community–campus partnerships.

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Consortial Collaboration and the Creation of an Assessment Instrument for Community-Based Learning

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Abstract

This article describes the development of the Community-Based Learning (CBL) Scorecard by a grant-funded consortium of liberal arts institutions. The aim of the scorecard was to promote assessment that improves student learning with an instrument that employs a quantitative scale, allowing for benchmarking across institutions. Extensive interviews with faculty who participated in the pilot *(Charles & Choi, 2013)*, including specific perceptions of the value of using the scorecard to assess the students' CBL experience and improve learning outcomes, were reviewed. Results indicated that the CBL Scorecard, with appropriate administration, serves as an adaptable tool for assessment of CBL that can provide timely feedback and reminders of best practices to faculty. Increasing student response rates, the scorecard's value for faculty development, and improving the experience for community partners are discussed.

Introduction

Important conversations are occurring locally and nationally about the value of higher education, including the impact of community engagement on college students and the vital role community partners play in the coeducation of students. Ideally, initiatives designed to address community opportunities and concerns dovetail with frameworks that support student learning. This article focuses on community-based learning (encompassing for our purposes service-learning and community-based research), generally acknowledged to be complex and multidimensional *(Eyler & Giles, 1999; Mackaway, Winchester-Seeto, Coulson, & Harvey, 2011; McDonald, 2012; Zhang et al., 2011)*. Community-based learning has pedagogical aims, but those aims are joined to those of social justice and, more specifically, to meeting the needs of the community. The tasks and responsibilities of the students are aligned with course content, but must also work within the structures of the local partnership. As a form of experiential education, community-based learning may be utterly unpredictable as it unfolds, messy as a day-to-day experience, and shaped by serendipitous encounters with individuals from backgrounds and realms of experience that

may differ greatly from those of traditional-aged college students. Instructors who employ community-based learning in their courses year after year recognize intuitively the complexity and depth of learning that takes place, and that it is qualitatively different from what students glean from textbooks and classroom lectures. But measuring this learning, capturing its difference from traditional learning in institutions of higher education, is not simple.

One challenge is capturing what may be a qualitative difference using quantitative measures. Researchers in the growing assessment of learning movement often face difficulties in navigating the divide between quantitative and qualitative approaches, and such difficulties may reflect another tension: that between assessment for accountability and assessment for improvement, as Peter T. Ewell frames it. According to Ewell *(2009)*, assessment for improvement typically relies on both qualitative and quantitative evidence, whereas assessment for accountability requires demonstration of "conformity with an established standard of process or outcome" and hence quantitative, cross-institutional measures *(p. 8)*. Although most assessment specialists see improvement of student learning as the foremost goal, many recognize that such results are still unfortunately rare or, at least, difficult to demonstrate *(Angelo, 1999; Banta & Blaich, 2011; Blaich & Wise, 2011)*.

Research Goals and Questions

This article reflects on the development of the Community-Based Learning (CBL) Scorecard by a consortium of liberal arts institutions, funded by grants from the Teagle Foundation (hereafter referred to as the Teagle Consortium). The consortium chose to use the term "community-based learning" as "accurately descriptive" of the programs and courses to be assessed and "unburdened by the negative connotations and history implied by a 'client–server' dynamic between the community and colleges engaged in CBL" *(Rhodes College, Systematic Assessment of Student Learning, 2008, p. 8)*. The aim in creating the scorecard was to promote assessment that improves student learning, but with an instrument that employs a quantitative scale, allowing for benchmarking across institutions. The CBL Scorecard was developed both to assess "the value added of CBL programming on student learning and civic engagement" and to "close the assessment loop by developing a process for applying Scorecard results to course/program improvement and by broadly disseminating and encouraging the use of the protocol and collected data institutionally, regionally and nationally" *(Rhodes College, Systematic Assessment of Student Learning, 2008,*

p. 1). Our aim is to assess the assessment: to clarify ways in which the CBL Scorecard has succeeded, as well as to acknowledge its limitations. For such analysis, we rely on the results of research carried out by Drs. Robiaun Charles and YuKang Choi as doctoral students at Vanderbilt University's Peabody College of Education and Human Development in the form of extensive interviews with Teagle Consortium faculty who participated in the CBL Scorecard pilot and on our own experience with the scorecard at our home institution, Hobart & William Smith Colleges, supplemented by comments provided to us by participating institutions.

Our analysis is framed within questions raised in the literature on assessment of service-learning and community-based research as well as the current literature on assessment of student learning outcomes in general, such as how to implement assessment in such a way as to facilitate improvement of learning, or how to develop models that are both sustainable and transformative. Using these research-based recommendations for the employment of the CBL Scorecard should provide an adaptable tool for guiding the change that leads to improved student learning outcomes in CBL courses and programs.

A Different Epistemology

A starting point in considering how to assess community-based learning is the recognition that not only is there a distinct knowledge base buttressing this practice *(Brammer et al., 2012; Shapiro, 2012)*, but also that its epistemological bearings are distinctive *(Butin, 2010; Eyler, 2009; Eyler & Giles, 1999)*. As Janet Eyler *(2009)* observes, "Knowledge in the classroom tends to be compartmentalized into disciplines, whereas in use in the community or workplace it tends to be organized around problems or domains of practice" *(p. 29)*. The student experience of such knowledge is unique, as the impact of actual community engagement is both broad and deep. Thus community-based learning adds an affective component to the acquisition of academic content, complicating and developing cognition with real-life application of concepts learned. Tellingly, assessment of the learning in community-based learning has taken diverse directions. Assessment instruments and methods have been devised to measure not only cognitive outcomes, but also changes in civic engagement, personal development, intercultural understanding, organizational and communication skills, and most recently empathy *(Bringle, Clayton, & Hatcher, 2013; Everhart, 2016; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Ming, Lee, & Ka, 2009)*.

Although community-based learning is a cross-disciplinary pedagogy, it also supports discipline-based learning and knowledge production—in economics, sociology, political science, environmental science, history, rhetoric, architectural studies, education, and religious studies, to name only a few. At the same time, with an experiential base it is "holistic in nature" *(Mackaway et al., 2011, p. 1)*. Hence the challenge of charting the difference that community-based learning makes, given that learning outcomes may reflect many fields, realms of experience, and facets of individual growth.

Assessment as Research, Assessment Based in Research

The limitations of some approaches to assessment of community-based learning have been studied. A common approach is to survey students at the completion of a community-based learning experience, but when such a survey asks students to report on their learning as opposed to demonstrating their learning, satisfaction may be indistinguishable from actual learning. (The in-house survey we employed at Hobart & William Smith Colleges before the development of the CBL Scorecard suffered from this limitation.) Such reports are "a weak measure of the complex cognitive outcomes we expect from service-learning" *(Eyler, 2000, p. 13)*. Ideally such indirect assessment would be paired with a more direct assessment of learning if the aim is measuring academic and/or cognitive learning outcomes, as opposed to a sense of personal growth or commitment to community engagement. Assessing embedded student work is one viable and frequently proposed alternative or complementary assessment method *(Fitch, Steinke, & Hudson, 2013; Molee, Henry, Sessa, & McKinney-Prupis, 2010; Shapiro, 2012)*. Yet developing criteria and rubrics that may be employed across multiple disciplines when aspects of the learning are discipline- and/or course-specific is challenging, to say the least.

A related approach that may be less discipline-specific focuses on student reflection in the form of writing and/or discussion, a component of community-based learning critical to its effectiveness and impact *(Eyler & Giles, 1999)*. Yet questions arise here, too: Students vary in their reflectiveness; writing skills impact the quality and clarity of reflections; some students for personal or cultural reasons experience discomfort with personal revelation that may be a part of reflection, and respond instead with superficial or dissembling entries; reflection may be more common in some disciplines than in others; and the degree to which the instructor communicates, designs, and structures the reflection exercise for

students matters *(Mackaway et al., 2011, pp. 7–8)*. Nonetheless, such direct measures and others, such as evaluating student problem-solving competency through interviews *(Eyler & Giles, 1999)*, may be effectively employed and may compose part of ongoing research on how community-based learning supports the goals of a liberal education *(Eyler, 2000; Jameson, Clayton, & Ash, 2013)*.

Such studies raise the question of the relationship between assessment and research. Undoubtedly after 35 years of research since service-learning gained recognition as a field *(Eyler & Giles, 2013)*, any assessment ought to rely on research, no matter which facet of the learning is under consideration. Further, the relationship between research and assessment is reciprocal: assessment is as important to ongoing research as research is to assessment. Eyler and Giles observe: "The assessment of the effective implementation of key elements of service-learning are critical for strengthening research in this field" *(p. 55)*. In sum, research into the learning in community-based learning gains when an assessment method or instrument is research-based, focused on defined outcomes, and rolled out with ongoing inquiry into its strengths and limitations.

The Teagle Consortium's Community-Based Learning (CBL) Scorecard

The initiative to create a replicable instrument to assess community-based learning began with a collaboration among faculty and administrators at Rhodes College, Niagara University, and Franklin & Marshall College with a Teagle Foundation planning grant to fund the initial stages (2007–2008), followed by the award of an implementation grant.

The goals for both planning and implementation were as follows:

1. Systematically assess the value added of CBL programming on student learning and civic engagement, using the CBL Scorecard we developed for measuring CBL course/program effectiveness;
2. Close the assessment loop by developing a process for applying Scorecard results to course/program improvement and by broadly disseminating and encouraging the use of the protocol and collected data institutionally, regionally, and nationally and;
3. Expand and sustain a consortium of liberal arts colleges committed to establishing and sharing effective

> practices for the assessment of community-based learning. Two sub-goals for the consortium are to:
>
> a. Disseminate information about the impact of CBL on student cognitive learning and;
> b. Create a culture of assessment on the campuses of participating institutions *(Rhodes College, Systematic Assessment of Student Learning, 2008, p. 1)*.

Among the activities undertaken during the planning phase were reviews of existing assessment instruments for community-based learning and of the literature about such assessment. One result of this review process was the finding that "several large research studies have already established the connection between effective practices for community-based learning courses/programs and student learning outcomes." Consortium members decided "to build on this research, rather than duplicate it, using success factors linked by research to student learning as the basis for our Scorecard" *(Rhodes College, Systematic Assessment of Student Learning, 2008, p. 2)*. This choice was key as consortium members confronted the challenge of developing an instrument that was replicable and could be used across disciplines, programs, and institutions, thereby affording cross-institutional benchmarking. The focus of the instrument would be practices in community-based learning courses and programs found to enhance cognitive learning outcomes as opposed to affective ones. Research that was especially germane to the identification of these effective practices or "success factors" included the work of Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda, and Yee *(2000)*; Eyler and Giles *(1999)*; and Eyler, Giles, Stenson, and Gray *(2001)*. In selecting success factors, consortium members chose those appropriate to a cross-disciplinary instrument, eliminating such variables as "the student's degree of interest in the subject matter, . . . since CBL programs/courses at liberal arts institutions are not necessarily tied to a specific major or interest" *(Rhodes College, Systematic Assessment of Student Learning, 2008, p. 8)*.

The Teagle Consortium recruited new members for a total of 11 liberal arts colleges and universities by 2011, which enlarged the pool of courses and programs for the pilot of the CBL Scorecard. This increase made possible collaboration among a larger group of practitioners as the scorecard was further developed, revised, and refined, and helped create a community of practice. We at Hobart & William Smith Colleges were deeply grateful for the outreach of Niagara University. As one of 28 baccalaureate colleges earning the

2010 Carnegie engaged designation, we value enhanced assessment of community-based learning at the course and program level for the ongoing improvement of learning, and we were excited to join in this promising collaboration with peers from similar institutions.

After an initial pilot of the CBL Scorecard at Franklin & Marshall, Niagara, and Rhodes during the planning phase of the project, the consortium worked with Dr. John Braxton (Vanderbilt University) and Dr. Willis Jones (then a graduate student at Vanderbilt, now faculty at University of Kentucky) to build a more robust data collection instrument *(Rhodes College, Community-Based Learning, 2010)*. Braxton and Jones began by engaging in an extensive literature review of the research on effective pedagogies and practices for community-based learning. From this literature review a list of statements regarding best practices in community-based learning was obtained. This large pool of best practice statements was then reviewed by a group of educational practitioners and researchers for clarity and face validity. The reviewers selected 32 of these best practice statements, which were grouped into four "domains of practice": (1) placement quality, (2) application and connection to academic learning, (3) reflection, and (4) quality of community partnerships.

To further explore the validity and relative importance of the 32 statements, Braxton and Jones recruited nationally recognized experts in community-based learning to complete a Q-sort task. A Q-sort is a comparative process in which respondents are required to sort their responses to statements into a predetermined number of piles. For this analysis, respondents were asked to place the 32 best practice statements into five piles, assigning rankings ranging from "not essential at all" to "most essential" for high-quality community-based learning. In Q-sort tasks, response categories are generally forced into an approximately normal distribution by specifying the number of statements that can be placed in each pile on the scale. For this Q-sort task, respondents were forced to place four statements in each of the two most extreme categories ("not essential at all" and "most essential"), six statements each were forced into the "somewhat essential" and "very essential" categories, and 12 statements were forced into the "essential" category.

Braxton and Jones mailed this Q-sort task to eight community-based learning experts and received a response rate of 50%. They then created weights for each best practice statement based on the findings of the Q-sort task. Each response pile in the Q-sort was given a value ranging from 1 ("not essential at all") to 5 ("most essential"). Next, they calculated means scores for each ques-

tion based on the Q-sort results and used those means scores as response weights in the CBL Scorecard. Question means scores ranged from 1.25 to 4.25. Thus at multiple stages (i.e., review of literature in planning stage; Braxton and Jones review of literature; survey of top specialists), the development of the CBL Scorecard drew on the most up-to-date and widely recognized research in the field. Given the extensive literature reviews and testing via field experts, we are confident of the face and content validity of the CBL Scorecard. As the consortium notes in the Year 5 progress report to the Teagle Foundation, "This approach is unique in both its focus on the course or program as the unit of analysis and its foundation in existing research on effective service learning practice" *(Rhodes College, Community-Based Learning, 2013, p. 4)*.

Other crucial aspects of the CBL Scorecard were also unique and, we felt, important steps forward for assessment of community-based learning. Versions of the same instrument were developed for three audiences: faculty, students, and community partners. The inclusion of community feedback was a central aim of the consortium from the start; surveying all three groups with versions of the same instrument was a significant innovation. Further, although the instrument is a quantitative one, its focus on best practices as opposed to the measurement of particular learning outcomes avoids measuring only the most easily measured hallmarks of learning, a potentially reductionist analysis. It also avoids the murkiness of self-reporting of learning on which many other survey-based assessments rely, as it asks about the degree to which students experienced certain practices, not about their sense of success with learning. Finally, the CBL Scorecard includes only practices that have been found to be valuable to community-based learning across disciplines and programs, obviating the need to adjust the scorecard for different courses and discipline-specific subject matter.

Assessing the Assessment: Research by Charles and Choi

Having administered the CBL Scorecard over five semesters (spring 2011–spring 2013), the Teagle Consortium invited Robiaun Charles and YuKang Choi, doctoral candidates at Vanderbilt University's Peabody College of Education and Human Development, to conduct interviews with faculty participants as part of a mixed methods research project. With "the goal of making the instrument more useful as a classroom diagnostic tool that can be readily used by instructors without professional interpretation,"

the consortium collaborated with Charles and Choi to generate the following research questions:

1. What are the practices responsible for high performing community-based learning?
2. What are recommendations that can make other community-based learning courses better?
3. What is an appropriate process/protocol for assessing community-based learning courses on an ongoing basis? *(Rhodes College, Assessing Community-Based Learning, 2013, pp. 4–5)*

Charles and Choi used quantitative data gathered through the administration of the CBL Scorecard to identify high-performing courses, selecting 48 out of 90 courses in the consortium database, eliminating 42 because of incomplete responses. Within these 48 courses, the researchers employed theoretical sampling to identify high-performing courses, thereby narrowing the sample to 30 for a qualitative study. They invited the instructors of these courses to be interviewed by phone, with the result that faculty teaching 21 high-performing courses participated in the study, a sample that represented 70% of the faculty teaching high-performing courses and seven of the consortium institutions. (See *Charles & Choi, 2013*, for a full description of the methodology they used to construct the sample *[pp. 16–21]* and of the data analysis and coding of the transcripts *[p. 24]*.) The interviews lasted 60–90 minutes. As Charles and Choi remark, "Although the scorecard provided information about what was happening in these selected courses, we conducted the interviews to learn how it was happening, why it was happening and when it was happening" *(p. 22)*.

For the purposes of this article, the third research question is most germane: "What is an appropriate process/protocol for assessing community-based learning courses on an ongoing basis?" Charles and Choi *(2013)* identifies six themes that arose through the interviews and their subsequent data analysis:

1. Light bulb moments
2. What exactly do the results mean?
3. How are scorecard results going to be used?
4. Be mindful of the community
5. Administration and execution of the scorecard needs to be standardized
6. A necessary evil *(p. 47)*

The "light bulb moments" experienced by faculty came mostly in the form of reminders of how to plan community-based learning courses intentionally rather than seeing the scorecard results as providing new information. Nonetheless, faculty comments as reported by Charles and Choi *(2013)* were overwhelmingly positive. Respondents found the scorecard helpful, remarking, for instance, that "it helped you think more comprehensively about what we wanted for our course" *(p. 48)*; "you think more broadly about course design because you have a scorecard as a framework to operate out of" *(p. 48)*; and "this is what you want to look for when you're putting together your syllabus, when you're creating your course or when you're working with an institute or center or whomever you are working with in putting it together" *(p. 49)*. Only one comment included in Charles and Choi's report seemed to question the value of the scorecard (classified under "a necessary evil"): This faculty member wondered whether there is not "an inherent tautology in developing these measurement scales to prove what good outcomes are when they're developed to prove what good outcomes are" and called for more longitudinal studies and other ways to measure the impact of community-based learning courses *(p. 52)*.

Faculty did identify limitations or weaknesses in the scorecard. An important flaw that was, at least partially, addressed in subsequent administrations of the instrument was the delivery of the results. The earliest feedback came in the form of raw data; faculty asked instead for more easily interpretable results *(Charles & Choi, 2013)*. There was also almost universal concern that the data could be used for faculty evaluation rather than course development and improvement; if that were the case, faculty would be reluctant to participate. Further, as courses vary, faculty noted that it should be used as a guide; the individual instructor could then decide how it might best inform course design and practice *(p. 50)*. Finally, the faculty interviews made evident a need to standardize the administration and execution of the scorecard, because "[m]any participants also were not clear on the who, what, when, where and how of the scored execution and administration in their classes" *(p. 51)*. Clearly it is vital for institutions to establish a protocol for administration that is transparent and convenient for faculty and yields a high response rate.

Another limitation of the scorecard articulated in these interviews concerns the participation of community partners. Although the desire to include the community voice in assessment was a priority for the CBL Scorecard project, in effect, community partners sometimes lacked access to computers. Perhaps more damning

than problems of delivery was that of perspective: Many of the scorecard questions were not relevant to the community partner's experience of the community-based learning project *(Charles & Choi, 2013, pp. 50–51)*.

Recommendations From Charles and Choi's Report

As a result of their study, Charles and Choi made seven recommendations to the Teagle Consortium:

- Develop separate scorecards for faculty, students and community partners.
- Create a standard protocol for administering the Teagle Scorecard and consider using technology.
- Refine and improve data collection and entry into, and management of, the Teagle Scorecard database.
- Explicitly identify the Teagle Scorecard as a tool for improvement, not evaluation.
- View the Teagle Scorecard as a tool to inform key performance indicators (KPIs) for effective practice in CBL courses.
- Create Teagle Scorecard informed KPIs and a related KPI scorecard.
- Implement the project team's research-based ongoing assessment model for faculty of community-based learning courses.

These were among 17 recommendations in all, made to different constituencies: institutional policy makers, faculty members who use community-based learning, and research funders, as well as to the Teagle Consortium. The last three recommendations refer to key performance indicators derived from the CBL Scorecard intended to be more easily interpretable for application to course practice. To our knowledge, this revised instrument has not been piloted. (See *Charles & Choi, 2013*, for further information about the key performance indicators and this proposed next stage.) At Hobart & William Smith Colleges we continue to use the most recent version of the CBL Scorecard, as faculty have found it helpful and instructive, and administering a single instrument over 6 years has allowed us to compare year-to-year data and analyze trends. Further, we suspect that some of the faculty discontent may reflect

dissatisfaction with earlier formats for delivery of results. As noted above, during the first semesters of implementation, results were delivered in "raw" statistical form. The delivery format was subsequently revised for greater readability and applicability to course improvement.

Lessons Learned, Implementation Suggestions

The development of the CBL Scorecard was an iterative effort, incorporating feedback from participants, with gains in face and content validity from the work of Braxton and Jones. Through six implementations of the scorecard between 2010 and 2014, the consortium built a database and a report format that translates raw scores into more readable results for faculty, organized by the four domains: placement quality, application and connection to academic learning, reflection, and quality of community partnerships. Among the consortium members, there was agreement about the quality of questions and the yield of useful information. Yet, at the end of the grant, the loss of a central office to gather results from each institution, compile data, and benchmark across institutions, served as a deterrent to many of the consortium members. Representing an institution that found utility in outcomes from the CBL Scorecard, we suggest that institutions review their capacity to consistently implement such an instrument and their "comfort" with the limitation to internal assessment without cross-institutional comparison.

To achieve a high response rate, we suggest the following approach:

1. Initial efforts included sending the survey out electronically at the conclusion of the semester, yielding a low response rate in some courses making it difficult to interpret results. Regarding administration of the survey after the last day, a participating Hobart & William Smith Colleges professor noted, "I am surprised and disappointed to see that only half of my class responded; they were reminded, and they all promised. Regardless, it is very useful to see the survey items again, because it reinforces my course learning goals." To increase the response rate, CBL Scorecard questions may be loaded onto SurveyMonkey or an institution's internal evaluation tool, and the survey administered during the last or penultimate class in a computer lab.

2. Alternatively, if hosting the last class in a computer lab is not a feasible option, all students could access the survey via personal tablets or laptops or comparable devices on loan from Information Technology. (Note: Although the survey is not cumbersome, the questions are asked in a matrix format that would lead to a frustrating experience on personal hand-held phones.)
3. The method we employ, after trying various approaches, involves distributing paper copies of the survey to professors who collect and return them to an entity (in our case, the Center for Community Engagement & Service-Learning at Hobart & William Smith Colleges) that has the capacity to enter the data manually.
4. It is vital to differentiate the CBL Scorecard from the course evaluation, since their objectives are entirely different, and to confuse evaluation with assessment of effective service-learning practices could have a negative impact on faculty evaluation. Administering course evaluations immediately before or after the administration of the CBL Scorecard can also generate "assessment fatigue" and lead to less helpful responses from students.
5. Finally, we have found it effective to remind students during an initial service-learning training or during service-learning site visits that their feedback is important and that participation in the anonymous and voluntary survey assists institutional efforts to advance community-based learning as a thoughtful and proactive teaching method and a mutually beneficial collaboration among community partners, students, and faculty.

