Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement

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Reflective Essays

Susan Appe, Nadia Rubaii, Sebastian Líppez-De Castro, and Stephen Capobianco
Binghamton University

Engagement is widely recognized by higher education institutions, nation-states, and international organizations as the third pillar in the mission of university education. Despite the global reach of this concept, published research is disproportionately based on examples from the United States. This article brings to light the rich and extensive literature on university engagement from Latin America that is largely accessible only in Spanish. Among advocates for engaged universities differences exist in terms of the rationales that justify it and the means used to accomplish it. The authors identify the historical roots and current applications of three models of university engagement—market-oriented, social justice, and university social responsibility—and use case studies from Latin America to explore more deeply the potential of the third model. This is then used as the basis for developing a research agenda that would inform practices in both the Global North and Global South.

Amanda Marie Bowers
University of Louisville

University–community (U-C) partnerships have the potential to respond to society's most pressing needs through engaged scholarship. Despite this promise, partnerships face paradoxical tensions and inherent contradictions that are often not fully addressed in U-C partnership models or frameworks, or in practice. This article seeks to explore the root causes of tensions from a historical and structural perspective, reexamining traditional models of U-C partnership collaborations. Organizational ideas of paradox and strategic contradiction are then presented as a new lens through which to see

and influence collaborative work. A framework for modifying current U-C partnership models is introduced, along with a discussion of limitations and implications for research and practice.

Restructuring changes in higher education may be affecting how faculty conduct the scholarship of engagement. As faculty increasingly face uncertain futures, the limits of service-learning need to be better understood in order to maximize the pedagogical possibilities. One way of exploring limitations is to focus on sustainable faculty-community collaborative relationships since sustainability recognizes both constraint and possibility. This article presents a Curricula-as-Research Model as a risk-reduction strategy for faculty involved in Scholarship of Engagement. According to the model, the sustainability of research collaborations can be strengthened if a multicourse collaborative project is integrated into course sequencing. The model is developed with an autoethnographic prestudy of a service-learning collaboration between Indiana University, Purdue University Fort Wayne and Blackford County Concerned Citizens in Indiana (Fall 2014 -Spring 2016). Prestudy findings indicate that curricular content may be a factor influencing the evolution and community impact of collaborative relationships between the university and the community.

The impact of university–community partnerships and involvement in engaged scholarship on student learning was examined through in-depth interviews with undergraduate members of a student-led, community-based research organization at a selective mid-Atlantic university. Students reported benefits of participation that included increasing critical thinking skills, changing perspectives, and practicing facilitation and decision-making skills. Students also reported experiences of enhancing learning by developing a deeper understanding and ownership of the project. Findings suggest the need for a deeper look at how students are interacting with communities and how that interaction can lead to enhanced learning outcomes.

This research involved the conduct of a conceptual review of 28 refereed journal articles and a survey of campus centers for community engagement staff to identify salient features and trends of existing faculty development programming designed to advance service-learning and community engagement in higher education. Results of this investigation are presented and discussed. The article begins with an overview of theoretical frameworks and competency-based approaches for faculty development. The narrative concludes with additional questions and suggestions for future research and practice.

This article describes an early-stage collaborative partnership between a local community foundation and a regional campus of a major university to increase dialogue on the strategic importance and practical execution of advanced social media best practices for small- to medium-sized businesses. Started through a grant won by the author, an interactive program was established as The Knowledge Café. This program includes a series of participative lectures and discussions on advanced social media applications, guest speakers addressing relevant topics, and a community-driven wiki where participants can share their expertise. The origination of the partnership and the evolutionary pathway traveled to date are described, along with data and key learnings generated during the first 2 years of operation. Possibilities for future changes in structure and activities to expand the offerings of The Knowledge Café provide an indication of how the campus–community partnership should continue to grow with time.

Roslynn Brain and Kate Stephens
Utah State University

Does participating in an integrated service-learning project aimed at improving local sustainability issues result in significant professional real-world application for students? This study aimed to answer that question by evaluating student reactions to pilot classes featuring a sustainability-based service-learning program, Community Bridge Initiative (CBI), in comparison to traditional university courses. A survey (response rate = 86%) was administered to students enrolled in four different CBI pilot classes (n = 109) within two different disciplines, natural resources and sociology. Results revealed that of all students responding, 92% reported a positive impact from the CBI class, 88% would take a CBI course again, and 73% felt that the CBI course was more effective in communicating course content in comparison to traditional Utah State University courses. This article reveals additional student perspectives and potential benefits from implementing the CBI program in a university setting.

Book Reviews

REFLECTIVE ESSAYS

From the Editor . . .

Moving on from a "Third Mission"

Ready for good substantive summer reading? Authors in this issue have taken on heady topics—dueling perspectives on the purpose of engagement, paradoxical tensions and contradictions in community–university partnership that influence collaborations, and other critical concerns. Higher education strategy sessions often see engagement for economic development and engagement for social justice purposes pitted against each other. In other discussions, engagement is relegated to and described as a "third mission" of higher education. In "The Concept and Context of the Engaged University in the Global South: Lessons from Latin America to Guide a Research Agenda," Susan Appe, Nadia Rubaii, Sebastian Líppez-De Castro, and Stephen Capobianco constructively address both of these prevailing challenges by taking a global perspective and offering us the university social responsibility or *responsabilidad social universitaria* (RSU) model of university engagement. This model brings together elements of the market-oriented and social justice approaches, then adopts an expanded scope to address all aspects of university management. Instead of positioning economic development and social equity as competing goals, as the market-oriented and social justice models suggest, RSU pursues these goals simultaneously. What a contribution! There has been limited academic scholarship written in English about this model of university engagement, which is gaining a foothold across Latin America. The model described by the authors and illustrated through the case studies of Chilean and Jesuit university networks provides an alternative worthy of additional study. The two case studies demonstrate (a) the power of a network approach to promoting engagement and (b) the potential for the RSU model to be adapted to the needs of a particular country or type of university. The authors tidily sum up their case: "If universities have been hesitant to choose a model of engagement that emphasizes their contributions to economic development, innovation, and entrepreneurship (the hallmarks of a market-oriented model of community engagement) or a model that promotes activism, social equity, and empowerment of the disenfranchised (per the social justice model), RSU may offer a good alternative" *(p. 30)*.

The growing participation in the field of engaged scholarship continues to yield literature that explores greater depths, recognizes (and offers solutions for) persistent problems, and provides a dif-

ferent set of insights into the challenges and benefits of producing a sustainable model of engagement, as three articles in this issue do. Drawing extensively on engaged scholarship and organizational theory literatures and analyzing existing community–university partnership models, Amanda Bowers, from the University of Louisville, argues for integrating an additional element to better address the inherent conflicts and tensions. That additional element is *employing paradox*, which she develops into a four-component framework that offers a "means toward realizing the goal of sustainable models of collaboration that account for competing and mutable organizational structures and priorities" *(p. 50)*. That is, sustained, reciprocal community–university partnerships can be achieved through "embracing rather than avoiding contradictions," *(p. 55)* and Bowers offers a model that shows us how.

Sherrie Steiner, a professor of sociology at Indiana University Purdue University Fort Wayne, addresses the sustainability of collaborative relationships by presenting a curricula-as-research model, which offers a risk-reduction strategy for faculty involved in community-engaged scholarship. In "Undergraduate Learning Through Engaged Scholarship and University–Community Partnerships," Kristen Tarantino, from William and Mary, highlights a project and organization that moved beyond student volunteer service or service-learning opportunities and brought together the spectrum of engaged scholarship in a single community-based research endeavor. Both these articles provide evaluated examples of programs that transcend a semester or even several semesters to achieve authentically engaged research and learning outcomes.

Faculty development would seem necessary and appropriate to undergird advancement of robust community engagement, but what do we know about its content, formats, duration, or impact assessment? Marshall Welch and Star Plaxton-Moore explore this fundamental but underresearched topic through a conceptual review of the literature and a survey of Carnegie-classified community-engaged institutions.

This issue offers two Projects with Promise. Writing from the Middletown Regional Campus at Miami of Ohio, Susan Baim, a professor of commerce, describes the evolution, execution, and evaluation of The Knowledge Café, a partnership between a community foundation and a regional campus to advance social media practices for small to medium-sized business. Julie Koldewyn, Roslynn Brain, and Kate Stephens present a thorough evaluation of the pilot classes in Utah State University's integrated service-learning project, its Community Bridge Initiative, which is aimed at

improving local environmental sustainability issues. Although not the first instance of service-learning at Utah State, the Community Bridge Initiative was designed to offer a formal and targeted connection between the university and the city of Logan, Utah.

The three books reviewed in this issue take three very different approaches to engagement as a strategy for social and civic justice. Gasman's book *Academics Going Public*, reviewed by Kristina Killgrove at the University of West Florida, provides guidance for communicating with the public using traditional and virtual media. The advice in this edited volume ranges from "Don't feed the trolls" to cultivating the acceptability of publication in popular media.

Frank A. Fear, professor emeritus of Michigan State University, focuses on Novella Zett Keith's *Engaging in Social Partnerships* as not just another book about partnerships but a "book about higher education engagement with a defining theme of *democratic practices that advance the public good*" *(p. 223)*. Addressing related themes, Keith herself, an emerita professor at Temple University, examines *Educating for Civic-Mindedness*, Carolin Kreber's conceptual work that seeks to deepen our thinking on what civic-mindedness means and the importance of the civic-minded professional in higher education. Fear and Keith use detailed examination of the works they review to comment on the current state of higher education and engagement, as well as indicating what the respective works offer to the reader and to the field.

We at JHEOE sincerely appreciate the authors, the peer reviewers, the associate editors, and the editorial management team for bringing this issue to fruition. It serves as a rich resource to heighten our conceptual and theoretical understandings, as well as our evidence-based leadership and practices, as community engagement and community-engaged scholarship encompass and then move beyond higher education's Third Mission.

With best regards,
Lorilee R. Sandmann
Coeditor

The Concept and Context of the Engaged University in the Global South: Lessons from Latin America to Guide a Research Agenda

Susan Appe, Nadia Rubaii, Sebastian Líppez-De Castro, Stephen Capobianco

Abstract

Engagement is widely recognized by higher education institutions, nation-states, and international organizations as the third pillar in the mission of university education. Despite the global reach of this concept, published research is disproportionately based on examples from the United States. This article brings to light the rich and extensive literature on university engagement from Latin America that is largely accessible only in Spanish. Among advocates for engaged universities differences exist in terms of the rationales that justify it and the means used to accomplish it. The authors identify the historical roots and current applications of three models of university engagement—market-oriented, social justice, and university social responsibility—and use case studies from Latin America to explore more deeply the potential of the third model. This is then used as the basis for developing a research agenda that would inform practices in both the Global North and Global South.

Keywords: Third mission, engaged university, Latin America, university social responsibility, *responsabilidad social universitaria*

Introduction

*T*he last decades have witnessed national and international efforts to raise awareness regarding the importance of university engagement and to call on universities to be more committed to advancing various forms of outreach. At the international level a consensus seems to exist that public or community service is, or should be, one of the core functions of the university, a third mission alongside the traditional teaching and research missions *(Laredo, 2007)*. Declarations of intent, reports of high level commissions, and public policies in multiple latitudes express similar sentiments. Perhaps most notable among these is the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Declaration of 1998 in which social responsibility of universities was recognized as one of their main purposes, and universities worldwide were exhorted to provide relevant educa-

tion, to educate citizens in democratic values, to conduct pertinent research that might contribute to the development of society, and to engage faculty and students in their communities *(Gaete Quezada, 2014; Núñez, Salom, Rosales, & Paz, 2012)*.

Although the statements in support of engaged universities occur at a global level, the published scholarship is disproportionately focused on universities in the United States and to a lesser extent the United Kingdom, with occasional country case studies from other parts of the world. In this manner, the research perpetuates the image of the Global North (encompassing Europe, North America, and other developed economies) as a provider of resources, knowledge, and expertise to counterparts in the Global South (including the majority of countries in Africa, Asia, and Latin America). The premise of this article is that, with respect to university engagement, the Global North could benefit from a look to the South, in particular a look to Latin America.

In part due to their history and context in terms of poverty and social inequities, countries from the Global South have been very creative in how universities contribute to their communities, and "northern institutions of higher education have a great deal to learn from the committed and innovative civic engagement of sister institutions in the global south" *(Reid, 2013, p. 35)*. In the case of Latin America, universities have a long tradition of community outreach and engagement; their commitment to advancing the social function of the university spans nearly a century.

Despite the rich tradition of university engagement in Latin America, little is known in the English-speaking world about the practices, successes, and challenges in the region because of both the language barrier *(Tessler, 2013)* and the barriers that low- and middle-income countries face in bringing university research and education into the social and public spheres *(Thorn & Soo, 2006)*. In the context of Latin America, "[w]hat remains a challenge . . . is that the richness of Latin American activist intellectual experience is largely invisible to a world that operates mostly in English" *(Gutberlet, Tremblay, & Moraes, 2014, p. 179)*. Higher education community outreach practices exist in Latin America and include a multitude of tools and methods such as "popular education, participatory research, theater of the oppressed, participatory video, feminist research, [and] indigenous-centered research" *(Gutberlet et al., 2014, p. 179)*. Therefore, analyzing the community outreach and engagement experiences and perspectives from Latin American universities and scholars could bring important contributions to the active worldwide movement, study, and debate around this topic.

This article is organized in four parts. In the first part we further describe the worldwide movement toward advancing the third mission with highlights from the United States, outside the United States, and Latin America in particular. In the second part we compare and contrast three models of university engagement, two of which are common to the discourse in multiple contexts, and one of which is not as prevalent in U.S. practices or in the English-language published scholarship. Focusing on this third model, the third section of the article presents two case studies illustrating how networks of universities in Latin America have applied the model. In the fourth and final part of the article we reflect on the lessons learned from the review of literature and the two case studies and posit a series of research questions that flow from this research and can guide a research agenda.

Worldwide Agreement and Commitment on the University Third Mission

Scholars, universities, and even governments worldwide have concurred in recognizing public or community service as the university's third mission. Challenges remain, however, in the form of tensions between the third mission and the conventional notions of the research and teaching missions *(Keyman, 2014; Laredo, 2007)*, the failure of most institutions to incorporate engagement into promotion or tenure criteria *(Sobrero & Jayaratne, 2014)*, and the multitude of universities that *claim* an engagement mission, but whose actions suggest only superficial commitment *(Keyman, 2014)*. Even while acknowledging these challenges and recognizing that teaching and research remain pillars of university missions, the potential role of the university in the economic, social, and political fabric of the community is increasingly accepted. Indeed, Benneworth and Sanderson *(2009)* indicate that "the notion of university/community engagement is now uncontroversial, as it is embodied in the rise of the 'third' (engagement) mission for universities" *(p. 133)*.

University Engagement in the United States

In the case of the United States, engagement has its roots in the land-grant universities established in the 19th century. These institutions utilized, and to some extent continue utilizing, the extension model to apply research in agriculture and other fields to advance regional development; they are considered an impor-

tant precedent for university–community engagement *(Drabenstott, 2008; Goddard & Puukka, 2008)*. Only land-grant institutions in the United States are required by government to participate in community engagement and development as a result of the Morrill Act of 1862 *(Thomson, Smith-Tolken, Naidoo, & Bringle, 2010)*. Land-grant universities emphasized teaching, research, and community outreach and extension programs, and this charge has spilled over into other types of universities. To encourage the spillover, numerous voices continue advocating for expanding the engagement of higher education institutions. In 1999, the Kellogg Commission stressed the importance of engagement while also recommending changes in other university functions to better respond to community needs *(D'Agostino, 2008)*. In 2000, representatives from 500 higher education institutions signed the Presidents' Declaration on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education *(Reid, 2013)*, and in 2012 the American Association of Colleges and Universities continued these efforts by launching a national call to action recommending the use of engaged pedagogies to encourage civic engagement *(Trudeau & Kruse, 2014)*.

The Carnegie Classification framework has also contributed to advancing the third mission in the United States. Although perhaps most widely known for its differentiation of universities on the basis of the level of research activity, highest degrees offered, size of the institution, or any special foci of the institution *(http://carnegieclassifications.iu.edu/)*, a more recent addition to the Carnegie classification scheme is an elective community engagement classification. As of 2016, some 361 institutions had earned the classification by demonstrating "collaboration between institutions of higher education and their larger communities for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity" *(Carnegie Foundation, 2015, para. 1)*. Universities are evaluated on their (1) institutional identity and culture, (2) institutional commitment, (3) curricular engagement, and (4) outreach and partnerships. Each of these four dimensions requires extensive documentation to demonstrate engagement. For example, in the area of institutional commitment, universities are asked to describe how their organizational structure, investment of resources, fund-raising practices, internal policies, data collection, and rewards systems support community engagement, and to assess the impact of community engagement on faculty, students, the community, and the institution. Although no predictive variable exists to help understand which institutions of higher education apply for and receive this classification *(Pearl, 2014)*, and a wide

variety of strategies are used by these institutions *(Noel & Earwicker, 2015)*, a holistic approach to engagement underpins their various methods *(Liang & Sandmann, 2015)*.

University Engagement in Other Parts of the World

A similar movement for an engaged university has taken place in other countries and regions of the world. In Australia, for example, the creation of the Australian Universities Community Engagement Alliance (AUCEA) in 2003 represents an initiative that has advanced creating a framework for benchmarking university–community engagement *(Garlick & Langworthy, 2008)*. In Japan, recent reforms in higher education policies exhorted universities to be more engaged *(Kitagawa & Oba, 2010)*. A survey conducted in 2006 highlighted that at least half of university presidents in Japan say their institutions act as "community based education centers;" around 80% identify such a function as the main one in their future and point to it, along with service to society, as the most important university functions *(Kitagawa & Oba, 2010, p. 512)*.