Other Challenges

As noted, Charles and Choi *(2013)* found that faculty teaching high-performing courses commented frequently that the feedback from the CBL Scorecard was helpful as a guide and a reminder of best practices for community-based learning pedagogy. However, faculty concerns about the misinterpretation of the intent of the survey were also noted in this research. Hobart & William Smith Colleges addresses this concern by making every effort to assure faculty members that class-specific results from the CBL Scorecard

are shared only with the faculty member, and any aggregate data appears without class-identifying comments.

All members of the consortium share the belief that community partners have a unique and vital knowledge base, and student interaction with community partners through community-based learning classes is a fundamental aspect of robust learning. When the CBL Scorecard was developed, questions incorporated research that accounted for this best practice. Indeed, one of the four domains of practice reflected in the scorecard is "quality of community partnerships." For instance, in the survey for students, they are asked to register the degree to which statements like the following are true of their community-based learning experience: "Community partners have a clear sense of what community-based learning projects will accomplish for them"; "The goals of community-based learning projects carefully consider the traditions/culture of the local community"; and "Community partners provide feedback on students' work on the project." However, due to challenges, including community partners' inability to take time away from important day-to-day operations of managing their nonprofit agencies, community partners of the consortium members were not a part of the initial convening where the scorecard was developed. During subsequent consortium meetings, community partner voice was present and a valued component to the discussion. In proverbial hindsight, a better practice might have been to provide a stipend or comparable benefit for community partners who participated.

After conversations with community members, staff at the Center for Community Engagement & Service-Learning at Hobart & William Smith Colleges willingly acknowledged the time-consuming burden on community partners of responding to two evaluative tools (feedback on student performance and community partner scorecard) and discontinued administration of the CBL Scorecard to community partners. Nonetheless, we learned that providing feedback on student performance served as a welcome way for community partners to feel a part of the student learning process. Consequently, we request feedback through a six-question survey (available at *http://www.hws.edu/academics/service/pdf/SL_evaluation09.pdf*) at the conclusion of each semester and gather community partners annually in informal settings to address the ideals set forth in the community partner survey. Such performance feedback is collected and provided to faculty members for inclusion in consideration of students' final grades.

Ultimately, various consortium members employ the scorecard in ways that best align with their program and community engagement goals. The scorecard may serve as a guide to staff who support the faculty with opportunities to enhance the community-based learning experience, and to promote dialogue between community partners and faculty members. "As a planning document, the scorecard informed our pedagogy and ultimate approach. Essentially, it served to remind us that community partner involvement and reliable, regular contact was essential," reported Jay Szczepanski, director of the Learning Resource Center at Flagler College *(personal communication, December 15, 2013)*. Other institutions found it useful for faculty development opportunities around community-based learning, as a formative rather than summative tool. As Lisa Wolfe from Franklin & Marshall College's Ware Institute for Civic Engagement commented:

> In the spirit of collegiality, we have used the scorecard as an educative tool. Especially for new practitioners, it clearly summarizes the standards for high-quality/high impact community-based learning and can be used as a rubric for identifying areas where there is the most potential for growth. *(personal communication, March 13, 2015)*

At Hobart & William Smith Colleges, we have used CBL Scorecard results to guide planning of faculty enrichment opportunities and the scorecard itself for discussion with faculty of effective community-based learning pedagogy. Professor Mary Kelly from our Education Department noted:

> The scorecard provides us with a reflective tool to assess the degree to which our service learning projects utilized best practices. It was a good reminder that, for example, participating in a service learning project along with students could have a positive impact on learning outcomes, and can be a lot of fun, too. *(personal communication, July 18, 2016)*

Conclusion

To return to our initial research goals and questions, to what degree has the CBL Scorecard met the Teagle Consortium aims of assessing community-based learning with an instrument that

employs a quantitative scale to afford benchmarking across institutions and provides a mechanism for closing the assessment loop, offering feedback to faculty to improve student learning? A recent evaluation of the research assessing the cognitive outcomes of community-based learning concludes: "Overall, these empirical investigations of cognition in service learning and related pedagogies support the importance of well-integrated service learning, the role of critical reflection, and the value of assessment methods that are grounded in theory" (*Fitch, Steinke, & Hudson, 2013, p. 68)*. All three of these goals are central to the CBL Scorecard and its aims and development: CBL Scorecard questions draw on widely recognized research to promote the most effective pedagogical practice for student learning, and among the hallmarks of that practice are the full integration of the experience in the community with course content and reflection activities that are relevant and encourage critical thinking. The "success factors" promoted by the CBL Scorecard are "environment variables that correlate in the research with such standard student learning and developmental outcome measures as GPA, writing skills, critical thinking skills, leadership, values, career choice and post-college activity" *(Rhodes College, Assessment of Student Learning, 2008, p. 8)*. As a result, we are confident that this instrument helps further the aims of a liberal education through the enhanced cognitive and affective development of our students, gained in robust and meaningful community-based learning experiences. In other words, strengthening the effectiveness of community-based learning courses and programs through ongoing assessment bolsters learning in the liberal arts, especially the integrative, collaborative, interdisciplinary, and multidisciplinary learning that will best prepare students for a rapidly changing, increasingly complex and interdependent world.

Although hardly a "silver bullet," this instrument also addresses some of the challenges facing the assessment movement, most specifically the issue of "closing the loop." A major concern has been how to move from assessment of learning to improvement of learning based on assessment results. As Blaich and Wise *(2011)* remark:

> Although much of the national conversation about assessment and accountability focuses on the pros and cons of different approaches to measuring student learning and experience, we have learned from the Wabash Study that measuring student learning and experience is by far the easiest step in the assessment

> process. The real challenge begins once faculty, staff, administrators, and students at institutions try to use the evidence to improve student learning. *(p. 3)*

Ewell *(2009)* sees a lack of specifics in assessment evidence as part of the difficulty in moving from assessment to improvement:

> Many institutions simply do not know, however, how to implement evidence-based continuous improvement. Why is this? One reason is the general nature of most assessment results when compared to the concrete realities of changing curriculum and pedagogy. Although exceptions are apparent, most assessment evidence is simply not fine grained enough to yield actionable information at this level. A similar reason is that such evidence tends to be presented in the form of central tendency measures, which don't show the patterns of strength and weakness or the variations in performance across types of students needed to guide intervention *(Kuh, 2007)*. Finally, information about outcomes alone doesn't tell faculty what to fix. *(p. 16)*

Admittedly, the CBL Scorecard does not yield direct evidence of student learning, so its results may be less easily interpretable into changes in classroom practice. However, it does give faculty feedback with clear and direct application to the community-based course they teach. That the results are course-specific is one of its strengths. In short, its summative role feeds into a formative one. As one faculty member put it: "It helped me realize what I wasn't doing that I needed to do" *(Charles & Choi, 2013, p. 49)*.

With the end of the Teagle grants, we no longer had funding for a central mechanism through which to gather responses from various institutions and produce cross-institutional benchmarking. Nonetheless, the instrument has the potential for benchmarking, as our pilot demonstrated. At Hobart & William Smith Colleges we plan continued use of the CBL Scorecard, with results from each of the past 10 semesters building internal benchmarking capacity to guide adjustments to individual courses and programwide alterations. Such capacity provides individual faculty with the data to understand anomalies that may occur and thereby to strengthen the effectiveness of service-learning in their courses over time. This benchmarking capacity also provides us with aggregate data to review with our Service-Learning Advisory Council in a broader

effort to promote institutional conversations about how to ensure high-quality service-learning experiences and enhanced student learning outcomes. Research is under way that would use scorecard results to further illuminate the strengths and weaknesses of CBL offerings, such as their impact on different student cohorts and related questions. In addition, from our perspective as an institution with the Carnegie community-engaged classification, we find the CBL Scorecard helpful in documenting and encouraging the practices represented by that certification. Ideally, there would be an interinstitutional mechanism to compile data and promote cross-institutional benchmarking, but until that opportunity arises, we will proceed at current capacity.

As a last note, we must add that in addition to the individual institutional uses of the CBL Scorecard, there is another compelling consequence of this collaborative effort: the formation of a community of practice where colleagues have established relationships that support personal development and institutional growth. These are by-products that will indeed be enduring.

Acknowledgments

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Disciplinary Variations in Publicly Engaged Scholarship: An Analysis Using the Biglan Classification of Academic Disciplines

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Abstract

Although contemporary models of faculty involvement in publicly engaged scholarship recognize the important influence of disciplines on faculty members, few studies have investigated disciplinary variations empirically. This study used the Biglan classification of academic disciplines to analyze publicly engaged scholarly activities reported by faculty members during reappointment, promotion, and tenure review. The Biglan dimensions (pure/applied, soft/hard, life/nonlife) were used to explore types of scholarly activity, intensity of activity, and degree of engagement. Using interpretive content analysis, we analyzed 171 reappointment, promotion, and tenure forms gathered from faculty members at one research-intensive, land-grant, Carnegie-engaged institution in the Midwest. Descriptive statistics revealed statistically significant disciplinary variations associated with all three Biglan dimensions. Study results provide evidence for moving beyond a universal, institutional approach to more nuanced discipline-specific policies, professional development programs, and support for faculty involved in publicly engaged scholarship.

Introduction

In 1995, Robert Diamond and Bronwyn Adam edited the first volume of T*he Disciplines Speak: Rewarding the Scholarly, Professional, and Creative Work of Faculty*; 5 years later, they followed up with *The Disciplines Speak II: More Statements on Rewarding the Scholarly, Professional, and Creative Work of Faculty (2000)*. In both volumes, Diamond and Adam emphasized the importance of extending the conversation about publicly engaged scholarship beyond "the confines of campus-based departments where faculty members reside [to] disciplinary and professional associations that play such an influential role in establishing faculty priorities" (*Rice, 1995, p. vi)*. Edward Zlotkowski's 21-volume book series, *Service Learning in the Disciplines*, published between 1997 and 2000 (around the same time as *The Disciplines Speak* volumes) reinforced the importance of acknowledging and celebrating disciplinary variations in one particular type of publicly engaged schol-

arship—service-learning and civic engagement. These nonempirical treatments raised awareness about publicly engaged scholarship by promoting descriptions and examples in the early years of the community engagement movement in U.S. higher education.

As the movement has continued to develop and deepen over time, scholars have advocated for institutional alignment and have studied the effects of institutional change initiatives *(Beere, Votruba, & Wells, 2011; Kecskes, 2006; Thornton & Jaeger, 2008)* or have developed complex models to explain faculty involvement in publicly engaged scholarship *(Demb & Wade, 2012; O'Meara, Sandmann, Saltmarsh, & Giles, 2011; Wade & Demb, 2009)*. Both the institutional and individual streams of scholarship affirm the influence of disciplines on faculty members and acknowledge that faculty members occupy "niches" with dual membership in both their institutions and their disciplinary subjects *(Clark, 1987, p. 42)*.

Despite decades of attention to disciplinary variations in publicly engaged scholarship, there have been few empirical studies about disciplines, resulting in institutional policies and practices about publicly engaged scholarship that are more universal or aggregate in nature than nuanced and discipline-oriented. In the conclusion of a recent study, the scholars advocated for moving away from a macro approach (i.e., one-size-fits all, institutional approach) and away from a micro approach (i.e., course or project approach) to a more robust understanding of how different disciplinary cultures interpret, influence, and implement publicly engaged scholarship (*Buzinski et al., 2013, p. 45)*. This study's goal was to address the need for additional scholarship about disciplinary differences in faculty work, particularly variations in publicly engaged scholarship *(Braxton & Hargens, 1996; Jones, 2011)*.

Conceptual Framework

Although a few studies have analyzed publicly engaged scholarship using disciplinary categorizations *(Buzinski et al., 2013; Glass, Doberneck, & Schweitzer, 2011; Lunsford & Omae, 2011; Morreale & Applegate, 2006; R. Neumann, 2001; Vogelgesang, Denzon, & Jayakumar, 2010)*, none have used the Biglan classification of academic disciplines (hereafter referred to as the Biglan classification) as a conceptual framework. In higher education research, however, the Biglan classification has been used for decades in studies about faculty work, including research on faculty salary and instructional staffing patterns *(Muffo & Langston, 1981)*; professional success, research opportunities, faculty conservatism, and character

development *(Smart & Elton, 1982)*; faculty goal orientation *(Smart & Elton, 1975)*; choice of methodological approach to research *(Alise, 2008; Alise & Teddlie, 2010)*; faculty time use, type of faculty scholarly output, source of funding for research, and faculty attitudes *(Stoecker, 1993)*; research output and socialization *(Creswell & Bean, 1981)*; and self-selection into disciplines *(Malaney, 1986)*.

Table 1. An Expansion of the Biglan Classification of Academic Disciplines

	Hard		Soft	
	Nonlife	**Life**	**Nonlife**	**Life**
Pure	Astronomy Chemistry Geology Mathematics	Botany Entomology Microbiology Physiology *Epidemiology* *Molecular genetics* *Neurology* *Plant pathology*	English German History Philosophy Communications *French, classics, and Italian* *Linguistics and Language* *Music* *Religious studies* *Writing and Rhetoric*	Anthropology Political Science Psychology Sociology *Geography* *International Studies and Programs*
Applied	Ceramic engineering Computer science Mech. engineering Civil engineering Nuclear engineering Computer engineering Computer science Electrical engineering Planning, design, and construction Medical Technology	Agronomy Dairy Science Horticulture Ag. economics *Animal Science* *Biosystems amd agricultural engineering* *Community agriculture* *Fisheries and wildlife* *Food science and human nutrition* *Forestry* *Recreation, parks, and tourism* *Small and Large animal clinical science*	Accounting Finance Economics *Advertising* *Information systems* *Marketing* *Supply chain mgmt.* *Telecommunications*	Ed. administration Secondary Ed. Special Ed. Vocational Ed. *Counseling, ed. psychology and special education* *Criminal justice* *Family and child ecology* *Kinesiology* *Labor and industrial relations* *Nursing* *Pediatrics and human development* *Psychiatry* *Teacher education* *Social Work*

The Biglan classification characterizes the subject matter of academic disciplines along three dimensions: (1) pure/applied, (2) hard/soft, and (3) life/nonlife *(Biglan, 1973a, 1973b)*. The *pure/*

applied dimension refers to the degree of concern with the application of disciplinary knowledge; that is, pure fields are less concerned about practical applications than applied fields. The *hard/soft dimension* refers to the degree to which there is paradigm consensus in the field; that is, hard fields are characterized by a high degree of consensus, and soft fields are characterized by a low degree of consensus and therefore are more open to multiple methodological approaches and interpretations. The *life/nonlife dimension* makes distinctions between those disciplines concerned with living organisms and those that are not. In Table 1, the original Biglan classification of academic disciplines appears in nonitalicized font.

Approach to Inquiry

Research Purpose and Questions

This study's purpose was to explore, discover, and reveal disciplinary variations in publicly engaged scholarship conducted by faculty members. The grand tour research question was, are faculty members in some disciplines more likely to approach their publicly engaged scholarship in ways that differ significantly from those of faculty members in other disciplines? Guided by the Biglan classification, the reserach questions were further refined to include the following:

1. Do the *types of activities* faculty members are involved in as publicly engaged scholarship vary by discipline?
2. Does the *intensity of activity* in their publicly engaged scholarship vary by discipline?
3. Does the *degree of engagement* in their publicly engaged scholarship vary by discipline?

Definitions

Throughout this study, the phrase *publicly engaged scholarship* was used because it encompasses a broad range of scholarly activities that cut across faculty members' responsibilities in research or creative activities, teaching and learning, service and practice, and commercialized activities—all of which are conducted in collaboration with community partners and provide a direct benefit to audiences beyond the campus *(adapted from Michigan State University, Provost's Committee on Outreach, 1993)*. *Publicly engaged scholarship* also acknowledges a spectrum of collaborative relationships with

community partners, ranging from less reciprocal, transactional, unidirectional activities (i.e., outreach) to more mutually codeveloped, transformative, multidirectional activities *(i.e., engagement; Ellison & Eatman, 2008; Saltmarsh & Hartley, 2011)*.

Types of activities referred to types of scholarly activities defined by the typology of publicly engaged scholarship *(Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2010)*, which categorizes faculty work into four main responsibilities: publicly engaged research and creative activity; publicly engaged teaching and learning; publicly engaged service and practice; and publicly engaged commercialized activities. The typology further subdivides those four main faculty responsibilities into fourteen mutually exclusive subcategories (*Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2010, p. 18)*. In this study, researchers analyzed the data to look for disciplinary variations among the four main types and the fourteen subtypes of publicly engaged scholarship. Researchers assumed that if an activity was reported on the reappointment, promotion, and tenure (RPT) form that the faculty member considered that activity to be scholarly in nature; however, some faculty members reported instances of volunteering or community service that were unrelated to the faculty member's discipline or training or did not have a clear scholarly foundation—for example, participating in the Kiwanis Club or volunteering for Habitat for Humanity. On a case by case basis, researchers excluded these activities from the study.

Intensity of activity referred to "the frequency, duration, and complexity of the faculty member's interaction with community partners" (*Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2012, p. 19)*. In other words, how often and to what extent do the faculty member and community partner collaborate with one another? The concept was influenced by Enos and Morton's *(2003)* partnership development model, which characterizes partnerships by depth, complexity, and time *(p. 27)*.

Degree of engagement referred to "the extent to which faculty members collaborate with their community partners in reciprocal, mutually beneficial ways" (*Doberneck, Glass, & Schweitzer, 2012, pp. 19–20)*. In other words, to what extent do community partners have a voice in the collaboration and share decision-making power with the faculty member? This concept was influenced by The Research University Civic Engagement Network's degree of collaborative processes in engaged research (*Stanton, 2008, p. 26)*, Imagining America's continuum of scholarship *(Ellison & Eatman, 2008)*, and distinctions between transactional and transformative partnerships *(Saltmarsh & Hartley, 2011)*.

Research Site

Because this research was an exploratory study, the research site was purposefully limited to one research university/very high, land-grant, Carnegie-engaged institution in the Midwest. The institution was purposefully selected because of its long-standing commitment to publicly engaged scholarship, including the early development of an institutional definition for outreach scholarship *(Michigan State University, Provost's Committee on Outreach, 1993)*, development of criteria to document quality outreach and engagement *(Michigan State University, 1996)*, and revisions in the reappointment, promotion, and tenure forms to encourage reporting of outreach and engagement in 2001 *(Glass, Doberneck, & Schweitzer, 2010)*. The number of faculty members at such a large institution, combined with a long-standing institutional commitment to publicly engaged scholarship, was expected to generate sufficient heterogeneity to enable exploring the study's research questions in depth *(Kezel, 1999; Patton, 1990)*.

Sources of Data

The researchers chose RPT forms and the accompanying narratives as the sources of data for this study because these documents are the official institutional record of scholarly accomplishments and faculty members' expressions of their academic contributions *(Moore & Ward, 2008; Moore & Ward, 2010; A. Neumann, 2009; Neumann & Terosky, 2007)*. Although there is growing evidence that RPT documents do not represent a straightforward summary of a faculty member's accomplishments but instead reflect a strategic, socially constructed response to contested institutional processes and spaces, especially for female faculty and faculty of color *(Arnold, Crawford, & Khalifa, 2016; Diggs, Garrison-Wade, Estrada, & Galindo, 2009; Stanley, 2006; Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Winkler, 2000)*, the chosen research design precluded thorough examination of the political dimension and context of the participating faculty members. Even though this is a study limitation, the researchers viewed institutional documents, such as RPT documents, as stable sources of rich institutional data *(Whitt, 2001)* suitable for the first exploratory analysis of publicly engaged scholarship using the Biglan classification.

At this institution, RPT forms are divided into an administrator's section and a faculty candidate's section, which is further subdivided into (a) instruction, (b) research and creative activities, (c) service within the academy and the broader community,

(d) additional reporting, including sections for additional scholarship and the scholarship of integration, and (e) grant reporting. The candidates must also submit an essay and their curriculum vitae *(Glass, Doberneck, and Schweitzer, 2010)*. Section D—additional scholarship and the scholarship of integration—was added in the 2001 RPT revisions to reflect Boyer's *(1990)* expanded definition of scholarship and to encourage publicly engaged scholars to report their scholarship that reflected the integration across faculty roles *(Bloomgarden & O'Meara, 2007; Campbell & O'Meara, 2014)*. In this study, researchers analyzed the faculty candidate's section of the form (sections A–E), essays, and curriculum vitae.

Participants

Researchers obtained the list of tenure-track faculty who underwent reappointment, promotion, or tenure review during 2001–2006 from the institution's Office of Academic Human Resources and contacted the listed faculty members for their consent to include their RPT materials in this IRB-approved study. Due to the unavailability of institutional data, this study did not include tenure-line faculty members who were unsuccessful in promotion and tenure review; were no longer employed at the institution; and/or no longer held tenure-line positions at the institution. Of the 374 faculty members invited to participate in this study, 171 voluntarily agreed to inclusion of their materials, for a response rate of 46%.

The 171 participants were 31% female, 69% male; by race/ethnic identity, participants were 5% African-American/Black, 3% American Indian/Alaska Native, 10% Asian/Pacific Islander, 2% Hispanic, and 80% White. The participant ranks included 54% assistant professors and 46% associate professors. Participants held primary appointments in the following colleges: 27% Agriculture and Natural Resources; 12% Arts and Letters (including Music); 4% Business; 2% Communication Arts and Sciences; 6% Education; 4% Engineering; 3% Human Medicine; 19% Natural Science; 2% Nursing; 3% Osteopathic Medicine; 14% Social Science; 3% Veterinary Medicine; and 1% other. Chi-square analysis determined that this sample did not differ significantly (by gender, race/ethnicity, rank, and college) from the full-time, tenure-line faculty at the institution during the study period.

Data Coding and Data Analysis

Once the RPT documents were obtained, the research team determined each faculty member's Biglan classification based on

their departmental appointment. If a faculty member held an appointment in more than one department, the department of their primary appointment was used in this coding step. Disciplines have proliferated since Biglan's 1973 conceptualization, and, as a result, the research team encountered 40 departments that were not part of the original Biglan classification. To assign Biglan dimensions to these unclassified departments, the researchers considered the degree to which the department is concerned with the application of disciplinary knowledge (pure/applied), openness to multiple approaches and interpretations (hard/soft), and emphasis on living organisms (life/nonlife). In a few cases, the research team sought out faculty colleagues from the unclassified departments and asked for their advice in classifying their own departments. Previously uncategorized departments were then assigned a Biglan classification; these appear in italics in Table 1. Table 2 reports the frequency of the Biglan classifications in the study sample. After assigning Biglan classifications, the research team followed a three-step coding process.