Similar initiatives from universities and networks of universities in the United Kingdom, Russia, Asia, and the Middle East have led to signed agreements, as part of a global movement that calls for universities to be engaged in and contribute to the world, the country, and the communities in which they are located *(Reid, 2013)*. The 2005 *Talloires Declaration on the Civic Roles and Social Responsibilities of Higher Education* serves as a milestone in the commitment of universities with community engagement which, as of 2013, included a network of 300 universities from 71 countries *(Reid, 2013)*. In response to a recognized absence of clear criteria by which to evaluate the engagement mission, Hart and Northmore *(2011)* drew upon the experiences of the University of Brighton in the United Kingdom to establish a series of detailed examples of engagement corresponding to seven dimensions: (1) public access to facilities, (2) public access to knowledge, (3) student engagement, (4) faculty engagement, (5) widening participation and diversity, (6) encouraging economic regeneration and enterprise in social engagement, and (7) institutional relationship and partnership building.

University Engagement in Latin America

In the case of Latin America, the social function of the university dates back to the initial founding of university-level edu-

cation and the Córdoba Reform of 1918 *(Bustos & Inciarte, 2012; Tunnermann, 1998)*. The Córdoba Reform was inspired by an Americanist sentiment that called for a "new university," which was defined by its social function and its concern for national issues, as well as by several other principles such as free teaching, universal and free higher education, and university autonomy *(Tunnermann, 1998)*. This reform movement of Latin American students began in Córdoba, Argentina, and then spread throughout the region. It was followed by other salient efforts, such as the first Congress of Latin American universities in 1949, the first Latin American Conference on University Extension and Cultural Diffusion in 1950, and the second conference of this type in 1972. In each of these forums, the third mission of universities was defined in terms of the universities' relations with other social units and their contributions to societal transformations *(Bustos & Inciarte, 2012; Tunnermann, 1998)*. More recently, we see evidence of the continued importance of engaged universities in Latin America manifesting in one of three approaches: market-oriented, social justice, and social responsibility. They represent different notions about the rationale for engagement, the nature of university–community relationships, and how impact is interpreted and implemented.

Approaches to the Engaged University in Latin America

The notion of a university dedicated to community engagement, outreach, and development stands in stark contrast to the image of a university as an ivory tower separated from and often looking down upon the community in which it is located. The elitist ivory tower position is one that universities can no longer afford to take, because if they are not engaging in public problem-solving, they are at risk of becoming "socially irrelevant" *(Ostrander, 2004, p. 76)*. Higher education leaders in Latin America have acknowledged and spoken out about this developing role in the region. As one Argentinian higher education leader explained, "Now is the time to say (to university and college leaders), 'You are not serious enough if you are not involving your students in reality and building relevant skills. You are not serious enough if the knowledge you are producing is not relevant to pressing problems'" *(María Nieves Tapia, director of the Latin American Center for Service-Learning, in Hoyt, 2014)*.

There is a long and noteworthy tradition of public intellectualism in Latin America dating back to the 19th and 20th centuries. As part of a democratizing trend, the philosopher-like notion of *letrados* or "men of letters" of the previous centuries gave way to a

model of public intellectuals in which the *intelectual de transición* or intellectual of transition contributed to the renovation of public universities, transformation of urban centers, and secularization of culture *(Granados, 2015; Monsiváis, 2007)*. The tradition of public intellectuals has continued into the 21st century with writers such as Mario Vargas Llosa, who ran for the presidency of Peru and won the Nobel Prize for Literature in 2010. Public intellectuals in Latin America have been on all sides of political and social issues, representing a wide range of ideas and stances *(Monsiváis, 2007; Prado, 2012)*. It is commonplace in Latin America for leading scholars from a variety of disciplines, including economics, education, law, medicine, policy, political science, public administration, and others, to write weekly columns in national newspapers or newsmagazines to bring their scholarly expertise to a forum and format targeted at the general readership audience.

Among advocates for engaged universities it is possible to identify differences in terms of both the rationales that justify engagement and the means used to accomplish it. A market-oriented approach to university engagement with an economic focus is coupled with "regional development," whereas a perspective inspired in social justice commitment could be paired with the set of strategies called "engaged pedagogies." A third model labeled university social responsibility (*responsabilidad social universitaria*, or RSU for its initials in Spanish) brings together elements of the two other models with a quintessentially Latin American concept of solidarity. RSU would likely strive to achieve both the economic and social aims concurrently. An overview of key distinguishing characteristics of the three models and their application in Latin America is presented in Table 1, and then each is discussed in turn. The order in which the three models are presented reflects a movement from most universal (i.e., U.S.-centric) to most uniquely Latin American models.

The market-oriented model is based on free-market capitalism and has been adopted in some Latin American countries as part of broader pressures for neoliberal reforms. The social justice model has elements that originated in Latin America and retain relevance there, but have also been exported to other parts of the world, including the United States. The university social responsibility model, particularly as it has been applied through networks of universities, represents a distinctly Latin American contribution to our understanding of engaged universities in that it offers a different model in both its objectives and its implementation.

Table 1. Three Models of University Engagement in Latin America

	Market-Oriented	Social Justice	University Social Responsibility (RSU)
Philosophical roots	Free-market capitalism	Social justice, activism, solidarity	Sustainability, ethical model management
Core values	Economic development, entrepreneurship, innovation	Increased social equity, giving voice to the disenfranchised, promoting participation as equals	Solidarity; sustainable development; ethics; balance of social, economic, and environmental interests
Key partners	Private sector businesses	Students, community members	Private sector businesses, students; university and community members
Forms of engagement	Patented research innovations, entrepreneurial activities, copyrighted teaching materials, business incubators, technology parks, innovation bridges	Pedagogy of the oppressed, community-based research (CBR), participatory action research (PAR)	Research, teaching, extension, and managerial organization linked to social change, environmentally friendly policies, and socially responsible economic growth
University roles	Scholars and teachers as experts who produce products and services for sale; student volunteers, alumni as employees and entrepreneurs	Teachers and scholars facilitating empowerment and activism among students and community members	The entire institution—scholars, teachers, students, and administrators—engaged in promoting solidarity and sustainable social and economic practices
Indicators of successful engagement	Student competencies for the workplace, regional economic growth	Empowerment of students and community members, social change	Collaborative efforts to address recognized social problems in the country or region, organizational climate and culture
Path to/from Latin America	Model adapted from Global North (U.S.) to Global South (Latin America)	Ideas from Latin American scholars and activists adapted to U.S. contexts	Roots in Latin America, not yet evident in the Global North
Implemetation mechanisms	Neoliberal pressures from international lending organizations, accreditation standards	University-level or individual faculty-level commitment to social justice	Networks of universities within a country or across the region

A Market-Oriented Model of University Engagement

A market-oriented approach to university engagement emphasizes the potential economic and development advantages derived from university collaborations with private partners. This model is by no means unique to Latin America. In Australia, for example, the policy debate on the third mission focuses on an opportunity for finding a third stream of funding *(Garlick & Langworthy, 2008)*. The common denominator across the literature aiming to encourage university–community partnerships for regional development is a demand for more sustainable and closer relationships between universities and their regional partners by encouraging coordination and colearning, or by creating innovation bridges or other similar formulas *(Benneworth & Sanderson, 2009; Drabenstott, 2008; Goddard & Puukka, 2008; McGuinness, 2008)*. The assumption is that universities could help in knowledge creation and economic innovation through faculty research. Technology parks, business incubators, and similar strategies are always present in these initiatives for regional development, as are demands for more appropriate structures of higher education institutions intended to facilitate the creation and maintenance of partnerships *(McGuinness, 2008)*.

The underlying premise of the market-oriented model is that universities and the business community would realize economic benefits through collaboration and that these benefits would indirectly benefit the broader community. This approach can be seen in the policies and practices of many Latin American countries and universities. Under this approach, the third mission of the university involves "knowledge transfer narrowly defined as licensing and commercialization of research" *(Thorn & Soo, 2006, p. 3)*. This frames the role of the university as contributing to in-country innovation systems. That is, universities under this approach frame their role as not only producing knowledge but also commercializing knowledge to be usable in the marketplace. Evidence shows that this role of the university is well developed in countries that make up the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and is promoted by multinational institutions for low- and middle-income countries *(Thorn & Soo, 2006)*. However, this framework can be problematic in that

> university researchers generally engage in long-term research projects and are expected to push the knowledge frontier forward by making results publicly available. Firms, on the other hand, tend to focus on short-term, specific research activities

and have an interest in concealing new knowledge from potential competitors. *(Thorn & Soo, 2006, p. 6)*

Additionally, some observe that university research is not aligned with regional needs, that often the impact is limited to surrounding areas, that universities and regional development officials should work together to better identify competitive advantages, and that regions should be viewed as innovation markets *(Drabenstott, 2008)*.

Market-based models of university engagement promote policies that enhance the university's profile and its contribution to industry as an indicator of academic quality and thereby directly address a weakness within higher education in low- and middle-income countries, including those in Latin America *(Aedo & Walker, 2012)*. In order to contribute to economic and technological development, advocates suggest that there is a need for institutional instruments to incentivize universities to contribute to innovation systems through competitive government funding; through accreditation, monitoring, and evaluation; and through the widespread application of competency-based learning models *(Thorn & Soo, 2006)*.

Community outreach and engagement within a market-oriented model can help make the university a contributor to both economic and social development in low- and middle-income countries in Latin America, but it also risks positioning higher education as a commodity *(Ostrander, 2004)* and promoting a dangerous form of academic capitalism *(Slaughter & Leslie, 2001; Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004a, 2004b)*. The pressures toward academic capitalism, in which colleges and universities engage in "market and market-like behaviors" *(Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004b, p. 37)*, stem from significant losses in public funding that drive universities

> to generate revenue from their core educational, research and service functions, ranging from the production of knowledge (such as research leading to patents) created by the faculty to the faculty's curriculum and instruction (teaching materials that can be copyrighted and marketed). *(Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004b, p. 37)*

Academic capitalism prioritizes short-term economic gains while fundamentally shifting or even disregarding the other functions of higher education institutions.

Scholars have argued that academic capitalism is intertwined with neoliberalism *(Brackmann, 2015)* and even neoconservatism *(Slaughter & Rhoades, 2004b)*, as it prioritizes revenue generation over core educational activities. These objectives have seeped into the

language of the university with references to university presidents as CEOs and the popularization of the term *educational entrepreneurialism* to represent academic departments and other university units tapping into new markets for revenue *(Kauppinen, 2012)*.

A Social Justice Model of University Engagement

The social justice model of university engagement stands in sharp contrast to the market-oriented approach. Advancing the third mission of the university in a manner inspired by social justice has a long and rich history in Latin America. This model relies on community partnerships oriented toward social transformation, democratization, community empowerment, and advocacy *(Reid, 2013)*. Given the history and context of countries from the Global South in terms of poverty and deep social inequities, practices of engaged universities in the South have had a tone of political and social activism, as well as an option for the poor to be at the center of what universities do in these countries *(Reid, 2013)*.

To promote social justice, scholars in the Global South and particularly in Latin America have adopted an array of engaged pedagogies such as community-based research and service-learning, which allow students and scholars to appropriately work with communities *(Pendras & Dierwechter, 2012)*. Community-based research (CBR) is "collaborative, change-oriented research that engages faculty members, students and community members in projects that address a community-identified need" *(Strand, Marullo, Cutforth, Stoecker, & Donohue, 2003, p. 5)*. It reduces the separation between the researcher and community stakeholders by enabling them to engage in coinquiry and as coresearchers *(Munck, 2014, p. 11)*. CBR not only has the potential to contribute to the production of knowledge but also is intended to benefit communities *(Schaffer, 2012)*. Service-learning (SL) is recognized in the United States context as contributing to the goals of an engaged university by integrating service in community to academic learning *(D'Agostino, 2008)*. SL represents an engaged pedagogy that is instrumental not only in bridging theory and practice, but also in instilling in students a sense of social activism *(Levkoe, Brail, & Daniere, 2014)*.

In addition to the engaged modes of research and teaching from elsewhere adopted by Latin American universities, such as CBR and SL, Latin America has also made its own seminal and unique contributions to the repertoire of strategies for engaged teaching, learning, and research in which the roles of all parties are redefined. Among the most notable strategies for university

engagement in the pursuit of social justice developed in Latin America are Freire's pedagogy of the oppressed and Fals Borda's participatory action research.

Brazilian educator Paulo Freire's *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, published in Portuguese in 1968 and English in 1970, is instrumental in demystifying relationships in the classroom by questioning traditional education strategies that reinforce the status quo and exclusion. These traditional views consider students ignorant and passive while assigning professors the duty of enlightening them. Freire was particularly critical of this traditional approach to teaching, which portrayed the students as empty vessels to be filled with the knowledge imparted by the wise professor. In his model, the agency of students is revalued and elevated. His critical pedagogy applies learning that is active rather than passive and a language of critique rather than silence and acceptance. Freire thus acknowledges the leading role of students in their own education and recognizes students' capacity for agency that perfectly fits with the idea of critical service-learning or community engagement in social transformation *(Bryer, 2014; Peterson, 2009)*.

The core of Freire's argument is that education is not and cannot be a neutral force; it either contributes to change or maintains conformity. His work is grounded in categorization of individuals into oppressors and oppressed, paralleling Hegelian and Marxist notions. According to Freire, the role of education should be to provide a means for the oppressed to challenge their oppression, first through a regained sense of their humanity and then through tools of liberation. In this way, education is a political act in which the approach to educating—the pedagogy—is an integral part of the process. He challenges teachers and students to question the political ideas they bring to the classroom and to take responsibility for questioning and changing the balance of power.

As Freire united engagement and teaching to advance social justice, a similar integration of engagement and research is provided by Colombian sociologist Orlando Fals Borda. In the 1970s and 1980s, Fals Borda's work focused on developing participatory action research (PAR) as a new methodology designed to combine research and theory with political participation. PAR is intended to generate solutions for economic, political, and social problems through a process of articulation and systematization of knowledge by grassroots groups so that they can carry out their own work without having to rely on academic experts *(Fals Borda, 1991)*.

During the 1990s, Fals Borda continued to investigate the role of people in the research process and the importance of having research address issues of social justice. According to Fals Borda, researchers who engage in PAR are not simply utilizing a participatory method; they are joining a movement. Fals Borda's research guides sociologists interested in participatory approaches to grassroots communities, considering them a key component of the process as partners and coresearchers. Furthermore, he encouraged the use of counternarratives with communities to rebuild the history imposed by dominant groups.

Principles of PAR have been adopted and expanded by subsequent scholars, who have highlighted the importance of bidirectional relations *(Bahng, 2015)* and contributions from and benefits to all parties *(Peterson, 2009)* to avoid further marginalizing communities and perpetuating power asymmetries between academia and communities *(Strier & Shechter, 2015)*. Working from the assumption that universities should value communities as much as students and scholars, these authors recommend working toward democratization of knowledge production through community participation in every step of the research process.

In the case of scholarship, PAR serves as a foundation for *Boyer's Scholarship Reconsidered (1990)* which encompasses a scholarship of discovery, scholarship of integration, scholarship of application, and scholarship of teaching; in Boyer's scheme, the role of service is revalued within universities to address social questions *(Bahng, 2015; Koliba, 2007)*. Koliba *(2007)* cautions that revaluing service activities implies reviewing promotion, tenure, and other faculty policies within universities to actually facilitate the engagement of scholars in service-learning and other PAR or service-related activities. Many acknowledge these concerns as an area of continued struggle, but few universities in either the United States or Latin America have made such fundamental changes.

The interconnectedness of the teaching and research functions of an engaged university within a social justice model is evident. Only by recognizing students' capacity for agency is it possible to expect that they can engage in PAR. And only by promoting long-term and equally balanced university–community relationships can real transformations occur *(Bahng, 2015; Rai, 2003)*. Within this model there is a role not only for the students and scholars but for the university as an institution; institutional support for and facilitation of such endeavors reflects a university commitment to engagement *(Pendras & Dierwechter, 2012)*. A challenge for the social justice model is that it is often portrayed as antigrowth or

in conflict with the market-oriented model. Universities thus find themselves having to choose between the two models in developing an engagement strategy.

A University Social Responsibility Approach to University Engagement

A final model reviewed here applies a managerial and organizational perspective and encompasses both of the aforementioned approaches under the label university social responsibility or *responsabilidad social universitaria* (RSU). There has been limited academic scholarship written in English about this model of university engagement, which is gaining a foothold across Latin America.

Most research on RSU, including the works of Bustos and Inciarte *(2012)*; Gaete Quezada *(2014, 2015)*; Núñez et al. *(2012)*; and Núñez Chicharro, Alonso Carrillo, and Pontones Rosa *(2015)*, refers back to a framework for RSU presented by Vallaeys *(2006)*. Vallaeys presents RSU as an ethical model of management designed to guide four dimensions of the university: (1) intraorganizational performance and behavior, (2) the influence of education processes on students' capacity to understand and act in the world, (3) production of knowledge and epistemology, and (4) the social impact on sustainable human development. As a model, RSU extends beyond traditional voluntarism, service-learning, and other community outreach practices to attain a more comprehensive and strategic management level of university engagement *(Vallaeys, 2004, 2006)*.

RSU strives to bring together the strengths of the market and social justice models. It retains a strong component from the market-oriented perspective in terms of prioritizing university relevance in the economy, while also asserting that students and community members should participate as equals within the academic institution to promote social change and research in ways that are reminiscent of Freire and Fals Borda. RSU adds an element of environmental stewardship as an essential organizational practice. RSU recognizes the importance of implementing engaged pedagogies that prepare students to take an active role in democratic processes. At the same time, the model calls on researchers to make contributions in addressing critical social problems related to poverty, corruption, inequity, and environmental degradation.

Because RSU offers an alternative to models traditionally referenced in the academic literature and university practice in the United States, research on the implementation and practices of

community outreach and engagement in Latin American universities through the framework of RSU has the potential to contribute to new understandings of the engaged university. Indeed, the English-language literature has minimal reference to the university social responsibility model; the most similar example appears in Keyman *(2014)*, in which three principles of genuine social responsibility—equal rights, capability, and mutual responsibility—are identified for the UK context. We therefore provide an opportunity to learn from Latin America's experiences with the implementation of RSU. In the following section we present two illustrative case studies of the RSU model in Latin America through networks of universities on a regional and a national scale.