Table 2. Frequencies of Biglan Classifications in the Study Sample

	Hard		Soft	
	Nonlife %	Life %	Life %	Nonlife %
Pure	12	13	13	13
Applied	5	24	12	9

In Step 1, the research team coded *types of activities* by applying the typology of publicly engaged scholarship to the documents. Each reported instance of publicly engaged scholarship in the RPT documents was coded with an absence/presence code. Crosstabs were used to compare the paired Biglan dimensions with the frequency of each type of publicly engaged scholarship. Chi-square statistics revealed that faculty members in some disciplinary groupings were more likely to report some types of publicly engaged scholarship.

In Step 2, researchers coded *intensity of activity* using the four-point coding scheme developed by Colbeck and Wharton-Michael *(2006)*. These mutually exclusive scores were assigned holistically and ranged from 0 (representing no publicly engaged scholarship) to 3 (representing long-term collaborations that include peer-reviewed evidence of scholarly achievements such as grant-writing, publications, or awards). Researchers calculated the means and difference in the means for the paired Biglan dimensions and

ran independent sample *t*-tests to determine the significance of these differences.

In Step 3, the research team coded *degree of engagement* by assigning mutually exclusive, holistic codes using a 4-point coding scheme similar to the intensity of activity codes. These mutually exclusive, holistic codes ranged from 0 (representing no publicly engaged scholarship) to 3 (representing two-way interactions between the faculty member and community partners that resulted in cogenerated knowledge). Researchers calculated the means and the differences in the means for the paired Biglan dimension and ran independent sample t-tests to determine the significance of the differences.

Quality and Rigor

Initially, to develop the codes inductively from the data, the research team coded documents individually and then discussed coding decisions during team meetings. Over several months of iterative individual and team coding, codes and coding rules developed into the codebook. During the coding process, the research team assigned each faculty member's materials to two researchers who independently coded their assigned documents for type of activities, intensity of activity, and degree of engagement and entered their codes into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 17.0. Reconciliation reports revealed coding agreements and disagreements. When disagreements in coding were identified, the coders consulted the codebook and met to reconcile the differences. Finalized codes were entered into a second, separate SPSS file that was used for the final data analysis. In this way, the codes were developed, refined, and applied consistently to ensure a high degree of team-based, interrater reliability throughout the coding process *(Mayring, 2000; MacQueen, McLellan, & Milstein, 1998)*.

In addition, the research team practiced critical reflexivity during frequent in-person meetings to guarantee that the codes refined through constant comparative analysis were understood by all coders, incorporated in the updated coding manual, and recorded to create an audit trail *(Anfara, Brown, & Mangione, 2002; Creswell & Miller, 2000; Glaser, 1965; Glaser & Strauss, 1967)*.

Through this three-step coding process, the data were transformed from qualitative data into quantitative data to support statistical analyses commonly used in interpretive content analysis *(Boyatzis, 1998)*. The researchers chose interpretive content analysis because it is an analytic approach that accommodates large amounts

of text as data, supports analysis of keywords in context, and generates descriptive statistics about patterns in the data *(Krippendorff, 2004; Neuendorf, 2002)*.

Results

Main Types of Publicly Engaged Scholarship

Faculty members in the applied, hard, and life disciplines were overall more likely than their colleagues in pure, soft, and nonlife-fields to report publicly engaged scholarship. Faculty members in applied and life disciplines were more likely than their pure and nonlife colleagues to report publicly engaged research and creative activities. Faculty members in applied disciplines were more likely than their pure colleagues to report publicly engaged teaching and learning. Faculty members in applied and life disciplines were more likely than their pure and nonlife colleagues to report publicly engaged service and practice. Finally, faculty members in hard disciplines were more likely than their soft-discipline colleagues to report publicly engaged commercialized activities. Table 3 shows the frequencies, chi-square values, and significance levels for the main types of publicly engaged scholarship.

Subtypes of Publicly Engaged Scholarship

Faculty members in *applied disciplines* were more likely than their pure discipline colleagues to report five subtypes of publicly engaged scholarship: publicly engaged research funded by business, industry, or commodity groups *($p = .000$)*; publicly engaged research funded by nonprofits, foundations, or government *($p = .000$)*; noncredit instruction for public understanding *($p = .001$)*; service—technical assistance, expert testimony, or legal advice *($p = .002$)*; and service—advisory boards related to the discipline *($p = .018$)*. Faculty members from the *pure disciplines* were less likely than their applied colleagues to conduct any subtype of publicly engaged scholarship.

Faculty members in the *hard disciplines* were more likely than their soft-discipline colleagues to report three subtypes of publicly engaged scholarship: publicly engaged research funded by business, industry, or commodity groups *($p = .000$)*; noncredit instruction through classes and programs *($p = .004$)*; and service—patient, clinical, or diagnostic services *($p = .039$)*. Faculty members in the *soft disciplines* were more likely than their hard-discipline colleagues to report two subtypes of publicly engaged scholarship:

publicly engaged research unfunded or intramurally funded *(p = .016)* and for-credit instruction for nontraditional audiences *(p = .046)*.

Table 3: Main Types of Publicly Engaged Scholarship by Paired Biglan Dimensions

Main types of PES	Frequencies, Chi-Square Values, and Significance of Paired Biglan Dimensions											
	Pure	Applied %	χ^2	Sig. Level	Hard %	Soft %	Hard %	Sig. Level	Life %	Non-Life %	χ^2	Sig. Level
Outreach and engagement overall	88..4	98.8	7.758	0.05	96.8	89.5	3.809	.051	96.1	89.7	2.797	NS
Publicly engaged research and creative activities	62.8	82.4	8.208	.003	73.7	71.1	.147	NS	81.6	58.8	10.617	.001
Publicly engaged teachinhg and learning	82.6	95.3	7.021	.007	91.6	85.5	1.566	NS	90.3	86.8	.516	NS
Publicly engaged service and practice	60.5	83.5	11.263	.001	73.7	69.7	.326	NS	81.6	57.4	11.881	.001
Publicly engaged commercialized activities	16.3	11.8	.722	NS	22.1	3.9	11.538	.000	14.6	13.2	.060	NS

NS= Not statistically significant

Table 4: Sub-Types of Publicly Engaged Scholarship by Paired Biglan Dimensions

Subtypes of Publicly Engaged Scholarship	Biglan Dimension											
	Pure %	Applied %	χ^2	Sig. Level	Hard %	Soft %	χ^2	Sig. Level	Life %	Nonlife %	χ^2	Sig. Level
Publicly Engaged Research and Creative Activities												
Research: business, industry	17.4	43.5	13.748	.000	45.3	11.8	22.286	.000	34.0	25.0	1.561	NS
Research: nonprofit, foundation, government	36.0	64.7	14.045	.000	55.8	43.4	2.584	NS	65.0	27.9	22.560	.000
Research: unfunded, intramural funding	37.2	43.5	.709	NS	32.6	50.0	5.292	.016	44.7	33.8	1.998	NS
Creative activities	7.0	4.7	.400	NS	3.2	9.2	2.809	NS	3.9	8.8	1.815	NS
Publicly Engaged Teaching and Learning												
For-credit nontraditional learners	15.1	15.3	.001	NS	10.5	21.1	3.629	.046	14.6	16.2	.083	NS
Noncredit classes and programs	69.8	77.6	1.369	NS	82.1	63.2	7.817	.004	75.7	70.6	.558	NS
Noncredit public understanding	50.5	82.4	10.018	.001	74.7	67.1	1.203	NS	75.7	64.7	2.434	NS
Publicly Engaged Service and Practice												
Technical assistance	45.3	68.2	9.122	.002	56.8	56.6	.001	NS	68.9	38.2	15.723	.000
Patient, clinical, and diagnostic services	5.8	11.8	1.892	NS	12.6	3.9	3.979	.039	13.6	1.5	7.521	.004
Advisory boards related to discipline	30.02	47.1	5.107	.018	40.0	36.8	.178	NS	42.7	32.4	1.857	NS
Publicly Engaged Commercialized Activities												
Publicly engaged commercialized activities	16.3	11.8	.722	NS	22.1	3.9	11.538	.000	14.6	13.2	.060	NS

NS= Not statistically significant

Faculty members in the *life disciplines* were more likely than their nonlife-discipline colleagues to report three subtypes of publicly engaged scholarship: publicly engaged research funded by nonprofits, foundations, or government *(p = .000)*; service—technical assistance, expert testimony, or legal services *(p = .000)*; and service—patient, clinical, or diagnostic services *(p = .004)*. Faculty members in the *nonlife disciplines* were less likely than their life-discipline colleagues to conduct any subtype of publicly engaged scholarship. Table 4 shows the frequencies, chi-square values, and significance levels for the subtypes of publicly engaged scholarship.

Faculty members in this study did not report three types of publicly engaged scholarship—for-credit curricular service-learning, non-credit managed learning environments, and cocurricular service-learning. Consequently, these three subtypes of publicly engaged scholarship noted in the typology of publicly engaged scholarship were not included in Table 4.

Intensity of Activity

Independent sample *t*-tests were conducted for the paired Biglan dimensions; the analysis revealed statistically significant differences in the intensity of activity between *pure/applied* and *life/nonlife* dimensions. The means for each Biglan dimension were as follows: pure (1.76), applied (2.29), hard (2.13), soft (1.89), life (2.28), and nonlife (1.63). Faculty members in applied disciplines reported higher intensity of activity than those in pure disciplines *(p = .000)*. Faculty members in life disciplines reported higher intensity of activity than those in nonlife disciplines *(p = .000)*. Analysis of the hard/soft disciplines did not reveal statistically significant results. Statistically significant disciplinary variations related to intensity of activity are reported in Table 5.

Degree of Engagement

Independent sample *t*-tests were also conducted for the paired Biglan dimensions; the analysis revealed statistically significant differences in the degree of engagement between *pure/applied* and *life/nonlife* dimensions. The means for each Biglan dimension were as follows: pure (1.22), applied (1.52), hard (1.38), soft (1.36), life (1.56), and nonlife (1.07). Faculty members in the applied disciplines reported higher levels of engagement than those in the pure disciplines *(p = .016)*. Faculty members in the life disciplines reported higher degrees of engagement than those in the nonlife disciplines *(p = .000)*. Analysis of the hard/soft disciplines did not

reveal statistically significant results. Statistically significant disciplinary variations related to degree of engagement are also reported in Table 5.

Table 5: Intensity of Activity and Degree of Engagement by Paired Biglan Dimensions

	Means and Differences in Means by Paired Biglan Dimensions											
	Pure	Applied	Difference in means	Sig. Level	Hard	Soft	Difference in means	Sig. Level	Life	Non-Life	Difference in means	Sig. Level
Intensity of activity	1.76	2.29	.53	.000	2.13	1.89	.24	.126	2.28	1.63	.65	.000
Degree of engagement	1.22	1.52	.30	.016	1.38	1.36	.02	.850	1.56	1.07	.49	.000

Discussion

This study revealed statistically significant findings related to publicly engaged scholarship in four of the six Biglan dimensions: applied, hard, soft, and nonlife. Faculty associated with the pure and life dimensions were not more likely than their colleagues to report publicly engaged scholarship in their RPT documents.

Question 1: Do the types of activities faculty members are involved in as publicly engaged scholarship vary by discipline? In examining disciplinary variations in the main types of publicly engaged scholarship—research and creative activities, teaching and learning, service and practice, and commercialized activities—analysis revealed statistically significant findings associated with three of the Biglan dimensions. Faculty members from the *applied disciplines* were more likely to report publicly engaged research and creative activities, teaching and learning, and service and practice. Faculty members from the *hard disciplines* were more likely to report publicly engaged commercialized activities. Finally, faculty members in the *life disciplines* were more likely to report publicly engaged research and creative activities and publicly engaged service and practice.

Analysis of the *subtypes of publicly engaged scholarship* revealed a wider range of disciplinary variations associated with applied, hard, soft, and life Biglan dimensions. Faculty members from *applied disciplines* were more likely to report five subtypes of community-engaged scholarship: research funded by business and industry; research funded by nonprofits, foundations, and government; noncredit instruction for public understanding; technical

assistance; and advisory boards related to the discipline. Faculty members from the *hard disciplines* were more likely to report four subtypes of publicly engaged scholarship: research funded by business and industry; noncredit classes and programs; patient, clinical, and diagnostic services; and commercialized activities. Faculty members from the *soft disciplines* were more likely to report two subtypes of publicly engaged scholarship: research that was intramurally funded or unfunded and for-credit teaching and learning for nontraditional learners. Faculty members from the *life disciplines* were more likely to report three subtypes of publicly engaged scholarship: publicly engaged research funded by nonprofits, foundations, or the government; technical assistance; and patient, clinical, and diagnostic services.

Question 2: Does the intensity of activity in their publicly engaged scholarship vary by discipline? Faculty members from the *applied and life disciplines* were more likely than colleagues from other Biglan dimensions to report high levels of intensity in collaborating with community partners. In other words, their publicly engaged collaborations with community partners were more likely to include frequent interactions, longer durations, and more complex relationships.

Question 3: Does the degree of engagement in their publicly engaged scholarship vary by discipline? Faculty members from the *applied and life disciplines* were also more likely than colleagues from the other Biglan dimensions to report high degrees of engagement in their publicly engaged scholarship. Faculty members from applied and life fields were more likely to engage in reciprocal ways with mutual benefits to all partners and to participate in transformative relationships with their community partners.

This study's findings are in keeping with the extant scholarship about disciplinary variations in faculty members' commitment to and involvement in publicly engaged scholarship *(Buzinski et al., 2013; Hammond, 1994)*. In 2000, Antonio, Astin, and Cress analyzed the 1995–1996 Higher Education Research Institute (HERI) national faculty survey and examined faculty members' field of training and their commitment to community service. They found that faculty members from social work, ethnic studies, women's studies, education, and health sciences (i.e., applied and life Biglan dimensions, except for ethnic studies) exhibited higher levels of commitment to community service than faculty from math/computer science, physical science, foreign language, anthropology, and English (i.e., pure, nonlife Biglan dimensions, except for anthropology; *2000, pp. 384–385*).

In 2002, Abes, Jackson, and Jones found similar patterns in their national survey research that revealed that faculty members from social/behavioral sciences; social work, education, and human ecology; agriculture; business; and the health professions (i.e., applied Biglan dimensions) were more involved in service-learning than faculty from humanities; arts; physical/biological sciences; and math, engineering, and computer sciences (i.e., pure Biglan dimensions; *2002, p. 7)*.

In 2010, Vogelgesang et al.'s logistic regression analysis of 2002–2005 HERI survey data revealed similar disciplinary patterns. On two main public engagement questions—using scholarship to address community needs and collaborating with community in research and teaching—their research ranked faculty members from education, forestry/agriculture, and health sciences (i.e., life Biglan dimensions) highest and ranked faculty members from engineering, humanities, math/statistics, and English (i.e., nonlife Biglan dimensions) lowest *(2010, p. 449)*.

Study Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Because this was the first study to use the Biglan classification to analyze disciplinary variations in publicly engaged scholarship, we purposefully limited the study's scope to a single institution. To establish the generalizability of these findings, future research could be conducted at similar institutions to see if the same disciplinary variations are present in their faculty members' publicly engaged scholarship. Because there is growing evidence that institution type influences faculty members' involvement in publicly engaged scholarship *(Demb & Wade, 2012; O'Meara et al., 2011; Wade & Demb, 2009)*, a similar study could be conducted at multiple types of institutions of higher education to see if these disciplinary variations hold true or vary across institutional types.

The unavailability of reappointment, promotion, and tenure materials from faculty members who did not advance through the review process imposed another limitation. This lack of data prevented the researchers from comparing RPT materials of those who advanced through reappointment, promotion, and tenure successfully with those who did not advance. Although such a comparison was not this study's exploratory focus, future research comparing publicly engaged scholarship in RPT documents from faculty members who were successful to those who were not successful would be a significant contribution to the field.

Academic service-learning and cocurricular service-learning figure prominently in publicly engaged scholarship, especially in research about disciplinary variations *(Abes et al., 2002; Antonio et al., 2000; Buzinski et al., 2013; Hammond, 1994)*. Aware of the wide range of terms used for service-learning, researchers thoroughly examined the RPT data for multiple terms that could be used to describe service-learning, including academic service-learning, cocurricular service-learning, civic engagement, and community-based research in courses. No instances of service-learning were reported on the RPT forms. This finding was unexpected because faculty members at this institution incorporate service-learning into their courses and include cocurricular service-learning activities as part of their leadership activities on campus *(Karen McKnight Casey, personal communication with the institution's director of the Center for Service Learning and Civic Engagement, September 19, 2008)*. The researchers speculate that the RPT form itself may be one cause for the underreporting of academic or cocurricular service-learning. For example, at this institution, the Registrar's Office does not have a special course designation for service-learning comparable to the ones for entrepreneurship (e-courses) and Honors options (h-courses). As a result, it would not be apparent from the faculty member's list of courses whether a class had a service-learning or community engagement component. The RPT forms do not include a way to indicate whether courses listed in the instruction section include academic service-learning, community-based research in classes, or other forms of publicly engaged teaching and learning (e.g., no asterisks to note outreach and engagement components). Nor is there a separate section on the form for reporting course-based, publicly engaged teaching and learning, even though there is a separate section on the form to report noncredit instruction. This limitation in the reported data merits further inquiry—at this particular institution and in future studies about disciplinary variations in publicly engaged scholarship. This study's findings, however, should be considered complementary to extant studies of disciplinary variations that have focused almost exclusively on service-learning and civic engagement.

"The changing nature of knowledge domains over time has its impact on the identities and cultural characteristics of disciplines" *(Beecher & Trowler, 2001, p. 43)*. To address the inevitable changes in disciplines, a future study might refine and expand the Biglan classification as a conceptual framework in the analysis of publicly engaged scholarship. Academic disciplines have evolved and changed since Biglan first published his classification framework

in 1973. New disciplinary fields have emerged; others have split into distinct subdisciplines incongruent with the 1973 Biglan classification. For example, physical geographers could be classified as pure, hard, and nonlife, whereas their cultural geography colleagues could be classified as applied, soft, and life. The rise of interdisciplinary scholarship, especially in response to problems typically addressed through publicly engaged scholarship, also poses a challenge to Biglan's classification *(Stoecker, 1993)*. In addition, epistemological and methodological perspectives have proliferated since 1973, leading faculty members to embrace publicly engaged scholarship from a range of intellectual stances and personal motivations that do not adhere strictly to disciplinary lines. Expanding the existing Biglan classification poses some challenges, but using an updated conceptual framework in future research might reveal subtle subdisciplinary differences useful in informing institutional policy in ways more consistent with faculty members' disciplinary (and subdisciplinary) lives.

Implications for Institutional Policy and Practice

The recognition that publicly engaged scholarship manifests itself in different ways in different disciplinary groups has significant consequences for multiple aspects of institutional policy and practice. First, universal, institution-wide, "one-size-fits-all" policies, especially those associated with reappointment, promotion, and tenure, may need to be reconsidered and expanded to accommodate disciplinary variations in publicly engaged scholarship. Consider this study's finding that faculty members in the hard disciplines were more likely to report publicly engaged commercialized activities than faculty from the other five Biglan dimensions. RPT policies that do not encourage the reporting of publicly engaged commercialized activities may unintentionally disadvantage faculty members from the hard disciplines.

Second, revising and expanding policies is necessary, but not sufficient, for changing institutional policies and practices. Departmental mentors; members of reappointment, promotion, and tenure committees; and institutional leaders are often most familiar with the types of activities, intensity of activity, and degrees of engagement from their own disciplines. They are often less familiar with the norms and standards in disciplines, and even sometimes subdisciplines, that are not their own. To counteract the "if it doesn't look like *my* scholarship, it shouldn't be counted in RPT" perspective, institution-wide efforts should be made to familiarize faculty and administrators, particularly those in decision-

making positions such as hiring committees and RPT committees, with the variety of ways faculty members and community partners collaborate with one another on publicly engaged scholarship.

Third, professional development for publicly engaged scholarship may need to be reexamined and diversified so that faculty support is offered in ways that are consistent with disciplinary variations in publicly engaged scholarship. For example, professional development programs that support faculty to win federally funded grants with outreach and engagement components (e.g., National Science Foundation grants with broader community impact requirements) privilege faculty in the applied and life disciplines over faculty in the other four Biglan dimensions. Instead, a comprehensive approach sensitive to disciplinary variations might provide a portfolio of professional development opportunities that intentionally focus skill-building in areas naturally of interest to different disciplines. For example, to support robust publicly engaged teaching and learning, professional development workshops and trainings might focus on nontraditional audiences (for soft disciplines), noncredit classes and programs (for hard disciplines), and noncredit, public understanding events, resources, and materials (for applied disciplines). Although resources may not be available to offer workshops and trainings for every disciplinary grouping, it may be prudent to review the slate of offered workshops to verify that certain segments of the university's disciplines are not being neglected while others are supported.

Finally, institutional support for publicly engaged scholarship may need to be reexamined and modified to be extended equitably to faculty from all disciplines, so that institutional awards are not inadvertently concentrated on faculty in some disciplines and unavailable to faculty in others. For example, university awards programs that emphasize and reward publicly engaged scholarship defined as long-term, highly engaged university–community partnerships (i.e., high intensity of activity, high degree of engagement) privilege faculty members in applied and life disciplines over those in pure and nonlife disciplines. Faculty members from Agriculture and Natural Resources, Education, and Health Sciences would win the annual university awards each year, with faculty members from Arts and Humanities, Business, or Natural and Physical Sciences rarely winning awards. Over time, this may result in uneven support for faculty based on their discipline (or more accurately, based on an incomplete understanding of the various ways faculty members in different disciplines conduct publicly engaged scholarship). Without awareness of and attention to disciplinary variations, an

inadvertent concentration of support in some disciplines to the exclusion of others is also likely to occur in the awarding of seed grant money, conference support, travel resources, and other forms of institutional support for publicly engaged scholarship.

Concluding Thoughts: Disciplinary Variation and Diversity in Engagement

In a 2008 review article about the community engagement movement in higher education, Sandmann put forward a conceptualization that divided the movement's history into four separate eras. She named these eras *punctuations*, a term borrowed from the biological sciences referring to punctuated equilibria or periods of relative stability that are then followed by periods of rapid structural, transformational change (*Sandmann, 2008, p. 93)*. Sandmann distinguished four punctuations in the community engagement movement: (1) engagement defined, (2) engagement as teaching and research, (3) engagement as a scholarly expression, and (4) engagement institutionalized.

Throughout these eras, leaders in the publicly engaged scholarship movement sought to define and promote publicly engaged scholarship as a legitimate form of faculty work and to differentiate it from more traditional, nonengaged approaches to research, teaching, and service. National leaders in the movement and leaders at specific institutions worked to develop shared principles and best practices to guide publicly engaged scholarship in a more unified, cohesive manner. At forums like the American Association of Higher Education's Faculty Roles and Rewards Conference in the late 1990s and early 2000s, administrators and scholars sought to align institutional mission statements, rewards policies, and operational structures to support community engagement. The publicly engaged scholarship movement's strength was in its coalescing momentum around a common vision and practice for community engagement. This unifying approach to leadership has served the movement well. As O'Meara notes in her recent summary of accomplishments to advance the scholarship of engagement "there is more of it" and "there are structures and processes in place to support faculty, students, and institutions as they do this work" (*O'Meara, 2011, pp. 181, 185)*.

As research on disciplinary differences continues to proliferate, perhaps it is time to question whether we have entered a new punctuation in the publicly engaged scholarship movement—characterized less by an emphasis on unity through shared principles and

best practices and more by an emphasis on disciplinary variety and diversity *(Buzinski et al., 2013)*. The fifth punctuation might be called "disciplinary variations and diversity in engagement."

Clearly, it is important for institutional leaders to promote the collective significance and value of their institution's publicly engaged scholarship to external constituencies such as legislators, funders, and members of the general public. However, when it comes to internal institutional leadership, perhaps the time has come to adopt a more nuanced approach where the disciplinary variations and diversity of publicly engaged scholarship are recognized, celebrated, and encouraged in both policy and practice.

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Boundary-Spanner Role Conflict in Public Urban Universities

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Abstract

It is common for universities that seek community partnerships to employ full-time staff, formally sanctioned as boundary spanners, to develop and manage such partnerships. These staff are frequently administrative or allied staff rather than tenure-track faculty or academic unit administrators. Given the multiple interests of universities and their community partners, it seems likely that boundary spanners attempting to design mutually beneficial relationships will experience role conflict as they seek to align diverse community and institutional agendas. This qualitative study explored the experience of role conflict as reported by university staff boundary spanners. This study found that role conflict was an integral part of the boundary spanner role and that boundary spanners exhibited two responses to role conflict: formative responses, directed toward continuing to seek mutual benefit, and adaptive responses, wherein mutual benefit was not pursued. External factors impacting role conflict were also identified.

Introduction

A growing number of colleges and universities are seeking value-added partnerships with external organizations to promote student learning and interorganizational access to resources. The Carnegie Foundation labels the process of forming and maintaining such partnerships *community engagement (NERCHE, 2015)*.

Universities are inherently complex organizations *(Szekeres, 2011)*. Given the complex nature of urban universities and their larger diverse communities, it was deemed likely that university staff attempting to fashion mutually beneficial university–community partnerships would experience role conflict.

The potential for role conflict among boundary spanners within higher education has received little attention in the literature and is not well understood. Little is known about the conflict experienced by boundary spanners and how it might affect both institutions of higher education and the communities in which they reside. The purpose of this research was to explore the possible experiences of role conflict by nonacademic university staff members

who work across organizational boundaries in urban universities to address the needs of both their host institutions and their communities. This qualitative research study addressed the following questions: (1) What is the nature of role conflict as experienced by nonacademic administrative staff serving as university–community boundary spanners in urban universities? (2) How does the experience of role conflict impact the processes of partnership formation and community engagement? (3) What individual and institutional strategies have been identified by boundary spanners to assist with the management of role conflict?

Literature Review

Community engagement is defined by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching *(2007)* as "the collaboration between institutions of higher education and their larger communities (local, regional, national, global) for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity" *(para. 3)*. Sandmann *(2007)* emphasized the two-way, reciprocal dimension of such relationships as the critical element distinguishing community engagement from typical community service or outreach activities.

The key to differentiating community engagement from traditional community service and outreach is not the overt nature of the project—a community health project, for example—but the nature of the processes that guide the project. It could be a fine service project for a medical school, working unilaterally, to start a free medical clinic for area residents. However, to involve community resources, residents, and organizations in active partnership for the planning, operation, and/or evaluation of the clinic is more reflective of the principles and processes of community engagement. It is this notion of shared partnership that distinguishes engagement from community service and from one-way outreach and service programs that make campus resources available to the community.

In *Scholarship Reconsidered: The Priorities of the Professoriate*, Boyer *(1990)* affirmed higher education's history of service while issuing a challenge for engagement: "Can America's colleges and universities, with all the richness of their resources, be of greater service to the nation and the world?" *(p. 3)*. Boyer is acknowledged by Sandmann *(2006)*, McNall, Reed, Brown, and Allen *(2009)*, and others as a defining influence on the concept of community engagement within higher education.

Community engagement has many different faces. Fisher, Fabricant, and Simmons *(2004)* list four primary types of contemporary community engagement: service-learning, local economic development, community-based research, and social work initiatives. Using the alternate label of *university outreach*, Altman *(2006)* distinguishes six different roles for community-engaged universities within their communities: "1) student voluntarism and service learning courses, 2) academic department based partnerships, 3) university–business partnerships, 4) general community relations, 5) comprehensive issues-based partnerships, and 6) real estate development" *(p. 13)*. Both frameworks identify dimensions of community engagement that allow for benefits to institutions of higher education and their host communities.

For urban universities, the practice of community engagement is enriched and challenged by the complexity of urban environments. Such urban environments are increasingly "fragmented by race, social class, and economic function and spread over a huge territory, further divided into at least several counties and perhaps dozens of independent political subdivisions" (*Brownell, 1995, p. 22)*. Altman *(2006)* pointed out that institutional relationships with communities are further complicated by existent relationships within communities such as "local government and community organizations (including religious entities), residents and organizations [and] universities and communities (town–gown affairs)" *(p. 184)*. The complexity of these environments established a broad landscape for partner formation and divergent perspectives on possible interventions. Such complexity may further challenge the creation of agreed-upon partnerships. Fermin and Hill *(2004)* affirmed that boundary spanners promoting university–community partnerships frequently have to deal with potential conflicts between the individual, professional, and institutional agendas of university participants and the community objectives of obtaining and leveraging resources, accessing networks, and increasing perceived legitimacy.

Individuals who work across organizational boundaries to connect institutions with their communities may be referred to as *boundary spanners (AASCU & NASULGC, 2004)*. Institutions frequently employ formally sanctioned, full-time university staff to serve as boundary spanners *(Holland, 2009)*. It is common, though not universal, that such staff members are administrative or allied staff rather than tenure-track faculty or academic unit administrators *(Weerts & Sandmann, 2008, 2010)*. Although titles of such staff vary, these roles share the purpose of fostering relationships valued

by their employing institution. For the purposes of this study, the label nonacademic administrative staff was used to describe those with boundary-spanning responsibilities who were not tenure-track faculty or academic administrators (e.g., academic department heads, deans, provosts, or presidents). It was important to focus on such staff members since they were frequently called upon to carry out boundary-spanning roles and because little attention has been paid to such staff in the literature *(McInnis, 1998; Szekeres, 2004)*.

Even though university–community engagement initiatives may frequently reflect noble principles, many such efforts also stem from "real or perceived threats confronting the campus" (*Reardon, 2006*, *p. 106)*. If such threats are accompanied by specific solutions preferred by the university (for example, new student housing and retail to replace blighted buildings), this may pose further barriers to the creation of mutually agreed-upon solutions by universities and the communities that house them.

Elliott *(1994)* examined the emergence of the urban university, noting both the growing population in urban centers and the overall nature of the economy. With over 80% of the United States population living in cities as of 2010 *(U.S. Census Bureau, 2015)* and the broader economic shift "from an industrial base to a knowledge base" *(p. 6)*, urban universities will have a growing impact on the overall quality of life within these communities and the nation as a whole. Given such shifts, it is important that boundary-spanner role conflict be understood within the urban context. Thomas Bonner *(1981)*, president of Wayne State University in Detroit, wrote about the nature of urban universities and their relationship to their communities:

> What exactly is an urban university? It is not merely a university located *in* a city; it is also of the city, with an obligation to serve the needs of the city's diverse citizenry. It has a special concern with issues of urban life. It does research and provides intellectual leadership in efforts to deal with urban problems. *(p. 48)*

Role conflict can have adverse consequences for both boundary-spanning staff and their host institutions. Within university administration roles, Rasch, Hutchinson, and Tollefson *(1986)* identified boundary spanning and role conflict as major sources of stress. For a midlevel administrator within the university, a role which frequently includes boundary-spanning duties, structural alignment

is also a source of stress, anxiety, role conflict, and psychological strain *(Amey, 1990; Hellawell & Hancock, 2001; Lazaridou, Athanasoula-Reppa, & Fris, 2008; Rosser, 2004)*.

Looking at role conflict in historical perspective, Stryker and Macke *(1978)* pointed out that the concept of role conflict is grounded within the two approaches to role theory: structural-functional and interactionist. Structural-functional "role conflict is caused by the simultaneous occupancy of conflicting structural positions. The role expectations or norms associated with these positions are assumed invariant across situations" *(Stryker & Macke, 1978, p. 70)*. For example, the role expectation of a parent to attend a school event could conflict with the role expectation of a worker to come to work; a university staff boundary spanner may have to choose between going to evening community meetings as a representative of the university or taking evening classes to finish an advanced degree. Stryker and Macke further pointed out that a specific status, such as supervisor, may actually encompass a number of roles such as disciplinarian, confidante of subordinate, or colleague to other supervisors; such separate roles could be another source of conflict.

"Interactionist role theory . . . emphasizes the individual's experience of conflicting expectations, not simply the existence of the structure. The focus shifts from the impact of the structure on person via position and role to the influence of one person on another via role-making and negotiation" (*Stryker & Macke, 1978*, *p. 71)*. Within interactionist role theory, role expectations are negotiated and socially constructed. Role conflict results when common meaning is not established by the individual and others in the same social space. Stryker and Macke further stated:

> Role conflict takes five basic forms: Structurally competing demands of various parts in a role set; conflicting reactions of the same individuals to the same behaviors; differences or lack of clarity in others' expectations; and conflict between role expectations and self-concept. *(p. 72)*

This typology appears to affirm both the structural-functional and interactionist scaffolding of role definition and role conflict; it incorporates both external role definitions alongside the individual's internal experience.

Stryker and Burke *(2000)* wrote about the concept of identity, in which each individual has a specific experience of self in relationship to each group to which they belong:

> In identity theory usage, social roles are expectations attached to positions occupied in networks of relationships; identities are internalized role expectations. The theory asserts that role choices are a function of identities so conceptualized, and that identities within self are organized in a salience hierarchy reflecting the importance of hierarchy as an organizational principle in society. *(p. 286)*

Although the concept of salience as a directive principle might lead the reader to understand role choice as a cerebral, nonemotive process, Stryker and Burke *(2000)* acknowledge the impact of emotions and related stress as individuals seek to reconcile conflicting identities. Stryker *(2007)* positioned identity theory within the construct of symbolic interactionism: "society shapes self, and self shapes social behavior. The proposition not only admits to, but insists upon, the possible reciprocity of its components: social behavior can impact self, and society and self can impact society" *(p. 1089)*.

The progression of Stryker's *(2007)* work above—proceeding from separate, almost mechanical views of role behavior and related possible conflict, to more continuously interactive processes between the individual and the societal context—reflects and perhaps parallels the development process of partnerships wherein discrete partners enter into a process of negotiation of new meaning in which each partner influences the other and the work. This is consistent with the views of Weerts and Sandmann *(2008)*, who pointed out that the work of university–community engagement is best understood within a constructivist paradigm of knowledge creation.

Hecht *(2001)* defined role conflict in terms of competing roles; she wrote of family obligations versus work obligations. This focus reflects an important distinction in the definition of role conflict to be used in this study. Hecht's description of "competing demands" *(p. 112)* helps to differentiate the idea of competing roles or interrole conflicts *(Love, Tatman, & Chapman, 2010)* from other dimensions of role conflict.

The intent of this study was to explore the concept of role conflict as experienced by boundary spanners solely within the role

of a university staff member and not amid the full myriad of personal, family, social, and professional roles. This research relied on the work of Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman *(1970)* to provide a starting point for the study of role conflict. This typology represents a blending of structural-functional and interactionist theories. Rizzo et al. defined role conflict to include four scenarios: conflict between an individual's values and the demands of a role, conflict stemming from insufficient resources and role expectations, conflict between multiple roles assigned to the same individual, and role conflict stemming from competing external expectations.

Although at first glance the work of Rizzo et al. *(1970)* seems dated, contemporary references in the literature appear to support its foundational nature and current relevance. It is recognized in two separate meta-analyses of role stress (which include the concept of role conflict) as carried out by Fried, Shirom, Gilboa, and Cooper *(2008)* and Ortqvist and Wincent *(2006)*. Fried et al. found that 80% of the studies they reviewed relied on the 1970 work of Rizzo et al. Similarly, Ortqvist and Wincent relied on the same work to help frame their meta-analysis of 300 journal articles on role stress, which included the concepts of role ambiguity, role conflict, and role overload.

Weerts and Sandmann *(2010)* examined university–community boundary spanner roles and indirectly acknowledged that current literature is deficient regarding the study of role conflict among boundary spanners in higher education through their heavy reliance on the work of Friedman and Podolny *(1992)*, who studied role conflict as experienced by labor union boundary spanners. Friedman and Podolny stated that "the standard way to resolve conflict is either to ignore the role expectations of one side or the other or to create rituals that allow negotiators to convince each side that the negotiators are playing the roles required of them" *(p. 29)*.

It is supportive of the core principles of community engagement that the emergence of such role conflict be better understood. If this role conflict is not well understood and well managed, it may result in decisions that reflect a paternalistic view of the community or an inadequate regard for the needs of the institution. Such conflict also poses challenges to the daily work of boundary spanners seeking to develop mutually beneficial partnerships. From our brief literature review, it is clear that the experience of role conflict among boundary spanners within higher education has received little attention within the literature and is not well understood.

Research Methods

A qualitative, constructivist grounded study design was utilized to explore potential role conflicts as experienced by boundary spanners. Marshall and Rossman *(1989)* support the use of a qualitative approach for "research on informal and unstructured linkages and processes in organizations" *(p. 46)*. This research project was approved by the Cleveland State University Institutional Review Board.

Boundary-spanning activities and related role conflict appear to be complex inter- and intrapersonal processes operating within organizational contexts characterized by diverse formal and informal connections and processes. Given these factors, a qualitative grounded theory approach was deemed an appropriate strategy for our research. Charmaz *(2006)* advocates a constructivist approach to grounded theory research. She contends that meaning is socially constructed: "Research participants' implicit meanings, experiential views—and researchers' finished grounded theories—are constructions of reality" *(p. 10)*. Creswell *(2007)* differentiates Charmaz's approach from the traditional understanding of grounded theory, as identified by Strauss and Corbin *(1998)*, by stating, "Instead of embracing the study of a single process or core category approach, Charmaz advocates for a social constructivist perspective that includes emphasizing diverse local worlds, multiple realities, and the complexities of particular worlds, views, and actions" *(p. 65)*.

The work of university–community engagement may be best understood within a constructivist paradigm of knowledge creation *(Weerts & Sandmann, 2008)*: "Constructivism suggests that knowledge process is local, complex and dynamic" *(p. 78)*, and "boundary spanners act as conveners, problem solvers, and change agents who negotiate the wants and needs of parties involved in the process of creating and disseminating knowledge" *(p. 79)*. The use of a constructivist grounded theory approach was determined appropriate for the following three reasons. First, there is little evidence in the literature of applied theory to describe or explain the experience of role conflict as experienced by university boundary spanners. Second, a constructivist approach to understanding the experience of boundary spanners aligns with the interactive nature of role definition *(Stryker, 2007)* and the nature of boundary-spanning work wherein "boundary spanners act as conveners, problem solvers, and change agents who negotiate the wants and needs of parties involved in the process of creating and disseminating knowledge" (*Weerts & Sandmann*, *2008, p. 79)*. Charmaz *(2000)* states, "A con-

structivist grounded theory assumes that people create and maintain meaningful worlds through dialectical processes of conferring meaning on their realities and acting within them" *(p. 521)*. Finally, the constructivist grounded theory approach does not ignore the impact of the researcher on the research process but instead affirms the knowledge-mediating role of the researcher by encouraging the establishment of relationships with study participants, reflection, and interpretation *(Charmaz, 2006)*.

Selecting Research Participants

There were two levels of sample selection *(Merriam & Associates, 2002)*: the organizational context of the participant and the actual participants. We limited our study to urban universities that were 4-year institutions of higher education that in mission statement, philosophy, or manifest programs conveyed an urban purpose, as defined by Bonner *(1981)*, and were located within the boundaries of urbanized areas as defined and listed by the U.S. Census Bureau; such areas are defined as "densely settled territory that contains 50,000 or more people" *(U.S. Census Bureau, 2011)*. Copies of institutional mission statements, philosophy, or program descriptions reflecting a commitment to an urban purpose were collected by the researchers to document institutional conformity to this definition. Although the initial recruitment process identified representatives of both public and private institutions, ultimately only boundary spanners from public institutions agreed to participate.

Participants were university employees who were nonacademic administrative staff with boundary-spanning duties, developing and/or managing community partnerships, as primary job responsibilities. Initial study participants were recruited at the 2012 National Outreach Scholarship Conference Pre-conference Session for outreach and engagement staff. This session was specifically targeted to non-tenure-track faculty and administrative staff with responsibilities to develop and manage community partnerships, so potential research participants self-identified as boundary spanners or had job responsibilities consistent with boundary-spanner definitions. Such purposeful sampling *(Patton, 1990)* is justified by the identification of "information-rich cases" *(p. 169)* and thereby advanced the intent of this study. Workshop attendees also helped to identify other potential participants who met the study criteria. Such individuals were in turn contacted by the lead researcher to solicit their interest in participating in the study.

These boundary-spanner participants came to their university staff roles with a diversity of background experiences: for example, human services, K–12 education, choreography, nonprofit management, and military command. Although the purposes of their positions varied—service-learning, community outreach, revenue generation, teacher education, research, minority health promotion—in all cases, their formal job responsibilities involved developing and/or managing university–community partnerships.

Table 1. Description of Participants

Name	Focus of role	Organizational context
Anna	Student service-learning partnerships and coordination of a campus peer support network for staff boundary spanners	Student services at Midwestern research university
Betty	New role to coordinate a campuswide community engagement program	University administration at a Southern university
Candice	Development of partnerships in response to faculty and community request for service-learning and technical assistance	Team of staff boundary spanners at regional urban campus of Midwestern research university
Donna	Student service-learning projects	University administration at Midwestern university
Ed	Regional campus director	Regsional urban campus of Midwestern university
Fred	Community outreach and education partnerships	Speciality science research center at a Midwestern research university
Guen	Development of profit-generating partnerships	Team of staff boundary spanners within the business school at a Midwestern university
Henrietta	Management of community health partnerships	Hospital at a Midwestern research university
Ida	Project management support for faculty and community projects	University administration at a comprehensive public university
Janice	Director of social policy research center	Specialty research center at a Southern university
Kevin	Community outreach and arts education partnerships	Center city outreach facility of a Southern university

Table 1 provides a brief description of the organizational role and organizational context for each participant. Of the 11 participants, 10 were women and one was male. One participant was

African American, and one was Hispanic. The rest of the participants were Caucasian. The listed names are pseudonyms and may not correspond to the respective participant's gender.

Data Collection and Analysis

The primary method of data collection was the intensive interview, as recommended by Charmaz *(2006)*. Individual intensive interviews were conducted with nonacademic staff university boundary spanners. Intensive interviewing seeks an "in-depth exploration of a particular topic or experience, and . . . fosters eliciting each participant's interpretation of his or her experience" *(p. 24)*. Eleven interviews were completed in person or by telephone.

Based on the work of Charmaz *(2006)* and Bazeley *(2007)* and utilizing NVivo coding software, a three-phase process of coding was carried out. The three phases consisted of initial coding, focused coding, and theoretical coding. Clarke's *(2005)* social worlds/arenas mapping was also utilized to help interrogate the data.

In initial coding, interview transcripts were coded in sections with gerund and noun phrases. According to Clarke *(2005)*, the use of gerunds helps to identify specific actions, processes, and topics. Focused coding "means using the most significant and/or frequent earlier codes to sift through large amounts of data. Focused coding requires decisions about which initial codes make the most analytic sense to categorize your data" (*Charmaz, 2006, p. 57)*. Theoretical coding was used to posit possible relationships between the categories identified via focused coding *(Charmaz, 2006)*.

Clarke's *(2005)* social worlds/arenas analysis builds on the earlier work of Strauss *(1978)*, providing a mapping of the worlds and arenas within which the actors of a situation negotiate meaning. "Such maps offer mesolevel interpretations of the situations, engaging collective action and its social organizational and institutional and discursive dimensions" (*Clarke, 2003, p. 559)*. Mesolevel systems include both community and institutional spheres of influence that help to shape norms, standards, rules, and policies *(Gregson et al., 2001)*. According to Clarke and Star (*2007, p. 113)*, "An arena . . . is composed of multiple worlds organized ecologically around issues of mutual concern and commitment to action." Social worlds are "shared discursive spaces" *(p. 113)* that "generate shared perspectives that then form the basis for collective action" *(p. 115)*. Social worlds and arenas analysis has been used effectively in the study of emerging disciplines.

This mapping technique was completed twice in the current research analysis process to assist in interrogating the data. The maps that emerged from the data displayed the social worlds and actors whose actions, processes, and topics *(Clarke, 2005)* were reflected within the gerund-based free codes. The graphic representation of the maps, coupled with memo writing about each social world, assisted with the iterative interpretation of data. The mapping process identified 14 distinct worlds within the arena of university and community engagement. Those worlds reported by participants as most influential on partnership formation are discussed below: tenure-track faculty, senior university administrators, academic structures (e.g., colleges and divisions), and community and civic groups.

Tenure-track faculty. Staff boundary spanners formed, expressed, and negotiated their roles within a complex human arena with many subordinate and interrelated subgroups. Such processes and contextual forces were consistent with the construct of symbolic interactionism wherein "society shapes self, and self shapes society behavior. This proposition not only admits to, but insists upon, the possible reciprocity of its components: social behavior can impact self, and society and self can impact society" (*Stryker, 2007, p. 1089)*.

Ida, a study participant who provided project management support for faculty and community projects, described tenure-track faculty as artists. Their core commitments are to teach, to research, and to publish. These commitments are not mere duties or assignments. For most tenure-track faculty, they reflect personalized and highly valued investments of time, energy, and hard work. Ida offered a metaphor that assisted her in better understanding the relationship of faculty to their work; it is their "art":

> I think there are a lot of things that I've learned about working with faculty, about Ph.D. faculty, that have helped me reframe my discussions . . . I kind of equate it to they are artists and this is their artwork and you can't really judge a piece of art. I mean, people take it very personally when you judge their art, and I never really understood that piece of it from a faculty's perspective.

Senior university administrators. Universities have relatively weak command and control functions, as authority is diffuse *(Birnbaum, 1988)*. Even those university administrators who may want their institutions to reflect greater engagement may not

be able to accomplish this quickly. Senior university administrators may themselves have multiple roles within their universities and may be present within multiple worlds as described herein, including the university colleges/academic division world. These multiple roles, with perhaps sometimes competing objectives, may cause further complications and constraints for the creation of community partnerships.