University Social Responsibility in Latin America: Two Illustrative Cases

There is no shortage of case studies within the literature on university engagement. Most cases focus on the policies, practices, and experiences within a single university. In recent years, the subjects have included the Pennsylvania State University *(Franz, 2009)*, University of Georgia *(Garber, Epps, Bishop, & Chapman, 2010)*, University of North Carolina–Chapel Hill *(Blanchard, Strauss, & Webb, 2012)*, Ohio University *(Hamel-Lambert, Millesen, Harter, & Slovak, 2012)*, and University of North Carolina–Charlotte *(Morrell, Sorensen, & Howarth, 2015)* in the United States, and University of Brighton *(Hart & Northmore, 2011)* in the United Kingdom, among others. Our approach to case studies uses a different level of analysis, namely networks of universities.

Networks of universities are established within many contexts and to serve many purposes. They may be organized by geographic region, like the Association of Southeast Asian Nations University Network (ASEAN-UN or simply AUN) or the state university systems in New York (State University of New York or SUNY). They may bring together institutions that share common characteristics: for example, the network of Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) in the United States or the Association of Public and Land-Grant Universities (APLU), which spans the United States and Canada. They may also be dedicated to particular issues; for example, the Utrecht Network promotes best practices in internationalization among universities across Europe. Networks of universities may also emphasize community engagement; one example is the Australian Universities Community Engagement Alliance (AUCEA) referenced earlier. Our focus is on networks of universities specifically dedicated to promoting RSU.

The RSU framework has been well received in universities in Latin America and is being tried in and monitored by several entities within their broader scope of activities. For example, the Association of Colombian Higher Education Institutions has created an observatory of RSU, and a group of higher education institutions providing distance education created an inter-American observatory for RSU as well (Observatorio de Responsabilidad Social de las Universidades a Distancia, or OIRSUD, for its initials in Spanish). Two networks have been developed explicitly for the purpose of advancing the RSU engagement model, and they serve as our case studies. The first case is based on a network of 13 Chilean universities engaged in a process labeled *Universidad Construye País (Gaete Quezada, 2014)*, which began in 2001. The second case represents an even more ambitious regional network of Jesuit universities from across the region that launched an initiative in 2007 to advance *Responsabilidad Social Universitaria (Gragantini & Zaffaroni, 2011)*. These two cases not only represent well-established university networks with an explicit emphasis on RSU, to the best of our knowledge they also represent the population of RSU networks in Latin America and possibly in the world.

The Case of RSU in Chile's Universidad Construye País

The first illustrative case of the use of the RSU framework in Latin America is Chile's Universidad Construye País, which translates as "University Building a Nation." In this instance, a group of Chilean universities participated in a project intended to promote and advance RSU during the period 2001–2008, which has been recognized as an important precedent for engaged universities in that Latin American country.

Universidad Construye País (UCP) was an initiative of Corporation PARTICIPA in partnership with the AVINA group to advance the concept and practice of university social responsibility in Chilean higher education institutions *(Proyecto Universidad Construye País, 2006)*. Initially it was expected to last for 3 years *(Jiménez de la Jara, 2002a)*, but it continued for a period of 7 years. The project not only aimed to reflect, discuss, frame, and disseminate a common idea of RSU across the network of universities, but also was intended to articulate a countrywide project in which universities played a central role.

Originally seven universities were expected to participate in the project, but this number quickly grew; in 2001 the program was

initiated with 11 participants, and the next year a total of 13 universities were involved *(Jiménez de la Jara, De Ferrari, Delpiano, & Ardiles, 2004)*. Some sources suggest that this initiative was finally able to engage as many as 16 Chilean universities *(AUSJAL–Red RSU, 2014)*.

As a form of RSU, the Chilean program urged students and scholars to reflect on Chile's social problems and on the role of universities in overcoming those problems. The underlying philosophy is that universities, at their roots, should dedicate knowledge production and dissemination to solve pressing social problems *(Jiménez de la Jara, 2002a)*. The group of universities who formed the network agreed to assume individual and collective social responsibility to address the country's current problems and toward the need for creating opportunities for everyone, thereby redefining the role of the university. The first years of this initiative were devoted to reflecting on and building a concept of RSU aligned with the views and realities of the university participants, as well as to promoting its importance. The UCP initiative conceptualizes RSU as being grounded in a series of general principles that inform specific university principles and are applied throughout the four critical processes of a university; the principles and processes are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Dimensions of RSU in the Chilean Network Universidad Construye País

General Principles	Specific University Principles	University Processes
• Social responsibility • Individual dignity • Freedom • Citizenship, democracy, and participation • Solidarity and fraternity • Social equity • Environmental protection • Sustainable development • Diversity	• Commitment to the truth • Integrity • Excellence • Interdependence • Interdisciplinarity	• Management • Teaching • Research • Extension

Sources: Jiménez de la Jara, 2002; Jiménez de la Jara, et al., 2004

Once this general model was in place, the project dedicated considerable time and attention to promoting the importance of incorporating RSU practices into the university curriculum. In 2003 they organized a conference held at the University of Concepción titled "Educating for Social Responsibility: The University Function of Teaching" *(Proyecto Universidad Construye País, 2003)*. The goal was to develop students' social consciousness by transforming classrooms from places of individualistic and competitive behaviors to com-

munities of togetherness, solidarity, and common purpose *(Jiménez de la Jara, 2002)* Universities in this model are encouraged to incorporate reflexivity around social concerns and responsibility, as well as provide opportunities for students to have concrete experiences in the community, to help others, to experience group problem-solving, and to explore the real world.

The project also developed an instrument to evaluate the extent to which RSU is implemented and, as of 2004, five universities had used it. The instrument was a survey designed to assess the incorporation of the principles presented in Table 2 into the four basic university functions. Results of the survey were reported to each university, and later the survey instrument was improved to establish a different version for each stakeholder group within the university: students, academics, and administrative staff *(Jiménez de la Jara et al., 2004)*. After the period of promotion provided by UCP, RSU was relatively institutionalized among the project members. The universities making up UCP have implemented diverse specific initiatives in their own organizations. Therefore, they determined that the project could move forward to engage the entire Chilean system of universities, to foster international dialogue around the topic, and to influence public policies on higher education.

The experience of Universidad Construye País is frequently referenced as an interesting endeavor pursuing RSU *(AUSJAL–Red RSU, 2014; Gaete Quezada, 2014; Proyecto Fondecyt, 2013)*. Furthermore, several universities in Chile continue implementing practices of RSU *(Proyecto Fondecyt, 2013)*, and numerous scholars are studying different aspects of RSU in Chilean universities, such as students' social responsibility attitudes *(Navarro et al., 2012)* and RSU among Chilean private universities *(Ganga Contreras & Navarrete Andrade, 2012)*. Chile's UCP network reflects the use of the RSU framework in its focus on the idea that such practices should be incorporated in the four aspects of university functions: teaching, research, extension, and management. In that sense, RSU can be understood as a management model that extends engagement beyond the third mission—extension—and distributes it throughout the entire university.

The Case of RSU in Latin America's Regional Network of Jesuit Universities

The second case we examine extends the RSU framework through a regionwide network via the Association of Universities Entrusted to the Societatus Iesu or the Society of Jesuits in the region (Asociación de Universidades confiadas a la Compañía de Jesús en América Latina, or AUSJAL for its initials in Spanish). Ever since AUSJAL was created in 1985 in Rome, the association has been invested in reflecting on the role of higher education institutions, in particular Jesuit higher education institutions, as a function of the context in which they are immersed and the religious character of their community. This endeavor has been undertaken by every executive secretary since the establishment of the association through the present even as the seat of the association has shifted from Colombia to Guatemala to Venezuela, and is reflected in several institutional documents *(e.g., AUSJAL, 1995, 2001)*.

The religious tenets of Jesuit universities stamp them with a particular character and orientation toward social responsibility in the organizations and initiatives they manage. This orientation not only helps explain the commitment to advance an engaged university but also seems to facilitate the adoption of the framework. To promote this work, AUSJAL has created a subnetwork of universities specifically dedicated to RSU, referred to as AUSJAL–Red RSU (the term *Red* translates as Network). As the association has grown, the RSU network has also increased its membership. AUSJAL had 25 members at the beginning of the 1990s *(AUSJAL, 1995)* and had 30 members as of 2016. A similar trend has been experienced by AUSJAL–Red RSU, which began with 19 universities in 2007 and included 26 universities as of 2016. Furthermore, this network has played an active role in promoting and advancing the RSU framework among its members by designing a project aimed at RSU institutional strengthening. Based on the effectiveness of the network's work, AUSJAL has committed itself to maintain and advance the path of RSU.