Academic structures. Study participants reported that the separateness of colleges and other academic divisions was a source or orienting basis for competition for resources, student enrollment, relationships, campus buildings, and other markers of academic prestige. More than one boundary spanner interviewed spoke of the additional challenges of promoting university–community partnerships that included more than one academic unit. Ida described her experience as "like herding cats." Fred, who engaged in community outreach, described his university structure as a "bunch of fiefdoms." Individuals within such structures may themselves represent multiple organizational identities within a program specialization, teaching structure, administrative structure, or other formal on-campus professional or support staff roles.

Community and civic groups. The world of community and civic groups includes nonprofit organizations and government-run functions like education and human services, which may see universities as a source of free or low-cost help. The perception frequently exists that universities have significant resources that are underutilized. Fred reported,

> I think when people approach the university, . . . [they] see us having a lot of money; it's seen as having a lot of people that sit in their offices and could just have free time to come out and do stuff for free.

In addition to being potential university–community partnership members, community and civic groups have multiple roles in relationship to universities; they may also be funders, critics, and/or employers of credentialed university students. Their voices may be in alignment or conflict with area businesses and other groups. Many of the same observations were true for outside funders, business and industry groups, and government.

When using social world/arenas mapping, Clarke *(2005)* points out the utility of identifying "implicated actants," which are "nonhuman actors in situations of concern" *(p. 47)*; an actant may be a discursive construction, event, material good, or process. An

example could be the weight a university places on engagement work as perceived by a faculty member seeking tenure. Issues related to funding were consistently present in the discourse of university–community boundary spanners. Funding issues appear to be powerful actants in the arena of university–community partnerships. For Guen, who develops profit-generating partnerships, the creation of profit for the university is the reason her job exists. Fred has to obtain his salary from grants, which directly influences what partnerships can be pursued: "So I'll have to consciously think about we could do X or we could do Y; X isn't fundable but really beneficial; Y is fundable and I keep my job." Candice's job developing partnerships is not in the core university budget but funded with soft money. This seems to make her very aware of feedback the campus provost receives from faculty about her work.

Analysis of Findings

Role conflict was found to be an inherent element of boundary-spanning roles as carried out by nonacademic administrative staff participants in urban universities. Although some participants questioned the use of the term *role conflict*, all participants provided examples of role conflict consistent with the framework defined by Rizzo et al. *(1970)*: conflict between an individual's values and the demands of a role, conflict stemming from insufficient resources and role expectations, conflict between multiple roles assigned to the same individual, and role conflict stemming from competing external expectations.

The organizational settings within which participants worked and their educational backgrounds varied. Janice and Fred worked at specialty research centers. Anna was situated in student services, and Henrietta worked out of the university hospital. Guen was in the business school. Others were structured within various administrative units. Some worked as solo staff; others worked with teams charged with developing partnerships. There was no evidence indicating that organizational setting impacted the experience of role conflict as reported by study participants; however, boundary spanner participants who had strong vertical linkages to their immediate superior or other campus engagement leaders seemed to experience greater role clarity and less role conflict.

The balance of this section discusses the themes that emerged to address the study research questions. These themes are the nature of role conflict, the impact of role conflict on partnership formation, boundary-spanner responses to role conflict, and strategies to

address role conflict. External factors influencing the participants' experiences of role conflict are also discussed.

The Nature of Role Conflict

The experience of role conflict seemed to vary widely, reflecting the rigidity or flexibility of job-related expectations placed on a given boundary spanner. Individual boundary spanners who had very specific role requirements, such as being self-supporting, seemed to experience less role conflict and seemed less personally troubled by it when they did experience role conflict. Guen's role was to create and manage ongoing, profit-making partnerships with businesses: "When we work with a corporate partner, it's not about them just being a corporate sponsor or providing this . . . we really look to them to provide value at all levels." Candice was part of a university team of professionals focused on a few primary partnerships while also attempting to assist all faculty members and potential community partners who asked for help. The relative flexibility of her role seemed to create more opportunities for role conflict and to make conflict resolution more challenging. She reported being publicly criticized by a faculty member who had asked her to set up a series of poetry workshops as adult literacy interventions. Community partners did not see the value in such an approach and would not help to implement the workshops.

For boundary spanners who had a clearly defined role, it was also important to communicate the dimensions of that role to on-campus and community partners as a way to minimize role conflict. The majority of the examples of role conflict identified by study participants were situated at the points of exploration or initiation of a partnership, but other conflicts also arose during the ongoing operations of the partnership. For example, Betty, whose job was to coordinate campus–community engagement, chose to continue working with a refugee assistance project on her own time, despite her boss telling her to terminate the project. She felt such a strong personal commitment to the work that she was unwilling to end the partnership.

The experience of role conflict was frequently found to be both very personal and highly emotive. Anna, a coordinator for student service-learning projects, contended that "taking responsibility . . . having to take responsibility for some of those failures makes you feel like a failure." Henrietta, who managed community health partnerships, shared her distress in having to support her employing institution in a disagreement with her own African

American community. Candice regarded her boundary-spanning work and dealing with her role conflict as a "spiritual calling."

Even in settings wherein a boundary-spanner participant served as part of an engagement team, there seems to be the potential for the boundary spanner to feel isolated. Some boundary spanners described having been able to build personal support systems on campus, whereas developing methods of support for coping with role conflict was a continuing struggle for others.

Impact of Role Conflict on Partnership Formation

In this research study, the impact of role conflict on the processes of partnership formation and community engagement appeared to be mediated through the boundary spanner's overall experience of role conflict. Aspects of this experience include identity as a boundary spanner, environmental factors driving boundary-spanner role clarity and ambiguity, and boundary-spanner responses to role conflict.

This research identified a concept of boundary-spanner identity as emerging from the previously described use of theoretical coding. This concept was used to posit possible relationships between the categories identified by focused coding *(Charmaz, 2006)*. The subordinate elements of boundary-spanner identity are professional background, self-identified role framing, claiming of personal power, Ph.D. status, and amount of experience as a boundary spanner.

Although each boundary spanner described how previously acquired content knowledge, such as K–8 teaching or data interpretation, was influential to her or his role, most participants also had concrete examples of how their prior professional background had given direction to their current roles in more subtle ways. Anna connected her social-work training to her current focus on "systems thinking" and "root cause[s] of community problems." Henrietta currently oversees university–community health care partnerships. Her knowledge of what is possible pushes her work: "So, looking at how we would setup hospitals . . . in the middle of the desert, it just doesn't make sense that this whole issue of access to healthcare can't be addressed through partnerships and working within the community." Ida is an engineer by training and was initially surprised by the extent to which the personal agendas of project partners influenced approaches to the work. Such agendas might include funding a position, getting a grant, or receiving pro-

fessional recognition. Having now adopted an approach she characterizes as a little more "patient" and "sensitive," she is able to focus more clearly on the objectives and component processes of partnerships.

The term *claiming personal power*, as an element of boundary-spanner identity, is used to describe a boundary spanner's assertion of the appropriateness of a personal position, presence, or role choice stemming from personal values or other personal characteristics. For Janice, who directs a social policy research center, it's her personal connection to the value of data that drives her partnership work: "I love data, I know that sounds so weird . . . the thing that pulled me to this job was how I could marry my really deeply instilled belief that simple data can shift big pieces of our policy problems." For Henrietta, her work and its importance are a reflection of her "moral compass, doing what's right, understanding that I've been so blessed, that I need to give back; I think that's probably what drives me."

The Ph.D. status of the study participants varied. Three had earned a Ph.D., and the balance had not. The non-Ph.D. status of the majority of participants seemed to both create and circumvent power and credibility issues. Ida's experience was that "there are faculty that . . . don't value my work as highly because I'm not a Ph.D." This perceived bias seemed to be obviated when boundary spanners were able to articulate their roles as facilitators of the process of partnership as opposed to being evaluators of faculty work.

The experience of having a Ph.D. seemed to also evoke opportunities for conflict. Although Janice had earned a Ph.D., she intentionally tried to minimize her outward identification with the academy while claiming academic skills: "I refuse to make a vita; I get asked for a vita and I'm like, you can have my resume. . . . I did receive these letters behind my name, I know the methodology." Candice is clearly aware of her own biases related to having earned a Ph.D. later in life:

> I admit, I have a big huge chip on my shoulder, I got my Ph.D. late, so that's . . . later than typical, I was in my mid 40s when I got it, so there's a chip. . . . I've been out in practice and you all are teaching about stuff you've never done.

Fred, who works at a very large research university, found that his lack of a Ph.D. served to minimize others' expectations of his role: "so I'm not quite office staff, not quite research because I don't

have a Ph.D., so I live in this gray space that I kind of like. I like the way it is."

Given the perceived distinction that doctoral degree status frequently conveys within universities, it seems highly questionable to say that educational background does not matter. What seems more important than a boundary spanner's educational background is that there is an understanding of how that status may be perceived by others and the boundary spanner's awareness of when they are claiming an expert evaluative role versus a facilitative role. Equally important is the boundary spanner's clarity in communicating this role choice to partnership participants.

The last element proposed as part of the concept of boundary-spanner identity is the length of boundary-spanning experience and time in this role. Three participants had been in their positions less than a year. Although all three had at least one example of role conflict, they were less likely to see such circumstances as posing role conflict. Boundary spanners with longer tenure in their positions were more likely to have identified role conflicts and to have reflected on them. The amount of experience as a boundary spanner is important because the role of boundary spanner is constructed in interaction with partners. To the extent a boundary spanner is less experienced, their understanding of their role may be less fully developed.

The concept of boundary-spanner identity is relevant to the experience of role conflict for two reasons. First, the boundary spanners' experiences of their own identity are part of the lens through which they view the world generally and their work specifically. Second, the attributes of a boundary spanner's identity may reflect, on the one hand, useful assets for creating alignment and stronger partnerships and, on the other, potential sources of conflict between the boundary spanner and external parties. Anna's stated practice of looking at individual problems within a broader systems perspective was likely an asset, whereas her strong belief about sharing university resources with community partners sometimes put her at odds with others within her organization. It was very important for the boundary spanner to be aware of how her or his constructed identity may either support or restrict partnership formation and the work of university–community engagement. It was equally important to make the boundary-spanner's role explicitly understood by potential project partners.

Boundary-Spanner Responses to Role Conflict

Boundary-spanner responses to role conflict had significant implications for the formation of community partnerships. When participants were asked how they responded to the experience of role conflict, they reported behaviors that these researchers labeled and categorized as *responding formatively* or *responding adaptively*. Behaviors labeled as responding formatively were directed toward continuing to seek agreement and alignment of the parties' positions. Behaviors labeled as responding adaptively seemed to indicate that the role conflict was not readily resolvable by reaching agreement, hence the boundary spanner needed to adapt or adjust his/her behavior, expectations, or attitude while accepting terms that were not mutually agreeable.

Behaviors categorized as responding formatively were listening, translating, mediating, expanding problem-solving space, or creativity. Participants identified additional formative responses, characterized as reflecting internal choices to depersonalize the experience of conflict and displaying patience and trust.

Behaviors categorized as responding adaptively included boundary-spanner responses identified by the researchers as *acting in* or *acting out*. Adaptive behaviors identified as acting in consisted of internalizing conflict, feeling vulnerable, and becoming more cautious. Acting-out responses included picking one side and advocating.

When the boundary spanner chose adaptive responses to role conflict, partnership formation and community engagement were not supported. The specific adaptive responses of internalizing conflict, feeling vulnerable, and becoming more cautious appeared to have at least short-term negative consequences for the boundary spanner and potentially longer term negative consequences for partnership formation and community engagement. Anna reported feeling like a failure at times when she could not enlist her university's help for a community partner. Although the process of becoming more cautious may be a very appropriate response for the staff boundary spanner as an individual, it also seemed to lessen the possible solution space for partnerships and the overall work of engagement. For example, Betty reported that she created a book drive for a community partner who did not want the books, because her boss told her to do the project anyway. She felt she could not press further for a mutually agreeable project.

Figure 1 adapts Clarke's *(2005)* concept of positional mapping to align boundary-spanner responses to role conflict in relation-

ship to their perceived benefit to the university and community partners. Picking one side typically meant the boundary spanner defaulted to her/his employing institution's view. Advocating typically meant promoting the needs or wants of the community partner. Adaptive responses of feeling vulnerable, becoming more cautious, and internalizing conflict were seen as having low value to both the university and the community. Formative responses of expanding problem solving, listening, mediating, and translating were seen by the researchers as having high potential value to both the university and community partners.

Figure 1. Behavior mapping of boundary-spanner responses to role conflict in relationship to value to university and value to community partners. Adapted from Clarke's (2005) Positional Map.

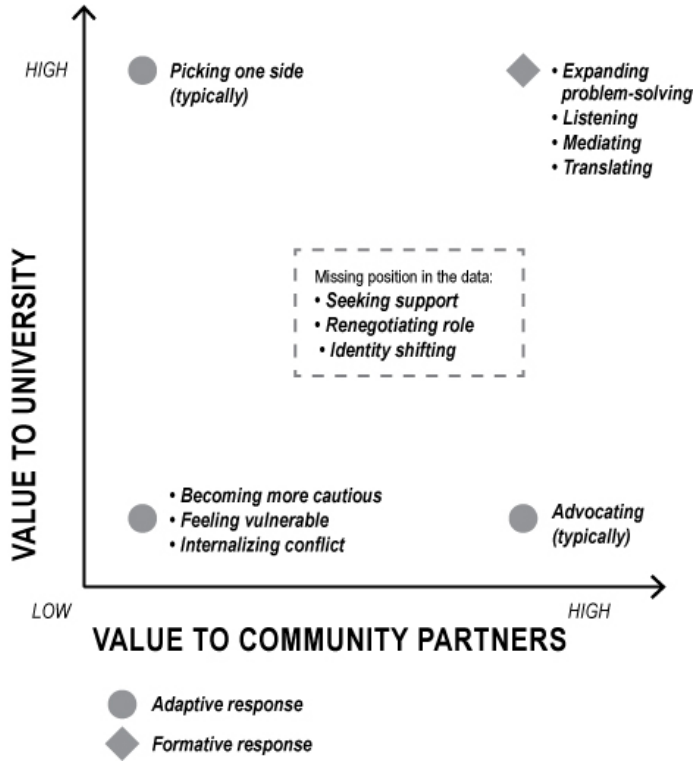

Figure 1 also shows three additional types of responses to role conflict—*seeking support, renegotiating the boundary-spanning role,* and *identity shifting*—which there was insufficient data to label as formative or adaptive. Behaviors labeled as seeking support included reaching out to coworkers and community partners for advice or direction. Renegotiating the boundary-spanning role meant that the boundary spanner adjusted internal expectations and/or a partner's expectations as to process or outcome. In identity shifting, the boundary spanner altered outward aspects of her or his identity as reflected in dress, speech, or presentation of self to better align with either a community partner or institutional constituency. Donna described how her business attire identified her with the university and made it difficult to connect with community residents:

> "Oh, here's the university walking into our meeting." And so I'd actually go home from work. . . . I'd take off my suit, and I'd put on a pair of blue jeans, tennis shoes, and a sweatshirt, and then I'd go to the neighborhood meeting. And then I would be more accepted. I'd walk into those meetings in my suit; they absolutely didn't want to talk to me.

Strategies to Address Role Conflict

Participants did not identify any formal institutional strategies or procedures to assist staff boundary spanners when they were experiencing role conflict. However, some of the participants described strong vertical linkages with their immediate supervisors and senior university officials who provided personal support, mentoring, and tangible help as being of great assistance in resolving instances of role conflict.

Other individual strategies explicitly identified by participants included organizing peer support partnerships with other boundary spanners, sharing decision making with boards and committees, redefining the area of focus or boundary-spanning role, using participants in past partnerships as endorsers and encouragers of current prospective partners, listening for deeper understanding of perceived conflicts and disagreements while keeping the parties talking, affirming the value of the work or the relationships, and defaulting to the adaptive response of supporting one side of the dialogue.

Of all the above strategies, listening for deeper understanding seemed to be the most effective. This seemingly simple task was repeatedly referenced as a conscious and deliberate strategy supportive of the interests of all the parties to the conversation. Ida spoke about the importance of "understanding that everybody at the table is right, we're just right in our own way and nobody's wrong." Although no individual boundary spanner grouped responses in the following manner, there appears to be a natural congruence and unity to the processes of listening, keeping parties talking, affirming the work, and affirming the relationships.

External Factors

Two external factors were identified that appeared to impact boundary-spanner role conflict. These are the specificity of the university's community engagement program purpose and strength of the boundary spanner's vertical linkage with superiors.

Anna worked at a university that had "not as explicitly as they could, stated a concrete engagement or concrete commitment to community engagement." Although Candice's institution has committed a number of professional and support staff to help implement university–community partnerships, budgeted funds for faculty grants, and identified some specific partnerships to support, the overall engagement program is still in the process of definition. She stated, "So, we're still . . . every conversation we're having is, who are we, what are you doing? That question the other night of, 'What the hell do you do?' is something we hear every day." Her office made the deliberate decision to attempt to assist all community partners and faculty who knocked on their door. Ida's role of providing project management support to faculty seemed relatively straightforward, but the range of potential engagements seemed wide open: "We don't have a specific focus, so if there's a community need, we will try to figure how to [respond]." University settings that are open to a broader range of engagements can be a good thing for the community and the university. However, when engagement programs had very broad or unclear purposes, this condition caused the boundary-spanner's role to be less clearly defined or bounded and increased the opportunities for unmet expectations and related role conflict. As Fred reflected on the flexibility within his environment, "There's enough rope you can hang yourself."

Some of the participant boundary spanners had very specific partnership requirements stemming from their institution's

authorization to develop partnerships. In framing community health partnerships, Henrietta had to show a return on investment as measured in reduced emergency room visits, lessened use of intensive care services for newborns, or related measures. Fred had an explicit role requirement of supporting his work in K–12 education with grant funding: "If I don't get revenue coming in through grants, I lose the position." Donna worked to develop partnerships that provided service-learning opportunities. The presence of these institutionally mandated requirements limited the range of possible partnerships and provided greater role clarity for the boundary spanner.

Boundary spanners with strong vertical linkages to their immediate superior or other campus engagement leaders seemed to experience greater role clarity and less role conflict. The presence of a strong vertical linkage between the boundary spanner and her or his supervisor was also identified as a factor supporting the boundary spanner's formative response to role conflict. Strong supervisory relationships were experienced as support for risk taking and the provision of tangible assistance. Fred reported that his director actively urged him to take risks and offered tangible support when he did so: "The good thing is that our director and other people that are way senior to me, world-renown, were willing to say, we'll help you through it." Guen reported that her dean was openly supportive of her work, and she gave an example of how she used that influence to improve alignment between faculty members and community. In this instance, the faculty member was asked to decline a project due to the perception that it was not a good fit. The supportive position of her dean was active and immediate: "What do you need for me to get . . . what you're doing moved forward?" In addition to strong supervisory support being of direct assistance to the boundary spanner in resolving conflicts, it also seemed likely that strong supervisory support lessened feelings of boundary-spanner vulnerability and enabled boundary spanners to continue to push university and community partners to mutually beneficial solutions.

Discussion: Recommendations for Engagement Practice and Further Research

Recognizing that the experience of role conflict is inherent to the role of university–community boundary spanners, universities should work to reduce the experiences of role conflict when possible. Toward this end, universities should seek to implement community engagement initiatives that are linked to overall institutional priori-

ties. Moreover, these initiatives should reflect the core principles of university–community engagement, especially the importance of reciprocal benefits, and also be defined in such a way as to offer guidance to prospective community partners and university staff members. Universities should strive to define boundary-spanner roles with clear measures of success. Strong supervisor–boundary spanner vertical linkages should also be implemented. Although individual management and supervision styles will always vary, supervisors should be attentive to the specific risks faced by subordinate boundary spanners; further, they should be clear as to their performance expectations and provide regular feedback and support. To the extent possible, formal boundary-spanning roles should not be combined with other university staff roles and should be supported with adequate, ongoing funding. Finally, universities should seek to hire experienced professionals with a diverse skill base, personal maturity, and values that align with (or at least do not conflict with) those of the university to serve as sanctioned university–community boundary spanners.

Individual boundary spanners can also modify their practices to reduce the experience of role conflict and support themselves in responding formatively to these challenges. They should be clear and direct in describing their roles. Perhaps most important, they should work toward greater self-awareness in their responses to role conflict, both seeking to avoid personalizing the negative stresses of role conflict and making explicit choices as to when to respond formatively and when to respond adaptively. Such increased self-awareness may also allow the boundary spanner to challenge her- or himself to respond formatively. Finally, staff boundary spanners should seek out the company of other university–community boundary spanners for peer support, discussion, and learning. This can be done through the formal use of communities of practice and informally via personal contacts. Opportunities to engage in formal or informal mentoring relationships may also support novice and experienced boundary spanners.

The key principle, central to the questions asked in this research, is that university–community partnerships should be of mutual, reciprocal value. When asked how they assess whether partnerships are mutually beneficial, study participants responded with widely varying measures. For some, it was simple agreement of the parties. Some thought of it in terms of equitable financial investment and return. Others saw it as more of a process wherein there was shared planning and decision making. Further explor-

atory work to better define applicable dimensions of mutuality and reciprocal benefit is also recommended.

As pointed out in this research, a few of the boundary-spanner participants worked in settings where their broader purposes and metrics were crystal clear; the need to generate profit for a business school was one such example. However, most of the participants worked in settings and roles where success was less clear. Much time, attention, and scholarship has been devoted over the last few decades to the importance of university–community engagement and the diverse facets of the scholarship of engagement. There has been less attention given to frameworks that universities could use to evaluate their own effectiveness in addressing Boyer's *(1990)* challenge for engagement: "Can America's colleges and universities, with all the richness of their resources, be of greater service to the nation and the world?" *(p. 3)*. Additional research in this area would benefit universities and the communities with whom they seek to partner.

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The Curriculum Innovation Canvas: A Design Thinking Framework for the Engaged Educational Entrepreneur

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Abstract

Integrating literature on entrepreneurial business models and community-based experiential learning, we propose a new framework to advance the practice of curriculum innovation. Grounded in principles of design thinking, the curriculum innovation canvas provides a human-centered, collaborative, and holistic platform for instructors, curriculum developers, and administrators to engage in innovation and implementation of experiential courses or programs—particularly those that involve community or organizational partnerships. The canvas promotes a creative and fluid approach to curriculum development. It prompts the consideration of the value propositions offered to various stakeholders (students, community partners, faculty peers, etc.) as well as how to involve stakeholders in the development and implementation process toward mutually beneficial outcomes in a complex and challenging environment. Evidence from an extensive prototyping process indicates that it can effectively assist instructors, administrators, students, and community partners in a variety of contexts.

Introduction

> "Schools do not exist in a vacuum. They are part of the society that surrounds them."
>
> *(Postiglione & Lee, 1997, p. 2)*

Educational institutions are operating in a shifting and complex landscape, with significant changes in both the external and internal environment *(Lau, 2001)*. There is increasing pressure for and greater public expectation of schools' responsiveness, accountability, and responsibility—from improving students' job readiness and civic responsibility to serving as better organizational citizens and stewards of social justice and societal well-being. Educators are thus tasked with implementing meaningful and effective curriculum that creates an experience for students, in order to achieve outcomes such as student learning, skill building, employability, and civic engagement, while also ensuring reciprocal and authentic value cocreation with the communities in which the

institutions operate. To help address these challenges, we created the curriculum innovation canvas by leveraging design thinking principles to build a human-centered, collaborative, and holistic platform that supports the innovation and implementation of experiential courses or programs—particularly those that involve community or organizational partnerships. Of fundamental importance is the consideration and involvement of multiple stakeholders, and a focus on reciprocity and mutually beneficial outcomes in a complex and challenging environment.

The Opportunities and Challenges of Community-Based Experiential Learning

There is increasing pressure for and greater public expectation of schools' responsiveness, accountability, and responsibility. One study found a troubling disparity between the needs of the business community and the curriculum and training provided to students, resulting in low student proficiency and job readiness *(David, David, & David, 2011; see also Jackson & Chapman, 2012; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002)*. Beyond improving students' career preparation, there are also calls for business schools to be more responsive to stakeholders more broadly, including the communities in which they operate *(Godfrey, Illes, & Berry, 2005)*, and there are plenty of criticisms about the contribution of business schools to society (*e.g., Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002)*. Such expectations are not unique to business schools, and the education system more broadly is seen as a means through which students can—and should—become responsible citizens with a concern for social justice *(Westheimer & Kahne, 2004)*, citizenship *(DiPadova-Stocks, 2005)*, and the well-being of others *(Kahne & Sporte, 2008)*. Educators must therefore develop curriculum that has impact and that creates an experience for students in order to enhance outcomes such as student learning, skill building, employability, and civic engagement.

There has been a growing emphasis on experiential learning approaches as one potential remedy. Examples of experiential learning include simulations, undergraduate research, study abroad, games, model building, and internships, as well as service-learning and other forms of community-engaged learning *(GMCTE, 2015)*. Experiential learning can enhance learning outcomes for students and provide them with opportunities to practice what they learn in the classroom *(AACSB, 2015; Kolb, 1984)* and can help address the assertion that students need to be prepared for their careers by not only acquiring but *applying* the necessary knowledge and skills *(e.g.,*

Pfeffer & Fong, 2002)—that is, not only "knowing" but also "doing" and "being" *(Datar, Garvin, & Cullen, 2011)*.

In particular, experiential learning that involves community or business partners can help to address the societal pressures for business schools to engage their stakeholders while simultaneously benefiting students. Such approaches are becoming more common in postsecondary institutions *(Barreno, Elliott, Madueke, & Sarny, 2013)*, and the language of community engagement is prominent in institutional rhetoric *(Randall, 2010)*. Research has demonstrated higher levels of engagement and improved educational outcomes, such as the ability to apply theory to practice and engaging in "deep learning," among students who participate in community-based experiential learning *(Lenton et al., 2014)*. Service-learning, for example, is associated with many positive outcomes for students, such as academic learning and achievement *(Driscoll, Holland, Gelmon, & Kerrigan, 1996; Moely & Ilustre, 2014)*, greater personal efficacy *(Eyler, Giles, & Braxton, 1997; Kendrick, 1996)* and moral development *(Boss, 1994; Gorman, 1994)*, enhanced leadership and communication skills *(Eyler & Giles, 1999)*, and a stronger sense of social responsibility *(Kendrick, 1996)*.

However, compared to traditional lecture-based—or "sage on stage"—approaches, there are unique and significant challenges in creating experiential learning curriculum and course structures, particularly those that involve external partnerships. Courses involving stakeholders like community organizations can be especially challenging and resource intensive for faculty in terms of planning, risk, and relationship management *(Lenton et al., 2014)*. Such courses are much more complex due to balancing the needs and demands of multiple stakeholders and juggling many more variables. Moreover, such efforts are not always recognized or rewarded *(Barreno et al., 2013)*, making it incumbent upon individual faculty members to champion their own innovative or alternative approaches to curriculum, and to advocate for support or resources within their institutional systems. Another important consideration is that the voices of the community partners and stakeholders are often neglected in the process, and there is debate as to whether such approaches as service-learning actually serve communities *(Stoecker & Tryon, 2009)*. These types of courses are often more demanding for students as well, not only because of higher workload, but also greater ambiguity *(Lenton et al., 2014)*. Sometimes the connections between activities in the community and classroom learning objectives are unclear *(Eyler & Giles, 1999)*.

In sum, community-based experiential learning offers a multitude of potential benefits to those involved, but it can also present significant challenges in terms of development and implementation. For instance, service-learning typically involves multiple stakeholders and is a very complex approach to teaching and learning. (Although a full review of other models and frameworks in the teaching and learning literature is beyond the scope of our article, we refer interested readers to *Zhang et al., 2011*, and L*owery et al., 2006*, as excellent complementary resources.) Educators across disciplines may find themselves in the midst of a complex, demanding, and uncertain environment, in which they face challenges that are ill-defined and ill-structured with many moving parts—situations that can be colloquially termed "messy problems" and that require a creative approach to finding solutions *(*also called "wicked problems," *e.g., Buchanan, 1992; Dunne & Martin, 2006; Koh, Chai, Wong, & Hong, 2015)*. This is the context and purpose of our article—assisting educators with creating effective and innovative curriculum within a complex system where stakeholder ecosystems are dynamic, multidimensional, and increasingly prominent. In particular, we focus on community-based experiential learning, as this is where the complexities in stakeholder relationships not only have a *direct impact* on teaching objectives but may in fact be an integral *part* of these objectives.

Although they are not equivalent, we observe that educators and entrepreneurs share a similar challenge: creating something they believe will be of value to their customers (or, in an educational context, the students). Entrepreneurs must find ways of transforming intangible inspirations into tangible outcomes that stakeholders perceive to be valuable. Instructors and curriculum developers face these same challenges in their role as "educational entrepreneurs," constantly creating new content and innovating new methods of delivery. As one educator stated, "The professor is not merely an information-dispensing machine, but a skilled navigator of a complex landscape" *(Badke, 2012, p. 125)*. The parallels between curriculum development and entrepreneurship are noteworthy; however, educators face additional complexities in having to deal with a multitude of stakeholders combined with the constraints of an often-bureaucratic system that is not always nimble or conducive to innovation.

To address this issue, we drew upon research and practice in design thinking, an approach specifically intended to tackle "messy" problems *(e.g., Brown 2008a; Buchanan, 1992; Dunne & Martin, 2006; Glen, Suciu, & Baughn, 2014)*. Our first step was informed by literature

on leading corporate innovators, like Google, Facebook, and IDEO (an iconic design firm known for implementing design thinking). As Berger *(2012)* notes, such firms are jump-starting their creative problem-solving processes by "asking the right questions using the best wording . . . often using the same three words: *How Might We*." In this spirit, we posed two questions to get us started: "*How might we* create a comprehensive but approachable and intuitive framework for instructors and administrators to guide curriculum innovation and development?" and "*How might we* create a framework that addresses multiple stakeholder needs and that positions engagement at the forefront of the process?"

Design Thinking

> "Design thinking is the confidence that new, better things are possible and that you can make them happen." *(IDEO, 2012a, p. 11)*

Design thinking is a user-centric approach to innovation and invention that considers users' needs and preferences, as well as how they interact with a potential product and its broader infrastructure. Brown *(2008a)* describes Thomas Edison's invention of the electric lightbulb as an illustrative example: Edison wasn't just thinking about the lightbulb; he was considering people's needs and uses of such a product—and thus conceived an entire system of power generation and transmission to support it. The example is poignant because design thinking breaks the myth of the "lone scientist" or individual "creative genius" and instead shows innovation as the result of iterative human-centered discovery, collaboration, and thinking about the issue from multiple perspectives *(*e.g., colleagues, users, clients, customers; *Brown, 2008a)*.

Hassi and Laakso *(2011)* provided a review of the design thinking literature, in which they contend that there are many representations of design thinking and no definitive list of characteristics—in fact, Tim Brown (president and CEO of IDEO), a widely known writer and speaker on design thinking, has similarly posed the question, "Is there a general definition of Design Thinking?" *(Brown, 2008b)*. However, in their review, Hassi and Laakso provide a germane overview, and they identify common characteristics in the management discourse. In particular, they identified the characteristics *human-centered*, *collaboration*, and *holistic* as among the "key ingredients" of design thinking.

The *human-centered* element is one of the defining features of design thinking philosophy: involving the "user" (e.g., customer) in the design and development process from the outset in order to develop a product or service that meets their needs and preferences *(e.g., Brown, 2008a; Hassi & Laakso, 2011)*. Glen et al. *(2014)* similarly describe "attention to user needs" as a defining characteristic, insofar as a solution to a problem is judged according to user preferences and perceptions, as opposed to being scientifically "true" or "false." Understanding user needs can be achieved by observing them in their natural setting *(Glen et al., 2014)*. This ties directly to the element of *collaboration*, because the process connects the problem-solver (i.e., instructor or curriculum developer, in our case) to those affected by their decisions *(Glen et al., 2014)*. Collaboration with a wide range of stakeholders is integral to design thinking and critical for solving complex problems, because it offers access to multiple diverse perspectives and knowledge from different fields *(Hassi & Laakso, 2011)*, and it stimulates innovation *(Benson & Dresdow, 2014)*. Collaboration with the user is particularly important, again to observe and understand their needs and preferences *(Brown, 2008a)* and to create value through partnerships *(Amit & Zott, 2010)*. Adopting a holistic view is another defining characteristic of design thinking, and involves understanding not only stakeholders' functional needs but also social, emotional, and cultural factors and the environment or context in which they exist *(Hassi & Laakso, 2011)*. All three of these design thinking principles constitute important forms of stakeholder engagement, and this is critical for understanding the landscape within which innovations are being developed.

In terms of process, design thinking is iterative and characterized by *prototyping* (or experimentation) and *visualization* as a means of arriving at a solution to a problem *(Brown, 2008a; Glen et al., 2014; Hassi & Laakso, 2011)*. As Glen et al. *(2014)* explain, visualization involves graphics, sketches, and other imagery to express ideas as opposed to relying only on text, for instance. Visualization is an integral part of moving abstract thinking into fully formed ideas and mapping out a representation of the available information *(Boni, Weingart, & Evenson, 2009)*. Prototyping then involves making concepts and ideas into something concrete and exploring many possible solutions through a process of experimentation or "thinking by doing" *(e.g., Hassi & Laakso, 2011)*. The purpose of prototyping is to repeatedly gather feedback from users and identify improvements for future prototypes and potential solutions *(Brown, 2008a)*.

Design Thinking for Curriculum Development

Design thinking has been applied in numerous contexts, including education. For instance, IDEO created a toolkit based on design thinking for primary/secondary school educators to create better classrooms and learning environments for students and to involve parents and community in the process (*IDEO, 2012a, 2012b)*. Scholars have advocated for the inclusion of design thinking in business school curricula, because it is a critical skill that can enable students to navigate uncertainty and solve complex or messy problems in their future careers *(Glen et al., 2014; see also Boni et al., 2009; Dunne & Martin, 2006; Welsh & Dehler, 2012; as well as Koh et al., 2015,* regarding the use of design thinking in school curricula more broadly*)*. We extend this prior work by applying design thinking principles to the curriculum *development* process itself (including creation, implementation, and review of courses and programs), which can likewise be a powerful and effective approach. Thus, design thinking is advantageous not only as a skill to teach students, but also for applying the principles ourselves to design courses and curriculum—particularly in the complex context of experiential and community-based approaches. A human-centered, collaborative, holistic approach enables greater responsiveness to stakeholders' needs, maximizes mutual benefit through cocreation of value, and increases the likelihood of successful and sustainable implementation of an idea through buy-in and engagement.

As we describe below, each of these elements is embedded in both the development and application of the *curriculum innovation canvas*, the framework we ultimately created to address our questions of "how we might" assist educators with the process of developing engaging, responsive curricula and enable them to bring their innovative ideas to life. The curriculum innovation canvas provides an organizing, planning, and reviewing platform that can be a reference point through all stages of the process from idea generation to implementation to retrospective gap analysis. The canvas was created by applying the design thinking philosophy of purposefully and meaningfully involving stakeholders in the development process, and likewise it serves to guide educators through the process of applying design thinking principles in their own curriculum development work. In the sections that follow, we outline the methods we used to create the curriculum innovation canvas, including visualization and prototyping; the components of the canvas; and how it can be applied. We conclude with implications for theory, research, and practice.

Methodology

> "The more 'finished' a prototype seems, the less likely its creators will be to pay attention to and profit from feedback. The goal of prototyping ... is to learn about the strengths and weaknesses of the idea and to identify new directions that further prototypes might take." *(Brown, 2008, p. 3)*

Ultimately, a design thinking approach is a process of prototyping and experimentation, where the end result is shaped through user involvement and feedback. This is the type of approach our curriculum innovation canvas is meant to elicit in its users, but it is also the approach we took to developing it. To begin, we cocreated an initial conceptual framework (i.e., the earliest iteration or prototype of the canvas, which was a fairly rudimentary sketch), which was informed by gaps in the literature combined with our experience with creating, adapting, and implementing experiential and community-based curriculum in management education. We drew structural inspiration from the literature on business models *(e.g., Amit & Zott, 2010; Osterwalder, 2004; Zott, Amit, & Massa, 2011)*. In particular, Osterwalder and Pigneur's *(2010)* business model generation is an example in the entrepreneurial space that offered a generalizable starting point with a visual representation of the principles. Their model uses building blocks arranged in four categories: product, customer, infrastructure, and finance, which some have likened to Kaplan and Norton's *(1996)* "balanced scorecard" for strategy implementation *(Trimi & Berbegal-Mirabent, 2012)*. Osterwalder's framework—the model to which our project is structurally most similar—is well known and widely used, but it is certainly not the only one. For instance, Hulme *(2011)* created the business model framework, which is quite similar. (A full review of such models is beyond the scope and intent of our article, but see *Zott et al., 2011*, for a review. Rather, we drew inspiration from the literature on business models generally speaking, insofar as it helped us create a new platform for curriculum innovation.)

Using these as best-practice examples, we sketched out an idea of a curriculum innovation canvas to reflect the educational entrepreneur's landscape. After this initial working prototype was created, we sought users representing diverse backgrounds and perspectives as our testing grounds to solicit feedback and identify strengths and weaknesses. We consulted many different stakeholder groups within the educational ecosystem to ensure

that the result was relevant and would meet their needs—this was also how we identified who the users were, including curriculum developers, instructors, administrators, community organizations, and students. We outline the major stages of the prototyping process below, followed by a description of the end "product" in the next section. Overall, we approached the process by moving from divergent thinking (broad, considering all possible options) to convergent thinking (narrowing, converging on best options), which is another defining characteristic of design thinking *(e.g., Hassi & Laakso, 2011)*.

Samples of Users and Contexts for Experimentation

Individual meetings. First, we solicited input from two curriculum development specialists at our institution's Centre for Teaching Effectiveness. We met with them individually and took notes based on their impressions and feedback. In each case, we briefly described the general premise and then introduced the curriculum innovation canvas (in its earliest form) and its purpose. We explained the logic and rationale, then allowed time for the specialist to review and navigate the structure. We then asked them to describe their first impressions and reactions, identify any issues or gaps in the logic of how to use the tool, ask clarifying questions, and offer suggestions. The context of the discussions was broad, with the intent of assessing overall impressions and the potential merits or limitations of such a framework (i.e., divergent stage).

Focus Group 1. Next, we held a focus group with a full team of curriculum development specialists, the Curriculum Innovation Team from the Centre for Teaching Effectiveness. Four individuals participated, two of whom had participated in the initial conversations described above. All four hold Ph.D.s in their respective fields, and the scope of their current positions includes program and curriculum innovation and revitalization, students' experiences of their learning environments, assessment and program evaluation, and engagement. We cofacilitated the focus group discussion, which lasted approximately 90 minutes. We had prepared some questions in advance, because we were curious about specific elements of the user experience. However, we also allowed for fluid conversation threads and open dialogue. The examination of the canvas was now more in-depth, and our intent was to put the concept to the test. Our core questions included elements of *usability* (e.g., Does the logic of the canvas make sense? What would some of the challenges be in using this tool?), *scope* (e.g., Is there missing

or extraneous content?), *context* (e.g., In what types of courses or curriculum development contexts would this tool be most effective? To whom would it be most useful?), and *contribution* (e.g., How does this compare with existing tools or frameworks in the education literatures?).

Focus Group 2. This second focus group included individuals involved in a community-based inner-city health clinic that is largely operated through partnerships with faculty and students from various health science colleges at our university. Focus group attendees included the clinic's program coordinator, two of its steering committee members (both affiliated with the university), and a graduate student who had participated in community outreach activities at the clinic as part of her coursework. The group applied the curriculum innovation canvas to their context, which is based on a very complex system of partnerships. They frequently experience challenges with setting clear and feasible expectations for students' work at the community clinic, ensuring appropriate interactions between students and patients/clients of the clinic, connecting the student experience to academic learning objectives, and so on.

Workshop 1. We then held a workshop for faculty members who currently have or plan to have some element of community engagement in the courses they are teaching. The attendees represented a variety of academic backgrounds, including biology, ecology, medicine, business, environmental sustainability, pharmacy, and educational development, and varying levels of past experience with community-based teaching and learning. In the focus groups, we had concentrated on conceptual discussion and critical evaluation of the canvas, but for this workshop we asked participants to actively use the canvas from start to finish. After explaining the genesis of the canvas and its purpose, logic, and navigation, we asked participants to work in groups of two to four, using the canvas to map out an actual community-based experiential course that they were planning or delivering. During the concluding debrief, we solicited detailed feedback about their experience with the canvas.

Workshop 2. Next, we conducted a workshop with students, many of whom were from the business school, with some from other disciplines such as education. As with the previous workshop, after explaining the premise of the canvas we asked students to work in groups to experiment with it. We also asked them to go through each section and identify gaps, omissions, or other problems, based on their own experiences.

Research seminar. Lastly, we presented the nearly final product to approximately 30 faculty and staff in our internal research seminar series. We described the basic premise of the canvas, as well as its theoretical and conceptual roots, and then walked attendees through each of its components. Based on discussion during and after this seminar, we made some additional adjustments and reconfirmed some of the changes already made.

Outcomes of the Prototyping Process

The level of engagement with the canvas at each stage was marked. Users were excited to experiment with it and to "play" creatively with their ideas. During each user test, we took notes, made sketches, and moved blocks around, based on the feedback we received. We created a revised prototype after each test before presenting it to another group of users for further experimentation, including adding or deleting features, adjusting wording, moving shapes, and shifting graphics. Changes at each stage ranged from minor wordsmithing to substantive revisions, as the different stakeholder groups experimented with the canvas and applied it to their own context. Sometimes elements were added based on user ideas but subsequently removed after further trials. For instance, at one point the components of the canvas were numbered to help users navigate through the flow, but further feedback suggested the numbers were unnecessary and even restrictive. One faculty member commented, "I think the numbering is useful as a guideline, but obscures the iterative process that seems to be a key element of working through it."

Gradually the needs and preferences of the user groups began to converge as we made adjustments. We created guiding questions for each block of the canvas, based on questions that arose in the various groups about how to use the tool. We added arrows and shading to show general movement and connection among the ideas, but we emphasized that there is no "right" or "wrong" way to approach it, nor is any element static or permanent. In all, we created 13 versions of the curriculum innovation canvas, each being thoroughly examined and manipulated by its potential users (divergent approach) before arriving at a template that seemed to best meet users' needs (convergent approach).

Although surveys are not typical of a design thinking methodology per se, we also administered a brief feedback instrument at the end of both workshops, asking specific questions about the user experience with the canvas. Items were rated on a scale of 1

(Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree), and 28 people from a wide variety of academic backgrounds completed our voluntary survey. Results indicated that participants found the canvas easy to use *(M = 4.32, SD = 0.48)*, that the logic made sense *(M = 4.50, SD = 1.00)*, and that the canvas offers value to instructors *(M = 4.89, SD = 0.31)*, community partners *(M = 4.25, SD = 0.84)*, administrators *(M = 4.59, SD = 0.57)*, and students *(M = 4.17, SD = 1.20)*. We observed themes in the contributions identified by users—the things that made the canvas appealing and exciting to them: (1) representing everything visually on the page rather than via a long, text-heavy course proposal form (i.e., it served to engage visual learners/thinkers and also illustrated the interrelationships between elements better than a written document or syllabus); (2) seeing all the things that need to be considered, including some aspects that they might not have realized previously (i.e., identifying gaps and creating a complete strategy before moving forward); and (3) the interactive, organic nature of the process that allowed them to innovate and experiment with different ideas (i.e., it was fluid, flexible, and fun). Next, we describe the outcome of the process described above—the curriculum innovation canvas—including an overview of each component and its purpose, intent, and application.

The Curriculum Innovation Canvas

Overview and Logic of the Framework

The Curriculum Innovation Canvas is shown in Figure 1, with the blank worksheet provided in Figure 2. Each "block" in the canvas framework represents a step in the process, like building blocks. Although the arrows and shapes show the general logic or flow, we emphasize that ideas might germinate from almost any point on the canvas, and its application is meant to be adaptable to the user's needs. It does not necessarily flow in a linear left-to-right pattern; this too is intentional and derived from design thinking principles that encourage a holistic approach, apply integrative thinking, and conceptualize a system of related activities rather than a predefined or linear series of steps *(Brown, 2008a)*. As Knight *(2001)* observes in his discussion of complexity and curriculum, "creativity, innovation and flexibility depend on there being slack, spaces or spare capacity in a system" *(p. 374)*.