Those familiar with the Jesuits' commitment to helping the poor and disenfranchised, and promoting social justice for all individuals, might expect them to use the social justice engagement model and wonder why an alternative RSU framework is necessary. In this context, RSU represents a commitment to social justice within a broader institutional (i.e., conservative) framework and working with rather than against other established social institutions. It also moves beyond teaching and research to encompass the managerial and organizational aspects of university life. The work of the RSU Network began with an assessment of the Latin American context to better understand the challenges of the region and thereby better design a strategy to contribute in the transformation of that reality. In its assessment AUSJAL *(1995)* identifies the key characteristics of Latin America as entrenched poverty and exclusion, instability in

terms of economic development, transitioning from dictatorships toward democratic regimes, external pressures to adopt neoliberal policies, and the rise of a civil society sector with an important role in coping with the challenges of the development. AUSJAL *(1995)* concludes that what is necessary is "a radical increase of the human capacity of production and organization in our societies, oriented and animated by new principles of solidarity capable of better possibilities of producing internal wellness and of realistic negotiating at the international level" *(p. 18)*.

Within this context, the university, particularly the Jesuit university, plays a critical role in educating a new group of socially conscious and productive people. Therefore, AUSJAL *(1995)* claims that "research around a country's specific problems, the application of adapted solutions, internships in companies, and working in neglected areas, are a few aspects shaping realism and national and social content to university degrees" *(p. 27)*. Jesuit universities have a responsibility to provide an integral and comprehensive education in the context of poverty and exclusion, and to prepare individuals capable of producing real transformations. University engagement within the framework of AUSJAL–Red RSU demands that universities not only examine their programs and curricula, and create courses around ethics and history, but also encourage concrete and practical experiences of solidarity on the part of university leaders, faculty, and students *(AUSJAL, 1995)*.

AUSJAL–Red RSU also prioritizes solidarity as a core value, and a transdisciplinary and interdisciplinary approach to teaching and research. The network builds on participatory action research associated with the social justice model in its call for transdisciplinary action research on economic, social, and cultural causes of poverty, as well as on the comprehensive policies to overcome it *(AUSJAL, 2001)*. The strategic plan for the network recommends agreements between universities and schools and other social projects of the Jesuit Society, specifically with popular education projects such as Fe y Alegría (Faith and Joy), as a way to materialize the purpose of providing experiences in the principles of solidarity.

In order to promote RSU, the network engages in several activities, including publishing a newsletter to share information on RSU practices, hosting conferences, and, perhaps most significantly, facilitating agreement around a standard set of policies and a system of self-assessment and management of the RSU in AUSJAL universities. A first draft of these policies and this system was shared in 2009, a voluntary self-assessment exercise was conducted by 14 universities in 2011, and based on this experience the

system was revised and polished in 2014 *(AUSJAL–Red RSU, 2009, 2011, 2014)*. The group of policies and the system of self-assessment and management rely on Vallaeys' *(2006)* framework *(AUSJAL–Red RSU, 2014)* and propose policies in five dimensions. Table 3 lists the five dimensions and the corresponding 23 variables that serve as the basis for evaluating RSU efforts, based on a more detailed list of 52 institutional and 29 perception indicators.

Table 3. Dimensions and Criteria to Evaluate University Social Responsibility in the AUSJAL–Red RSU Network

Dimension	Criteria
1. Educational impact	1. RSU integrated to the curriculum 2. Experiential contact 3. Reflexivity and critical analysis 4. Graduates' profiles
2. Cognitive and epistemological impact	5. Setting the research agenda 6. Methodologies meeting ethical principles 7. Knowledge interaction 8. Socialization 9. Incidence of research in policies and organizations
3. Social Impact	10. Planning and budgeting extension projects 11. Scope of programs and projects 12. Articulation with other actors 13. Disciplinary articulation 14. Generated learning
4. Organizational impact	15. Organizational climate 16. Development of human talent 17. Relationships with suppliers 18. Inclusion 19. Responsible communication 20. Participation 21. Transparency culture and continued improvement
5. Environmental impact	22. Environmental resources management 23. Environmental culture and education

Source: AUSJAL–Red RSU, 2011

In its strategic planning document covering the period 2011–2017, the RSU network demonstrated that this group of universities remains committed to advancing this comprehensive approach of university engagement and the role of the Jesuit universities as active agents of social change *(AUSJAL, 2011)*. The group also continues to (1) develop policies and evaluation systems of RSU, (2) develop methods of strengthening the institutional commitment to RSU in all aspects of university organization and management,

and (3) pay more explicit attention to management of environmentally friendly practices and education *(AUSJAL–Red RSU, 2011)*. The model of RSU within AUSJAL is still under development and growth.

Reflection and a Proposed Research Agenda

Each of the three models of university engagement discussed in this article is present in Latin America, but one in particular stands out as deserving of further attention. The market-oriented model is familiar to North American readers because it was largely developed in the United States and exported to Latin America as part of broader neoliberal policy pressures. The social justice model, although having its roots in Latin America, is also reflected in the pedagogical and research practices of a small but dedicated group of faculty in the United States. As developed and applied in Latin America, the university social responsibility (RSU) model of university engagement brings together elements of the market-oriented and social justice approaches, with expanded scope to address all aspects of university management. Instead of positioning economic development and social equity as competing goals as the market-oriented and social justice models suggest, RSU pursues these goals simultaneously. Greater attention is focused on promoting sustainability by balancing economic, social, and environmental considerations. The model described in this article and illustrated through the case studies of Chilean and Jesuit university networks provides an alternative model worthy of additional study. The two case studies demonstrate (a) the power of a network approach to promoting engagement and (b) the potential for the RSU model to be adapted to the needs of a particular country or type of university. The application of RSU methods can be the basis for both identifying the key social problems that universities have a social responsibility to address and determining specific strategies of engagement.

We propose that our exploratory and reflective examination of university engagement in Latin America provides the foundation for a rich research agenda. As a starting point for future research, in Table 4 we identify four broad areas of inquiry and two corresponding research questions for each. By no means constituting an exhaustive list of potential questions, the list is intended to serve as the basis for a systematic examination of the RSU model of university engagement and its potential for application outside Latin America.

Table 4. Proposed Areas of Inquiry and Research Questions for an RSU Research Agenda

Area of Inquiry	Research Questions
Scope, reach, and form of university social responsibility	Is university social responsibility unique to Latin America? Might other regions have similar orientations? Are there other orientations substantially different in other regions?
	Does the model of university social responsibility look different when adopted by individual institutions as opposed to networks?
Motivating factors for university social responsibility	What motivates universities to take on this approach? Is it top down; is it diffusion from peer institutions? Is it circumstantial or strategic?
	Does being a religious, public, or private university have a relationship with using a university social responsibility approach?
Internal manifestations of university social responsibility	Is university social responsibility conducive to all disciplines or might there be some that are more likely to fit better?
	How does the university social responsibility approach influence pedagogy at the department and course level?
External reactions to university social responsibility	How are external stakeholders of the universities involved in university policy formulation and implementation of the university social responsibility approach?
	How do different stakeholders in the public, private, and nonprofit sectors view the university social responsibility approach relative to the alternatives?

A more overarching question not listed in the table but also deserving of attention is whether an RSU model can mainstream discussions of engagement within the conventional research and teaching missions of the university, thereby transcending compartmentalization as the third mission of universities. That is, we may now ask, is it still appropriate to speak of engagement as a "third mission" when the model of engagement (e.g., RSU) encompasses teaching, research, outreach/engagement, and management? Along with the more focused research questions in Table 4, we call on scholars and university administrators to engage in reflection and dialogue about this broader question.

Conclusion

The increasing attention to engagement as the so-called third mission of universities coincides temporally with increased globalization and internationalization of universities as well. In that spirit, it is fitting that the scholarly dialogue on university engagement not be limited to materials published in English or models utilized in countries of the Global North. A goal of this article was to illustrate the value of examining the models of university engagement in Latin America and to reflect on how the preliminary lessons learned from our review of the scholarly literature and reports from the region, largely available only in Spanish, suggest the need for a more comprehensive research agenda that offers promising alternative models of the engaged university.

The university social responsibility model examined in this article has the potential to bridge the divide between the earlier models of engagement. By defining the key stakeholders more broadly to include private sector businesses, as well as students and the community, and by focusing on sustainability through the balance of economic, social, and environmental interests, RSU may appeal to more universities than either the market-oriented or social justice models. If universities have been hesitant to choose a model of engagement that emphasizes their contributions to economic development, innovation, and entrepreneurship (the hallmarks of a market-oriented model of community engagement) or a model that promotes activism, social equity, and empowerment of the disenfranchised (per the social justice model), RSU may offer a good alternative.

Our goal for this article is to encourage an expansion of the dialogue about university engagement in terms of the models we apply as well as the geographic areas and sources of scholarship we rely upon. By focusing on a region of the world typically excluded from the discussion based on language and other barriers, and examining a model of engagement not previously addressed in the English-language literature, we have been able to identify a whole series of new and exciting research questions that we see as having the potential to advance the body of knowledge about engaged universities and, accordingly, the effectiveness of universities in fulfilling their engagement missions.

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About the Authors

Susan Appe is assistant professor of public administration at Binghamton University. Her research centers on government–nonprofit relations, the evolution of the nonprofit sector, and the implications of international service-learning in public affairs education. Appe received her Ph.D. in public administration and policy from the University at Albany, SUNY.