Figure 1.The Curriculum Innovation Canvas

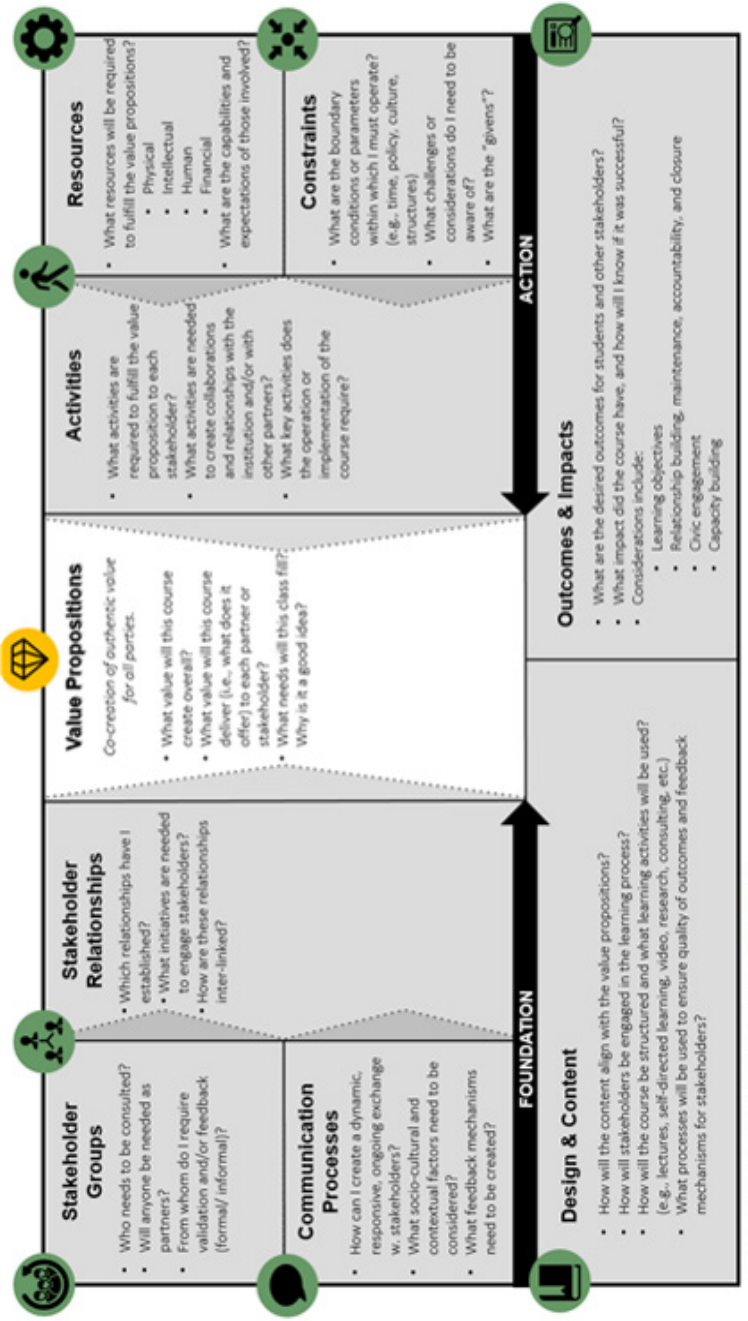
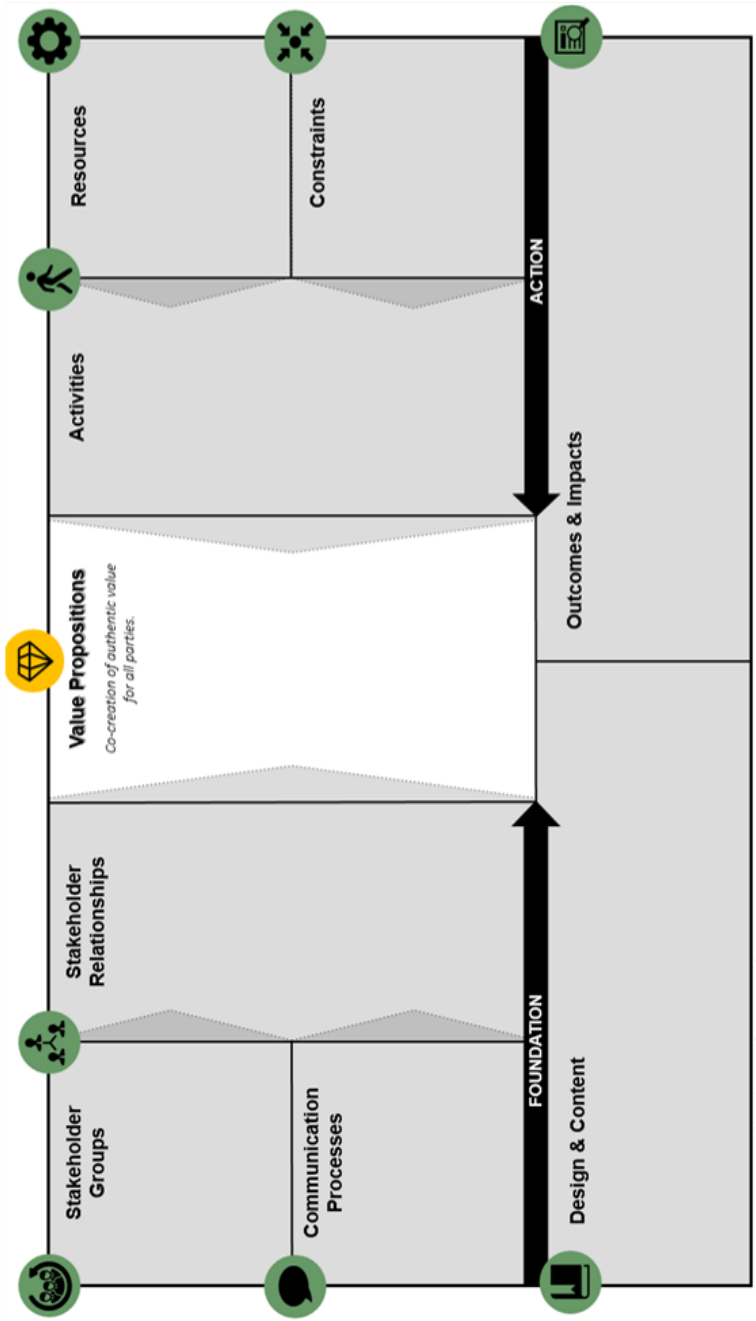


Figure 2. The Curriculum Innovation Canvas Worksheet



The two sides of the curriculum innovation canvas, delineated by the thick arrows, represent different phases of the curriculum development process. First, on the left, are the foundation elements, such as identifying stakeholders, building relationships, and developing inclusive communication processes. On the right are the action elements that involve moving the idea toward implementation, such as identifying resources and defining desired outcomes. The placement of blocks on each side also has meaning: the smaller outer blocks support the larger block immediately adjacent, and the larger horizontal blocks at the bottom are related to the core curriculum and methods for the course itself. Purposely in the center are the *value propositions* (cocreated benefits, described in the next section), to which all other elements connect. The arrows provide visual cues and movement, as well as a reminder to align each element to the value propositions. The icons are also meant to enhance the visual experience by providing a symbolic representation of what each block contributes to the holistic view.

We note that although this structure may suggest a logical flow within and between the different sides of the canvas, we are certainly not proposing the canvas as a mechanistic and linear process. Rather, as we indicated earlier, using the canvas should be organic and iterative: It prompts breaking things into smaller tasks so that they can be combined, examined, and molded into an infinite variety of patterns and possibilities. Moreover, the simple visual elements of the canvas facilitate easy navigation between ideas and examining multiple scenarios.

Next, we briefly describe the rationale for each block of the curriculum innovation canvas, each of which was defined through the prototyping process. For each block, we provide several guiding questions to help the user identify and articulate their own content for each area. Throughout our descriptions, we operate within the framework of a "course," with the assertion that it can also be applied effectively to a course component (e.g., project, assignment), program, or collegewide curriculum.

Value Propositions

- What value will this course create overall?
- What value will this course deliver (i.e., what does it offer) to each partner or stakeholder?
- What needs will this course fill? Why is it a good idea?

Expressed in the language of business models, value propositions reflect "the benefit that customers can expect from your prod-

ucts and services" *(Osterwalder, Pigneur, Bernarda, Smith, & Papadakos, 2014, p. 31)*. Our definition, developed with the users described earlier, is the *cocreation of authentic value for all parties*. Our approach is therefore more aligned with the literature on service logic, such that value is offered through a process of coproduction between companies and their customers, as opposed to customers simply being viewed as "receivers of value" *(Michel, Vargo, & Lusch, 2007; Normann & Ramirez, 1993)*. However, we extend this further by recognizing multiple stakeholders in the context of curriculum innovation (beyond the traditional "customer") and deliberately representing their voices in the process. Value propositions essentially express the assessment of the benefit each stakeholder receives (whether tangible or intangible) as seen from their perspective. Given that there are multiple perspectives taken into account, and multiple constituents to whom a course will offer value, there will likely be more than one value proposition to consider.

Value propositions are distinct from learning objectives, in that value propositions encompass a broader conceptualization of benefits and outcomes, and they also consider more than just the student stakeholder. This may be advantageous over more traditional approaches that focus largely on learning objectives or developing a "vision" for a course *(e.g., Schmidt-Wilk, 2011)*, as neither learning objectives nor vision will articulate the "business case" for a new idea the way value propositions will. Making the business case may be necessary in advocating for support or resources. For instance, in spite of the benefits to students and other stakeholders, community engagement may not receive formal support or recognition in many postsecondary institutions *(e.g., Barreno et al., 2013)*.

Value propositions can therefore show a variety of stakeholders, including decision makers or political gatekeepers (e.g., those involved in the collegial process of new course approvals and those responsible for resource distribution), why the course is a good idea and how it benefits them—rather than making only the value to students explicit. That said, the learning objectives (discussed in a later block) must be directly aligned with the value propositions, and may be an important part of informing the value proposition to students in particular. Value propositions are the starting place and core of the curriculum innovation canvas, and they anchor all other elements—depicted by the location at the center of the framework. To construct value propositions, it may be useful to consider stakeholder groups, discussed next.

Stakeholder Groups

- Who needs to be consulted?
- Will anyone be needed as partners?
- From whom do I require validation and/or feedback (formal/informal)?

We define *stakeholder* relatively broadly, as anyone who affects or is affected by a particular course or program. This may include students, faculty colleagues, department heads, and deans (all of whom can be considered internal stakeholders), as well as community-based organizations, funding agents, government, and businesses (external stakeholders). This can build the foundation for partnerships and embed a philosophy of cocreation throughout the entire process—consistent with the human-centered and collaboration principles of design thinking—in particular with students and community partners.

Not all stakeholders will be involved directly in the course, as students and community partners would be, but the purpose of identifying stakeholder groups is to be more inclusive than would typically be the case. Understanding the needs and perspectives of all stakeholders is valuable for advocacy (i.e., building the business case by articulating value propositions for all stakeholders, including those in key positions of influence) and for shaping elements of course design that may impact others. For example, in creating an assignment that involves students providing deliverables (e.g., business plan, marketing materials) to a partner organization, it is critical to investigate whether this will adversely affect other community-based courses and their offerings, especially within the same academic unit.

Stakeholder Relationships

- Which relationships have I established?
- What initiatives are needed to engage stakeholders?
- How are these relationships interlinked?

For pedagogies such as service-learning, reciprocity is a core principle, such that all participants (i.e., institutions, students, and communities) are at once learners, providers, and recipients—"we should all both teach and learn" *(Lowery et al., 2006, p. 53)*. In fact, reciprocity is a prevailing principle throughout nearly every section of the canvas—an enduring focus on ensuring mutual and authentic value for both internal and external stakeholders. This is especially true in publicly funded institutions, which are perceived to be stewards of the public interest. Implementation of

courses that involve community or organization partners by definition involves serving the needs of stakeholders both internal and external to the university. Such initiatives may be highly dependent on the instructor's ability to bridge these different contexts by building and maintaining relationships with key stakeholders in both "worlds." This can be complex and challenging because, as alluded to in the process of identifying stakeholder groups, not all stakeholder relationships are created equal. Different people or groups will have roles of different magnitude, but each should be considered. The canvas highlights that building these relationships is part of an intentional curriculum planning process, rather than a "just in time" or reactionary response.

Communication Processes

- How can I create a dynamic, responsive, ongoing exchange with stakeholders?
- What contextual factors need to be considered?
- What feedback mechanisms need to be created?

The goal of establishing communication processes is to uncover the information or perspectives needed to increase the likelihood of success and be responsive to stakeholders. In particular, it is crucial to devote time to communication processes with community partners *(Tryon, Hilgendorf, & Scott, 2009).* However, time is not the only critical factor. In their examination of service-learning partnerships, Tryon et al. *(2009)* interviewed an organization staff member who commented that "often, nonprofits are filling professors' needs . . . I never see a [professor] look for what a community needs and then design their class around that" *(p. 100)*. Similarly, Blouin and Perry *(2009)* found that one of the major barriers to successful service-learning initiatives was insufficient communication between instructors and organizations. Different stakeholders may also have different ways of providing and receiving information. Thus, consciously incorporating a responsive, open, two-way communication process can ensure that a course serves students' learning needs, but also genuinely addresses community needs (regardless of how *community* is defined). This ties directly back to the value propositions, in terms of continually seeking cocreated value to stakeholders.

Design and Content

- How will the content align with the value propositions?
- How will stakeholders be engaged in the learning process?
- How will the course be structured and what learning activities will be used (e.g., lectures, self-directed learning, video, research, consulting, etc.)?
- What processes will be used to ensure quality of outcomes and feedback mechanisms for stakeholders?

This block might be the most familiar component for educators, as it involves planning the content of the course (e.g., textbooks, resources), identifying teaching strategies and learning activities, and other aspects that might typically be reflected in a course syllabus (see *Whetten, 2007*, for a thoughtful discussion on effective course design). Experiential courses present unique learning contexts and development opportunities and thus require unique course design considerations. We assert that such factors should be incorporated into the "DNA" of a course, particularly if it involves community or organization partnerships.

First, the design and content should align with the value propositions, and the needs and desired benefits identified for each stakeholder should play a critical role in deciding how to structure the classes (for instance, the order of topics covered in class), create assignments, and ensure students acquire the knowledge and skills needed to fulfill the expectations of the course. Too often, the community partners' needs, realities, and voice are insufficiently considered *(Stoecker & Tryon, 2009)*. Tensions can surface due to different needs of institutions, students, and community partners, or misunderstandings and power struggles *(Lowery et al., 2006)*. The value propositions for community partners should inform any tangible outcomes that students are expected to produce—ideally, this too should be developed through a process of cocreation with the partner(s) to define what the deliverable could look like (again highlighting the importance of reciprocity). These *a priori* discussions should increase alignment of perspectives and serve to manage expectations regarding what students are expected to achieve or produce, as well as facilitate better communication during the course and truly mutually beneficial (and perhaps longer term) partnerships.

Second, the course design should reflect accountability to stakeholders, and in particular to students and community/organization partners. Thus, in completing this block, quality assur-

ance and feedback mechanisms should be considered. For instance, if student projects are completed for a community partner, what checks and balances will be used throughout the semester to ensure that the work is being performed according to expectations? What opportunities will be provided for feedback and mentorship for students regarding their work and/or conduct, and to support them? How will the instructor ensure that the final product (e.g., report, presentation) meets the desired quality standard?

Outcomes and Impacts

- What are the desired outcomes for students and other stakeholders?
- What impact did the course have, and how will I know if it was successful?
- Considerations include learning objectives; relationship building, maintenance, accountability, and closure; civic engagement; capacity building

The most obvious focus for outcomes and impacts is student learning, which is generally the primary reason for any curriculum. In the context of community-based curriculum, assessment of student learning is an indicator of knowledge and/or skills transfer, but may also serve as incentive for students to "engage more deeply and at a higher level" *(Biggs & Tang, 2011)*, rather than just reiterating content *(Lenton et al., 2014)*. In their report on community organizations' motivations to participate in service-learning, Bell and Carlson *(2009)* note that "to the extent that a professor or student does not communicate learning goals to the organization, the organization will default to treating them as a volunteer and, in all likelihood, the student will act like a volunteer" *(p. 21)*. However, they also identify some of the reasons that community organizations participate in such initiatives, including the desire to educate students and maintain a relationship with the institution. These examples illustrate the importance of collaboratively delineating the desired outcomes for each party and how they define success and positive impact, as student learning is only one (albeit important) indicator.

The impacts (positive or negative) of a course on other stakeholders—most notably community or business partners, and perhaps academic departments—must also be considered. Scholars have argued that "community" is rarely consulted when defining community impact *(Stoecker & Tryon, 2009)*. Determining and/or quantifying these impacts can be challenging, as community-based

organizations themselves may struggle with how to measure, quantify, or articulate their impact or "results" toward achieving their mission *(e.g., Poister, 2003)*. Beyond community-based or experiential courses, evaluating program outcomes in general is "extremely rare, if not nonexistent" in business schools *(Pfeffer & Fong, 2002, p. 90)*, yet it is essential for understanding the effects, impacts, and consequences of a curriculum.

Resources

- What resources will be required to fulfill the value propositions?
- What are the capabilities and expectations of those involved?

In terms of assessing capabilities and expectations, a good illustration is the sometimes-complex logistics of implementing community-based projects. As we noted at the outset, these types of courses or course components are often more resource intensive than more traditional pedagogies. The demands on each stakeholder—as well as the instructor him/herself—should be carefully considered in order to plan for and leverage sufficient resources to support all parties. Project work can place (often unintended) burdens on the community organization and jeopardize student outcomes, making it critical to collaboratively discuss and define expectations in advance. For example, who will supervise students' work in the community (will they be supervised?), do they need training (and on what?), and who will evaluate their performance *(Gonzalez & Golden, 2009)*?

This is again similar to the business logic of the entrepreneur who must consider all actions in a closed system where resources are scarce. The educational entrepreneur, like the business entrepreneur, must continually make decisions based on ongoing cost–benefit analysis, but as noted earlier, will be faced with the complexities of analyzing the intangible cost and benefits to internal and external stakeholders. The curriculum innovation canvas can help to navigate this complexity by linking the resources back to the original value propositions. This process uses a logic similar to Kaplan and Norton's *(2001)* strategy maps, in which strategy is created by determining which processes need to be enhanced to deliver the value proposition promised to customers. As we noted above, there are likely multiple value propositions, reflecting many stakeholders with different needs, hence the critical function of the canvas for determining what is needed and for which stakeholders. According to Kaplan and Norton, such precision is not only crucial

implementation but is also important for measurement around the effective use of resources.

Constraints

- What are the boundary conditions or parameters within which I must operate (e.g., time, policy, culture, structures)?
- What challenges or considerations do I need to be aware of?
- What are the "givens"?

As we noted at the outset, educational entrepreneurs must operate in the context of organizations that are not typically designed to support new or innovative approaches. Design thinking philosophy often portrays constraints as a source of "challenge and excitement" that provides inspiration for more creative solutions *(Dunne & Martin, 2006)* or as a natural part of the exploration process *(Brown, 2008a)*. Regardless of how they are viewed, constraints should be identified, as should "givens" of the circumstances within which a curriculum innovation is being developed—the semester system, for instance, is a given that introduces time constraints that may preclude longer term initiatives. Likewise, related constraints might include the timing of midterm exams, students' overall workload for the semester and their other time commitments, instructors' limited time for each student or group, and the existing job and resource demands faced by organizational partners.

Some scholars have argued that in fact *most* organizational entrepreneurs face resource constraints and must learn to "make do with what is at hand" *(Baker & Nelson, 2005, p. 329)*. Thus, beyond identifying such constraints, the canvas provides a space to investigate creative means of navigating barriers and boundary conditions, while understanding and innovating within any immovable parameters.

Activities

- What activities are required to fulfill the value propositions to each stakeholder?
- What activities are needed to create collaborations and relationships within the institution and/or with other partners?
- What activities does the operation or implementation of the course require?

The activities portion of the canvas is meant to document what needs to be done to deliver on the value propositions—in other words, the steps required to make the idea a reality or to launch a new course. The curriculum innovation canvas facilitates this process by promoting the dissection of large initiatives into smaller activities, much like goal setting. Articulating small steps toward the end state provides a clearer, more focused view of the future and can be less overwhelming than trying to accomplish radical change *(Miller & Wilson, 2006)*. Our canvas guides the instructor to consider those incremental activities that are needed to fulfill the value propositions and implementation. By targeting the activities as a defined component, the canvas facilitates the creation of "SMART" goals (i.e., specific, measurable, assignable, realistic, time-related; *Doran, 1981*) and the development of a work plan that helps the instructor articulate what must be done to bring value to various stakeholders. Like the other elements in the canvas that are inherently interconnected, the activities are largely defined by the other blocks, while providing a focus on how to make it all happen. In essence, the instructor must consider "what do I need to do" (activities) in the context of other critical considerations such as "why am I doing this," "who is involved," "how will this work," and "will everyone benefit."

Discussion

There has been no shortage of scrutiny and criticism leveled at business schools, and calls for business programs to better prepare students as professionals and contributors to society more broadly *(e.g., Bennis & O'Toole, 2005; Pfeffer & Fong, 2002)*. Educational institutions in general are seen as a means to foster students' feelings of social responsibility and concern for community *(e.g., Kahne & Sporte, 2008)*. To enhance applied learning and civic engagement, there has been an increasing focus on experiential and community-based teaching and learning practices in many institutions *(Barreno et al., 2013; Randall, 2010)*. Although they offer a multitude of benefits, such pedagogies are arguably more complex to implement than traditional "sage on stage" approaches. Observing the parallel between the entrepreneur and the instructor, we noted that educational entrepreneurs are tasked with creating responsive, relevant, and innovative curriculum within this complex and challenging environment—and to do so, they must understand the needs of multiple stakeholders, attempt to create reciprocal value, and operate within institutional constraints. Thus, we drew from research and practice in entrepreneurship, and leveraged the

mindset of entrepreneurs as they face the task of creating value for customers, in order to create a platform for navigating these challenges.

We developed the curriculum innovation canvas using principles of design thinking, both in our process and in the outcome—that is, we extensively consulted multiple stakeholder groups, created and tested iterative prototypes, and shaped the canvas based on user experimentation and feedback. The canvas guides educators through the process of articulating value propositions for their ideas, building relationships and communication processes with stakeholders, and identifying resources and constraints. Core elements of curriculum, such as content and evaluation, remain essential components but are framed somewhat differently in the context of substantiating the value propositions and cocreation with stakeholders.

Although we located our curriculum innovation canvas largely in the context of business and management education literature, we believe it is equally applicable in nearly any field. This assertion is supported by the fact that the participants in our prototyping process represented many different disciplines (e.g., biology, medicine, agriculture, environmental sustainability), and the aggregate feedback suggested that the canvas was useful, novel, and engaging. The users who experimented with our canvas also represented different stakeholder groups and user roles, including professors, administrators, students, community workers, and curriculum developers. This approach was consistent with our overarching design thinking principles of engaging in human-centered and collaborative cocreation, and also helped us test our innovation for use in different contexts.

Implications for Theory, Research, and Practice

In terms of implications for practice, the process of testing the curriculum innovation canvas was revealing in ways we did not expect. In particular, user experimentation and the creative mindset facilitated by the canvas served to identify several other ways that the tool could be applied. For example, one of our user samples included members of a community-based organization that offers medical students the opportunity to volunteer in a community health clinic—this was an ideal testing ground, given our focus on community-based experiential learning, because the organization's mission included both serving the community and providing an experiential learning opportunity for medical students. This dual

mission had long been creating confusion because medical students, managers, community members, and patients all struggled with understanding the organization's "real" purpose—serving the needs of community clients or medical students? The canvas was immediately seen as a tool that could aid in communicating expectations to both of these groups (an expectations map) and engaging in collective dialogue to ensure value for everyone involved.

The curriculum innovation canvas was also applied in the context of debriefing a completed course as a way of identifying gaps, understanding what worked and what did not, and planning for improvements. The course was a graduate-level "field school" in agricultural sustainability, which was structured as an on-site practicum course in a rural community in cooperation with local residents, farmers, and scientists working in a biosphere reserve. Because it was a team-taught course, the canvas was used by the group of instructors to create common understandings among their team members about what happened, additional stakeholder partnerships and consultations that would be needed, and how to create an action plan for the future. Thus, beyond its original intent for course planning and implementation, the canvas was also successfully used for debriefing and gap analysis.

In terms of further testing, and a valuable avenue for future research, we recommend examining the curriculum innovation canvas in institutional administration. Another idea for application that emerged during the testing process was the possibility of using such a tool university-wide to standardize the application process for new course approvals. The value proposition of the canvas at this level is that administrators can easily understand what a course will look like "on the ground level," the stakeholders involved, and the value to students. Future research could examine challenges that administrators face when reviewing and approving new and/or novel curriculum proposals in particular. A related avenue would be further examination of the canvas as a strategic tool for program-level development—some of our users identified this as an opportunity for creating a new certificate program because the canvas facilitated their thinking about multiple perspectives, identifying resources and sources of support, and even benchmarking against competitors offering similar programs.

With respect to other implications for research and extensions of theory, this article demonstrates the positive potential in applying principles in design thinking to the curriculum development process. Prior research has identified opportunities for applying design thinking within business school curricula—that is,

teaching students how to leverage this type of approach to problem solving and innovation—but we argue that design thinking principles are valuable for instructors and others who are operating as educational entrepreneurs.

Limitations

One user who participated in our prototyping process commented that, because the blocks in the curriculum innovation canvas are somewhat defined, it is possible that other aspects could be missed if they are not included in the existing framework—in other words, someone who relies solely on the elements we described could be vulnerable to blind spots from other factors not considered. Acknowledging that this is a possibility, we feel that—due in large part to the extensive prototyping process and experimentation with many "types" of users—the canvas offers enough breadth and flexibility that users can apply it to their own context and achieve a comprehensive result. Additionally, it is not meant to be exhaustive, and we would be unable to achieve an exact match to every person's context. Rather, the intention is to provide a tool that facilitates creativity and innovation, and a novel way of thinking about the curriculum development process, as well as guided planning and implementation for the resulting ideas.

Conclusion

The curriculum innovation canvas uniquely bridges principles from entrepreneurial business models and experiential learning to provide a platform for instructors, curriculum developers, and administrators to engage in innovation and implementation of experiential courses or programs—particularly those that involve community or organizational partnerships. By adopting a human-centered, collaborative, and holistic approach from design thinking logic, we have sought to make the canvas stimulate a creative process and ongoing stakeholder engagement that will generate and implement mutually beneficial curriculum innovations in a complex and dynamic context.

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Book Reviews

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Gavazzi, S. M. (2016). The optimal town–gown marriage: Taking campus–community outreach and engagement to the next level. Charleston, SC: Author. 254 pp.

Review by James M. Shaeffer, Sr.

One of the ongoing challenges facing all higher education institutions is the town–gown relationship. Stephen Gavazzi, author of *The Optimal Town–Gown Marriage*, not only demonstrates his understanding of the importance of this relationship, but also displays his passion for creating the most effective, what he calls harmonious, relationship between the town and the gown.

Gavazzi, who has many years of experience as both a faculty member and director of a center at the main campus of The Ohio State University, draws on his experience as the dean and director of The Ohio State University at Mansfield regional campus to describe the trials and tribulations of developing a healthy and strong town–gown relationship.

In general, this book is intended to show the complexities of developing a strong and healthy town–gown relationship and, more importantly, demonstrate that the health of one is mutually dependent on the health of the other. To provide a new lens through which to look at this issue, the author draws on literature and research about marriage and suggests tools for gathering data that should drive the decision making in town–gown relationships.

Gavazzi opens the book (Chapter 2) describing his early days as the new dean and director of The Ohio State Mansfield. Despite understanding the importance of having a healthy and strong relationship between his campus and its local town, the relationship he inherited on his arrival in Mansfield was shrouded in mistrust and suspicion. He walks the reader through how, sometimes serendipitously, strong town–gown relationships are forged, using the example of how a major construction project positively affected both the university and the community. This often happens, as Gavazzi notes, if you see building an optimal town–gown relationship as "a full contact sport that requires continuous participation and maximum effort on the part of campus and community leaders" *(p. 9)*.

In Chapter 3, the author provides a brief literature review of the research on town–gown relationships. He describes this research by using the metaphor of seeing the town–gown relationship as a

glass either half full or half empty. The literature trending toward a "glass half empty" perspective concentrates on what he calls edge/wedge issues—disagreements usually concentrated on land use and/or the misbehavior of students. Research finding the glass "half full" concentrates on the joint economic benefits enjoyed by the town and gown and celebrates the shared goals and benefits.

One of the unique aspects of the book is Gavazzi's foray into using the marriage metaphor (Chapter 4) in defining the characteristics of a successful or unsuccessful town–gown relationship. The author draws on his previous work, as well as others', in offering a town–gown typology that rests on a matrix of four quadrants, ranging from lower to higher effort and lower to higher comfort. Therefore a town–gown relationship may be considered devitalized (lower effort–lower comfort), conflicted (higher effort–lower comfort), traditional (lower effort–higher comfort), or harmonious (higher effort–higher comfort).

According to the author, most institutions find themselves in the "traditional" quadrant, what can be described as a passive relationship in which parties "live and let live" until something momentous happens. Due to the passive nature of the relationship, there may not be a solid foundation for responding to a major disruption, whether land use related or due to student behavior.

Harmonious town–gown relationships emerge when there is high comfort between the community and campus and where town and gown leaders are highly engaged. Gavazzi suggests that the "search for shared goals and objectives" is the initial stage in developing a harmonious town–gown relationship. Returning to the marriage metaphor, just as a happy marriage takes a great deal of work on the part of each partner, a harmonious town–gown relationship "takes a good deal of ongoing work, plain and simple."

One of things that jeopardize a town–gown relationship is making decisions in the absence of data. In Chapters 4 and 5 the author provides a data-gathering tool, the Optimal College Town Assessment (OCTA), and a suggested mobilization cycle. The OCTA is a set of questions that elicit insights into community leaders' perceptions regarding their relationships with various college members—from administrators to faculty to the governing board to students.

Gavazzi shares his initial findings from applying the tool on The Ohio State Mansfield regional campus. Readers may find Gavazzi's description of how he administered the OCTA as well as his analysis helpful. Although the questions used in the OCTA may

not be generalizable to all town–gown situations—that is, they may need to be modified depending on the size of the institution and community—the overall use and analysis drives home the author's major point that decisions and actions related to town and gown must be data driven.

In the next chapter (Chapter 6) the author provides a town–gown mobilization cycle that moves from awareness raising to coalition building to data gathering to interpreting information to evidence-based action. What is particularly helpful is the author's use of his own experience at The Ohio State University at Mansfield as an example. It is informative to see how he marched through each of the steps and overcame obstacles as he gathered, analyzed, and used the data.

One of the tenets Gavazzi posits is the importance of intentional leadership from both the college and the community in developing a truly harmonious relationship. In Chapter 7, he interviews presidents as well as city managers to gather reflections on their personal experiences with town–gown relationships. Although the reader will find the excerpts from the interviews interesting and helpful, the point that Gavazzi raised early in the book, that building an optimal town–gown relationship is "a full contact sport that requires continuous participation and maximum effort on the part of campus and community leaders," can be seen in nearly every interview. Like a good marriage, building and sustaining an optimal town–gown relationship takes time and energy on the part of both entities.

Bringing the reader full circle in Chapter 8, Gavazzi describes his experience attempting to improve the town–gown relationship at The Ohio State Mansfield. He walks the reader through the impact the various constituents, students, faculty, senior administrators, alumni, board members, business and industry leaders, governmental officials, nonprofit leaders, and other community members had on revitalizing and improving the town–gown relationship.

The remainder of this chapter is excerpts and commentary by the author from interviews with E. Gordon Gee, whom the author refers to as "the quintessential town–gown president." There is no doubt that Gee is one of the academy's great thought leaders, recognizing the importance of higher education institutions becoming engaged with the community. The quotes from Gee are not only instructive in terms of pursuing engagement with the community, but are also inspirational. Gee provides the quintessential examples

of intentional leadership in town–gown relationships. This quote seems to say it all:

> At the end of the day, university presidents are relatively unimportant people within the university. But their efforts to set the tone and values of the place are the most important things that presidents do. And therefore it's important that students see a president that is excited about them and is excited about their engagement in the community. That is my calling, and my responsibility. *(p. 203)*

In the final chapter Gavazzi provides what he calls the Ten Commandments of Town–Gown Relationships, which is his attempt at developing a set of "emerging best practices for university and municipal leaders, generated as a result of combining the contents of this book with a thorough review of the town–gown literature" *(p. 209)*. Another way to look at these practices is to view them as lessons learned by the author and others who strive to create harmonious town–gown relationships. The continuing salient points found throughout the book are the importance of making town–gown relations a high priority; carving out substantial time to make it a success; seeking mutually-beneficial results; and a willingness to make town–gown a full contact sport where we are always striving to make it a harmonious relationship.

One of the most appealing aspects of the book is the manner in which Gavazzi weaves his personal experience with town–gown relationships with the supporting literature as well as the interviews of campus and community leaders. The Optimal College Town Assessment (OCTA) tool is helpful and a good reminder of the need for data-driven decision making; however, it may need to be modified depending on the size of the institution and the community.

One surprising aspect of this book was its minimal mention of the research about community engagement performed by others and supported by organizations like the Engagement Scholarship Consortium, although Gavazzi does mention the consortium as an organization trying to enhance town–gown relationships. This is not a criticism of Gavazzi or the book; it is more an observation that there seems to be abundant research about engaged institutions and town–gown relationships, and that although one might expect these literatures to be complementary, they seem to be developing in isolation of one another.

Those immersed in the literature and activity of the engaged university will find Gavazzi's book interesting and helpful in terms of widening the lens when looking at town–gown relationships. In some ways, *The Optimal Town-Gown Marriage* could be used as a first step in looking for complementary issues in the engaged university and town–gown literature and research.

About the Reviewer

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Reardon, K., & Forester, J. (Eds.). (2015). Rebuilding community after Katrina: Transformative education in the New Orleans planning initiative. Philadelphia, PA: Temple University Press. 296 pp.

Review by Renee C. Zientek

In a time when many communities face crises caused by such challenges as natural disaster, failing infrastructure, and environmental catastrophe, the timing could not be better for scholars to share their promising practices for working together with communities to address such situations. Colleges and universities across the United States have committed significant human and financial resources to the public purposes of higher education, and over the last decade the understanding and practice of community-engaged scholarship has expanded. Practices of community-based participatory research and community-engaged teaching and learning have emerged in ways that are as intentional about community outcomes as they are about scholarly and student learning outcomes. According to Darrah and Smith *(2010)*, the movement from project-based to partnership-based work with communities is the future direction of this type of scholarship *(p. 140)*, and many have come to regard the role that partners and students play in the cogeneration of knowledge and solutions as being as important to the successful outcomes of collaborations as the role of faculty members. *Rebuilding Community After Katrina: Transformative Education in the New Orleans Planning Initiative*, edited by Ken Reardon and John Forester, tells the story of how three higher education institutions, community partners, and residents worked collectively to develop a plan for rebuilding and renewal in New Orleans after Hurricane Katrina.

The book is divided into four parts that span from the invitation to partner through reflections on the process, learning, and partnering. The editors create a space for the story to be told from various perspectives, including those of students, residents, community partners, and faculty members from three different institutions. The discussion of each perspective offers different learnings and reflections. The authors and editors address the role of higher education partners in working with communities of which they are not members. They also address the added dimension of working with communities that are in crisis and require both immediate and long-term solutions. The partnerships, as described from varying viewpoints in this book, effectively address such key elements of service-learning partnerships as being attentive to the community

partner's mission and vision, understanding the human dimension of the community partner's work, being mindful of the community partner's resources, accepting and sharing responsibility for inefficiencies, considering the legacy of the partnership, and regarding process as important *(Tinkler, Tinkler, Hausman, & Tufo Strauss, 2014)*.

Scholars may glean from this collection of writings the complexity of multiple disciplines, institutions, partners, and residents converging in a shared space to work collectively to solve problems in a time of crisis. Readers will learn that partnerships may change significantly once under way, in aspects ranging from who is involved to how issues of trust and contradictory approaches are negotiated. For example, during the time of the collective work at the core of this volume, the major community partner organization that had invited the university partners in the first place was dissolved. The dissolution came as a result of the organization's work on an unrelated project, but that change in partner involvement had the potential to derail the entire effort.

The volume makes effective use of the executive summary of *The People's Plan for Overcoming the Hurricane Katrina Blues: A Comprehensive Strategy for Building a More Vibrant, Sustainable, and Equitable Ninth Ward*, and *Photodocumentary of Returning Ninth Ward Residents* by Brian Rosa, assistant professor of urban studies at Queens College, City University of New York. Both are products of the partnership work and excellent demonstrations of the countless hours of interviews, surveys, community service, public meetings, and community-building effort of this partnership.

The book confirms some of the best partnership practices and reveals some new insights. It addresses how community organizers and community planners use different processes and approaches to solve the same problems, and how both are necessary for community success and vitality. It also underscores the importance of planning, knowing the history of a community, understanding the existing relationships and politics, and the requirement of addressing issues of inclusion and institutional racism. Newer insights and reflections featured in the book include presenting students as full members of partnerships and not merely free labor for community organizations. Additionally, the book emphasizes that faculty need to be active in the field in order to experience what partners and students are experiencing and to embrace the teachable moments afforded by those experiences.

Reardon and Forester and the chapter authors do an excellent job describing the work of this partnership by detailing the evolution of the partners, the engagement with residents, the products created by the partnership, and the multidimensional reflections offered by faculty, students, community partners, and residents. In the afterword, authors Hayes and Rumbach note that they are not able to offer a singular method for simplifying the challenges of university–community engagement. Nonetheless, the goal of the contributors, to offer "critically constructive reflections" on their partnership work in the hope of informing themselves and others about the opportunities and challenges of future partnership work, was effectively met.

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About the Reviewer

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Nickols, S. Y., & Kay, G. (Eds.). (2015). *Remaking home economics: Resourcefulness and innovation in changing times.* Athens, GA: University of Georgia Press. 288 pp.

Review by Ann Vail

As a lover of history and a student of the home economics profession, I anxiously awaited the publication of this book. At a time when numerous institutions that are part of or related to home economics are celebrating significant anniversaries of the Morrill Act, the establishment of the 1890s land-grant institutions, and the Cooperative Extension Service, the contributors to this volume continue the exploration of the historical and contemporary aspects of the profession of home economics. Although the profession has often been "misunderstood, trivialized, and under resourced," as editors Nickols and Kay observe, "home economics has been addressing the persistent problems of daily life for more than a century" *(p. 3)*. They and the chapter authors offer this book "to foster dialogue across disciplines in higher education and to facilitate discussion with a broader audience about the role of home economics in addressing the problems of everyday life" *(p. 3)*.

The editors organized the book around four themes:

- home economics philosophy, social responsibility, and outreach to the public;
- food and clothing;
- gender and race in career experiences and preparation; and
- responses to challenges of identity and continuity of the field.

Home Economics Philosophy, Social Responsibility, and Outreach

The volume's opening section provides an overview of the origin of the field and of a comprehensive system for the delivery of home economics–based knowledge. In "Knowledge, Mission, Practice: The Enduring Legacy of Home Economics" (Chapter 1), the authors explore three elements that have been constant across home economics from its beginning to the present day. They begin with a brief history and connect it to the evolution of knowledge, mission, and practice. Chapter 2, "Extending Knowledge, Changing Lives: Cooperative Extension Family and Consumer Sciences,"

traces the presence and role of home economics in government specifically through the Cooperative Extension Service, which has connections to federal, state, and local governments. The authors connect the people to the people's universities in this chapter. Next, Rima Apple explores "Home Economics in the Twentieth Century: A Case of Lost Identity" (Chapter 3). She argues that over the last century home economics has lost its one essential characteristic—social justice—and suggests that "an analysis of the field's transformation can point the way toward redefinition and revitalization" *(p. 54)*.

Food and Clothing

Collectively, the chapters of this section acknowledge that food and clothing occupy much of the popular culture's conversation around home economics, but assert that the real focus is "understanding and enabling individuals and families to meet these basic needs" *(p. 71)*. In "Our Own Food: From Canning Clubs to Community Gardens" (Chapter 4), the authors provide a description of the social, economic, and environmental context for Cooperative Extension and the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) contributions to family food security through gardening and food preservation over the last two centuries. "Weighing in About Weight: Advisory Power in the Bureau of Home Economics" (Chapter 5) offers an early look into the public's obsession with weight and the reluctance of home economists to directly address the issue. It provides an example of an active public pressuring professional home economists to respond to their needs and interests related to weight. On the other end of the spectrum, in "From the War on Hunger to the Fight Against Obesity" (Chapter 6), Lewis, Laing, and Foss document the shift from "efforts to alleviate micronutrient deficiencies and malnutrition . . . [to] actions targeted at obesity and chronic disease management" *(p. 109)*. They describe home economists' involvement in a public health approach to food security and the interrelationship between hunger and obesity.

"Home Economists and Women's Dress" (Chapter 7) traces USDA efforts to affect the ways women and children dressed and the department's role in making dress more democratic, as opposed to the European focus on dress and haute couture. Fast forward to today and "New Patterns for Women's Clothing: Consumption versus Sustainability" (Chapter 8) considers issues related to clothing consumption in today's environment, including environ-

mental, economic, and social costs. The author proposes roles for home economists in creating a sustainable future.

Race and Gender in Home Economics Careers

This section explores the intersections of institutional settings, employment, race, and gender as they relate to home economics. "It Was a Special Time: African American Deans of Family and Consumer Sciences in Predominantly White, Comprehensive Universities, 1987–2004" (Chapter 9) examines the opportunities, achievements, and challenges of three African American home economics deans, the first at White, comprehensive institutions. "'Cookin' With Gas': Home Economists in the Atlanta Natural Gas Industry, 1950–1995" (Chapter 10) explores the work of home economists in a corporate culture and their role as liaisons with consumers and communities. The authors also discuss gender segregation in the workplace. Gender segregation is also a theme in Chapter 11, "Science Matters: Home Economics and STEM Fields of Study." In this chapter, author Meszaros reviews the beginning of women's role in science by tracing Ellen Swallow Richard's growth and development as a scientist, which ultimately led to her leadership as a founder of the profession of home economics. The chapter ends with a description of a National Science Foundation project focused on opening STEM careers and pathways to girls and women and a role for home economics professionals.

Home Economics Identity and Continuity

The final section of the book responds to two thorny issues faced by the profession. The first of these is its name, which the field has struggled with from its inception. "Changing Names, Keeping Identity" (Chapter 12) traces events of the last 60 years, which have led to the most recent name change for several academic units and professional organizations and the resulting mission, vision, and scope of the profession. The author, Kay, includes a discussion of the tension between practitioners and higher education faculty and administrators, which remains unaddressed and unresolved. "Building a Legacy in Stone" (Chapter 13) describes the early history of the College of Human Ecology at Kansas State University. It concludes with a description of the threat posed by reorganization and elimination of home economics in the 1990s and the successful response by alumni, students, faculty, and staff to prevent its dissolution at Kansas State.

Remaking Home Economics: Resourcefulness and Innovation in Changing Times concludes with "Looking Around, Thinking Ahead" (Chapter 14). In it, Nickols, Kay, and Collier suggest that current professionals reflect on the chapters in this book, look around, and think ahead to *remake home economics* for the future. They suggest that "home economics is a renewable resource for addressing the well-being of individuals, families, and communities" *(p. 248)*. By thinking ahead, current professionals position the profession for another generation of home economists.

The importance of telling and knowing our history cannot be overestimated, but just as important to telling and knowing is the continuous critical examination of our history and use of new insights and interpretations to inform our actions today and in the future. Nickols and Kay contribute to the profession's ongoing critical analysis of itself with an eye on the future. Their efforts also preserved some of the essential stories that contributed to who we are as a profession and who we are as a collection of professionals. The importance of this was brought home to me through an activity I have conducted for the last 6 years in the School of Human Environmental Sciences at the University of Kentucky.

During each of the last 6 years, I have led a common reading experience among family and consumer sciences faculty, staff, and extension professionals. During 2015–2016, I used *Remaking Home Economics: Resourcefulness and Innovation in Changing Times* as the book for our common reading experience. I also invited members of the Kentucky Association of Family and Consumer Sciences to join us. The rich discussion of our history and the sharing of participants' personal stories related to home economics provided valuable opportunities for each of us to examine our personal and collective history in the profession. Since the group was composed of active and retired professionals, we shared an exchange of interesting perspectives around relevance and public image.

For me as a reviewer, two unresolved issues emerged. First, I believe language matters. The selection of words and meanings of those words are critical to understanding the authors' intent and critical to understanding the meaning the reader brings to the experience. Throughout my reading experience, I wished the authors had described the meaning of "remaking" home economics. *Why remaking? What did remaking mean that other words would not have meant?* An unpacking of remaking would have been insightful to the reader. An analysis of how each chapter contributed to "remaking" home economics was only mentioned in passing if at all. Both would have contributed to the reading experience.

The second issue, however, was acknowledged by the authors in the last chapter. The telling and knowing of the history of the home economics profession is often limited to predominantly White land-grant institutions, 1890s historically Black institutions, and White and African American professionals in eastern, Midwestern, and southern programs. Moxley provided the only mention of the western movement of home economics. Nickols, Kay, and Collier introduced us to Willie Lee Glass and Fabiola Cabeza de Baca Gilbert, two western, minority home economists who made significant contributions to the profession in their part of the United States. All of us can contribute to bringing forward the unknown individuals who made substantive contributions to the profession of home economics.

I nonetheless express my thanks and appreciation to Nickols and Kay and the 18 chapter authors who have created a written record of valuable leaders and events in the history of home economics. Their stories, insights, and thought-provoking questions will enable all readers to be better informed, but specifically, all home economists to be better in the practice of their chosen profession.

About the Reviewer

Ann Vail is professor and director of the School of Human Environmental Sciences at the University of Kentucky. For the past year, she has also served as the interim dean of the College of Social Work. Her research interests focus on teacher leadership and program evaluation. Her Ph.D. is from The Ohio State University in family and consumer sciences education.