Nadia Rubaii is associate professor of public administration at Binghamton University. Her research focuses on quality assurance in higher education and effective pedagogies for public affairs education, with an emphasis on comparative perspectives within Latin America and between Latin America and other regions. Rubaii received her Ph.D. in political science from Binghamton University.

Sebastian Líppez-De Castro is a Ph.D. student in Community and Public Affairs at Binghamton University, SUNY, and an assistant professor in the Department of Political Science at Pontificia Universidad Javeriana in Bogotá, Colombia. His research interests focus on local governance, decentralization processes and challenges, and local government management. Líppez-De Castro earned his master in public administration, as well as a local government management certificate, from Binghamton University, and his specialization degree in municipal government, from Pontificia Universidad Javeriana, Bogotá, Colombia.

Stephen Capobianco is an education abroad advisor at Cornell University and a Ph.D. student in Community and Public Affairs at Binghamton University. His research interests engage the field of international education, intercultural competence, and structural inequalities for the LGBTQ community both domestically and internationally. Capobianco received his master of public administration from Binghamton University.

University–Community Partnership Models: Employing Organizational Management Theories of Paradox and Strategic Contradiction

Amanda M. Bowers

Abstract

University–community (U-C) partnerships have the potential to respond to society's most pressing needs through engaged scholarship. Despite this promise, partnerships face paradoxical tensions and inherent contradictions that are often not fully addressed in U-C partnership models or frameworks, or in practice. This article seeks to explore the root causes of tensions from a historical and structural perspective, reexamining traditional models of U-C partnership collaborations. Organizational ideas of paradox and strategic contradiction are then presented as a new lens through which to see and influence collaborative work. A framework for modifying current U-C partnership models is introduced, along with a discussion of limitations and implications for research and practice.

Keywords: university–community partnerships, engaged scholarship, strategic contradiction, paradoxical thinking

Introduction

*T*here is a strong and growing impetus for universities and colleges to ensure that their presence within various communities is productive and transformative *(Boyer, 1990, 1996; Sandmann, 2008)*. This call to action has great potential *(Harkavy & Romer, 1999; Peterson, 2009)*, and the value of reciprocal collaborations is profound *(Barker, 2004; Bringle & Hatcher, 1996; Checkoway, 2001)*. The question of how to structure and organize the work, however, remains confounding. Despite their promise, university–community (U-C) partnerships commonly exhibit imbalance or inconsistency, causing mistrust and miscommunication among contributors *(Dempsey, 2010; Fisher, Fabricant, & Simmons, 2004; Harkavy, 2006; Kezar & Rhoads, 2001; Mayfield, 2001)*. Issues with knowledge transfer *(Best & Holmes, 2010)*, institutionalization *(Westdijk, Koliba, & Hamshaw, 2010)*, and divides between theory and practice *(Jacobson, Butterill, & Goering, 2004; Van de Ven & Johnson, 2006)* are also present.

Though much research has been conducted on successful partnership strategies *(Barker, 2004; Beere, 2009; Stewart & Alrutz, 2012)*, receptivity to multiple perspectives *(Tumiel-Berhalter, Watkins, & Crespo, 2005; Vernon & Ward, 1999)*, paradigms and best practices for sharing power *(Boser, 2006; Sandmann, Kliewer, Kim, & Omerikwa, 2010)*, and responsiveness to community needs *(Bloomgarden, Bombardier, Breitbart, Nagel, & Smith, 2006; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2000)*, conducting engaged scholarship continues to be a challenge for faculty striving to balance the needs of the academy and those of their community partner *(Driscoll & Sandmann, 2016; Saltmarsh, Giles, Ward, & Buglione, 2009)*. To date there is not sufficient discussion on sustainable models of collaboration that account for competing and mutable organizational structures and priorities, an omission that may contribute to perpetuating stalled success in partnerships *(Peterson, 2009; Tinkler, 2010)*. This article seeks to explore root causes of fractured outcomes from a structural perspective, reexamining traditional models of collaboration in U-C partnerships, and will introduce organizational ideas of paradox and strategic contradiction as a new lens through which to see and influence engaged scholarship. A framework to modify current models is then introduced, along with discussion of limitations and implications for research and practice.

Defining Engaged Scholarship

Both practice and paradigm, *engaged scholarship* has been defined in a variety of ways, subject to what Sandmann *(2008)* termed "definitional anarchy." To understand its core tenets, Ernest Boyer's *(1990)* seminal work on the topic provides a foundation for subsequent interpretations. He wrote, "The scholarship of engagement means connecting the rich resources of the university to our most pressing social, civic, and ethical problems, to our children, to our schools, to our teachers, and to our cities" *(Boyer, 1996, p. 32)*. Boyer was calling for responsiveness and urgency in the work of the university. Engaged scholarship involves utilizing the activities of the academy in reciprocal processes toward the production of knowledge *(Barker, 2004)* and can "expand the social, cultural, and human capital of both local communities and universities and generally better our attempts at understanding and addressing social ills" *(Peterson, 2009, p. 541)*.

Community engagement, relatedly, speaks to the university's larger policies and practices toward meaningful interaction with the "non-university" world *(Buys & Bursnall, 2007)*. Theoretical underpinnings of engaged scholarship interact with and chal-

lenge what is meant by traditional engagement, and for the purposes of this article the terms are viewed as symbiotic, conveying a larger directive for intentional and interdisciplinary collaboration through a variety of methodologies to achieve consequential and sustainable change. They are used somewhat interchangeably, given the need to maintain representative terminology employed by included authors, with the understanding that these terms do not share definitional consistency in all circumstances *(Giles, 2016)*.

Engaged scholarship, as defined in this context, wrestles with the traditions and expectations of the academy and the often differing needs and expectations of community-based work *(Brukardt, Percy, & Zimpher, 2006; Hartley, Saltmarsh, & Clayton, 2010)*. "Interdisciplinary collaboration requires cultivating dialogue, developing shared language and understandings, reflection, and deep learning . . . [which are] not often principles promoted in academic life" *(Amey & Brown, 2005, p. 31)*. This piece builds on the proposition that contradiction is ubiquitous and must be addressed continually throughout the collaborative process in order to see more meaningful and persistent change. Van de Ven and Johnson's *(2006)* description of engaged scholarship connects to this context. They define it as "a collaborative form of inquiry in which academics and practitioners leverage their different perspectives and competencies to coproduce knowledge about a complex problem or phenomenon that exists under conditions of uncertainty found in the world" *(p. 803)*. Uncertainty, competing viewpoints, and leveraging processes are critical to engaged scholarship, yet they are not prominent within theoretical frameworks.

Given the strong link between process and outcomes in engagement work *(Amey, Eddy, & Ozaki, 2007; Maurrasse, 2002)*, the failure to fully embrace paradoxical tensions limits a partnership's ability to be successful. Collaborators must reconcile "institutional tensions, conflicts of interests, bureaucratic constraints, poor planning and implementation, lack of ongoing evaluation processes, competition over resources and recognition, stakeholders' differential knowledge and experience, value clashes, mistrust and frequent uncertainty about the viability of the proposed outcomes" *(Strier, 2014, p. 157)*. Without fully acknowledging and utilizing competing self-interests, partnerships are unable to move into wholly integrated behaviors *(Silka, 1999)*. Theoretical frameworks, in turn, need to incorporate a vision for leveraging these tensions to ensure collaborators are prepared when inevitable friction arises.

Organization and management theory can play a role toward that end. Strategic contradiction *(Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith &*

Tushman, 2005) and paradoxical thinking *(Das & Teng, 2000; Hale, 2008; Poole & Van de Ven, 1989; Strier, 2014)* address how organizations attend to competing demands simultaneously *(Smith & Lewis, 2011)*, with the potential to transform processes and outcomes. "A paradox perspective assumes that tensions persist within complex and dynamic systems. . . . [and that] underlying tensions are not only normal but, if harnessed, can be beneficial and powerful" *(Smith & Lewis, 2011, p. 395)*. In order to examine how organizational theories regarding contradiction and paradox can inform U-C partnership frameworks, the history and context of partnerships will first be considered, followed by an analysis of current models. As the need for appropriately complex models is developed, organizational theories around paradox and contradiction are then introduced to lay a foundation for more responsive partnership frameworks and models designed to enhance practice.

University–Community Partnerships in Context: A Review of the Literature

Community engagement work has grown over the last 30 years *(Harkavy, 2016)*, and literature on the nature and impact of university and community partnerships has grown in turn *(Rubin, 2000)*. Scholars responded to Boyer's *(1990)* prompting "to break out of the tired old teaching versus research debate and define, in more creative ways, what it means to be a scholar . . . [and] recognize the great diversity of functions higher education must perform" *(p. xii)*. Boyer's call for higher education to become more responsive to society's needs and bear responsibility for community work was one of the key punctuations in the history of U-C partnerships and laid the foundation for what is now known as engaged scholarship *(Barker, 2004; Sandmann, 2008)*. The narrative is continuing to evolve as society changes rapidly and the role of higher education is repositioned in the context of its historical roots and future potential *(Ramaley, 2014)*.

Academia has been criticized to varying degrees for its distanced approach to associating with outside entities, a practice derived from positivist epistemology, which tenure and other reward structures reinforce *(Boser, 2006; O'Meara, 2010)*. A cooperative and experiential education movement emerged in the early 20th century *(Peterson, 2009)*, but academia subsequently retreated into a narrow, scientistic approach *(Harkavy & Puckett, 1991)*. Harkavy and Puckett suggested that this shift resulted from conditions in World War I, which led to "an approach that increasingly separated scholarly research from the goal of helping to create a

better society" *(p. 559)*. Throughout the mid-20th century higher education focused more on cosmetic partnerships involving little institutional support *(Tyler & Haberman, 2002)*. That detachment held relatively strong until the late 20th century, when researchers began more actively confronting the question of why successful, privileged, and powerful American universities should succumb to the hard work of institutionalizing collaboration as their "categorical imperative for the new millennium" *(Benson & Harkavy, 2000, p. 49)*. Within this historical context, engaged scholarship has been characterized as a challenge to mainstream academic scholarship, though its core purpose is not to overturn existing forms of scholarship but to deepen and broaden their possibilities within higher education *(Barker, 2004)*.

The transition from positivist epistemological assumptions of distanced objectivist research *(Boser, 2006)* to a more applied and intentional connection of theory to practice has gained traction *(Suarez-Balcazar, Harper, & Lewis, 2005)*. Literature has begun to weigh doing work *on* or *for* a community against doing work *with* the community *(Barker, 2004; Bucher, 2012; Jacoby, 2003; Peterson, 2009; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2000)*. This commentary considers the traditional asymmetry in research partnerships *(Williams, Labonte, Randall, & Muhajarine, 2005)*, also termed the university on the hill *(Harkavy, 2000)*, the ivory tower *(Vernon & Ward, 1999)*, or the professional-expert research model *(Reardon, 1998)*, and calls for increased consideration of community needs and voice within cooperative work. This historical imbalance and one-sidedness of U-C partnerships *(Weerts & Sandmann, 2008)* has influenced the development of theoretical models. The shift away from positivism toward action-oriented models has consequently focused on mutual understanding and respect, shared goals, and building trust *(Beere, 2009; Enos & Morton, 2003; Fogel & Cook, 2006; Holland & Gelmon, 1998)*. Accompanying literature has similarly shifted toward common vision and thorough agreement in goals, activities, and outcomes. Models often include phases or stages through which to progress to achieve heightened levels of reciprocity, communication, and shared outcomes. The goal of the following review is not to demonstrate how these models are inaccurate; they reflect instrumental, critical aspects of collaboration. Rather, the objective is to explore how, if at all, they acknowledge and incorporate organizational ideas of paradox and contradiction to most effectively respond to and improve the collaborative process.

University–Community Partnership Theories and Models

Several theoretical models illustrate the trends reviewed above. Tyler and Haberman *(2002)* suggest grouping partnerships along a continuum from exploitive, to protective, indifferent, supportive, and finally to committed ways of being. The objective is to move along the continuum from exploitive practices to committed behaviors, avoiding traditional pitfalls of imbalance and being mindful of shared goals. Bowen, Newenham-Kahindi, and Herremans *(2010)* built on the continuum of community engagement to develop a typology of three engagement strategies in management literature: transactional, transitional, and transformational engagement. *Transactional* engagement may include charitable donations, volunteering, or information sessions; *transitional* engagement moves into activities such as ongoing dialogue; and *transformational* engagement involves joint project management, joint decision-making, and coownership. These models illustrate how partnerships may develop, and how the shared impact can change as commitments shift and deepen. What they fail to account for, however, is how these shifts occur, under what conditions, and through what processes. Similar to Tyler and Haberman *(2002)*, who acknowledged exploitive behaviors and described how they move into more reciprocal behaviors, Bowen et al. *(2010)* point to the negotiation and leveraging that must take place to keep the collaboration alive. How these phases functionally progress, however, remains unclear.

Building on the theme of commitment, Bringle and Hatcher *(2002)* frame U-C partnerships as a relationship, offering a model that describes the initiation, development, maintenance, and dissolution of dyadic relationships. The authors discuss exchange theory, in which rewards minus costs (outcomes) must exceed what is minimally expected for a relationship to be initiated and maintained, as well as equity theory, which posits that even when outcomes for both parties are not equal, if the outcomes are perceived as comparable to the inputs, then the relationship will be deemed satisfying *(Bringle & Hatcher, 2002)*. Thus, U-C partnerships should be equitable and fair, but they do not have to be equal in all aspects in order to be satisfactory, signifying that a partnership characterized by recurrent imbalance can still generate beneficial practice.

Bringle and Hatcher *(2002)* examine "who invests more, who commits more, who puts more effort in, and who gains more unique outcomes from the relationship" *(p. 510)* through relative dependency theory. At any time, comparative levels of value or benefit will not be equal, and the management of competing needs points

to paradox, defined as "contradictory yet interrelated elements that exist simultaneously and persist over time" *(Smith & Lewis, 2011, p. 382)*. Fogel and Cook *(2006)* suggest that complications within partnerships ultimately "provide an opportunity to understand areas of conflict and how these conflicts may be avoided" *(p. 603)*; however, complete avoidance of conflict is rare and not a practical aspiration. Models or frameworks could instead incorporate conflict explicitly as a mechanism for discussion and iterative learning. This can assist in constructing "procedures that aid communication, inclusive decision-making, and informed consent" *(Prins, 2005, p. 72)*.

The multidirectional flow and simultaneous interdependence of stages can be seen in additional models, such as the model put forth by Sargent and Waters *(2004)*. Building on the idea of collaboration phases, and drawing from Amabile et al.'s *(2001)* work on determinants of success in cross-profession collaboration, Sargent and Waters used a process framework moving through four stages: initiation, clarification, implementation, and completion. The process is situated within the contextual factors of institutional supports, available resources, and national and institutional climate, and is driven by interpersonal processes involving a social component. By incorporating interrelationships within a procedural model, Sargent and Waters help strengthen understanding of cooperative processes. Buys and Bursnall *(2007)* argue that the linear model does not fully represent the U-C collaborative process, however, suggesting it should be more cyclical and iterative in nature.

Two additional models deepen understanding of cooperative processes. Norris-Tirrell, Lambert-Pennington, and Hyland *(2010)* created a model that utilizes spatial dimensions to extend notions of simultaneous interface. The model consists of three primary dynamics: the philosophical core, the internal and external forces that shape and influence (the higher education institution's) decision-making, and the boundary-spanning points that "generate the demand to create and institutionalize a program that leads to both institutional and community change" *(p. 175)*. Suarez-Balcazar et al. *(2005)* created an interactive and contextual model of collaboration, emphasizing an interdependence among processes, wherein there exists a "need to simultaneously attend to multiple systemic factors" *(p. 86)*. Each factor in the model both influences and is influenced by other factors, and a position within the model does not indicate that directional influence is present. This fluidity within spatial and temporal elements adds a critical illustration of the intricate, multifaceted reality of partnerships in practice. The model does highlight conflict and challenges, yet it doesn't offer a

procedural element for managing these "potential challenges and threats" *(p. 86)*.

Though these models are not exhaustive, they aim to be representative. As idiosyncratic as partnering processes can be, so too are representative models. Table 1 illustrates this point. Many models depict partnerships on a sliding scale or sequential process, concentrating on degrees of association, bonding, and trust. However, models commonly omit references to conflict, power, and paradox that inherently exist throughout the process, which raises the question of how to ensure that representations of U-C partnerships are both idealistic and realistic. For models that do note organizational tension, it is often a stage or a process to be moved through, not an element that permeates the model in a constructive way. By obscuring disagreement and unfulfilled expectations, illustrations can perpetuate illusions about partnerships *(Prins, 2005)*. In the next section, the focus shifts toward organizational theories of paradox and strategic contradiction to address this concern.

Table 1. Illustration of Collaborative Frameworks and Models

Author (Year)	Type of Collaboration	Model Characterization	Theoretical Framework	Contextual Factors	Model References to Conflict
Amey & Brown (2005)	University–community partnerships	Interdisciplinary collaboration model in stages	Dialogical method of inquiry	Implicit: training & rewards; cognitive constructions; leadership	Implicit throughout
Barnes Altimare, Farrell, Brown, Burnett, Gamble, & Davis (2009)	University–community partnerships/ university outreach & engagement	Iterative process wheel	Participatory research foundations	Institutional identity & institutional commitment	No explicit references
Bowen, Newenham-Kahindi, & Herremans (2010	Community engagement strategy	Continuum	Corporate philanthropy	No explicit references	No explicit references
Bringle & Hatcher (2002)	Campus–community partnerships	Phases (of relationships)	Service-learning	Exchanges; equity; distribution of power	Reference to relative dependency & power
Bryson, Crosby, & Stone (2006)	Cross-sector collaboration	Propositional inventory	Organizational collaborative planning	General environment; sector failure; direct antecedents	Contingencies & constraints

Author (Year)	Type of Collaboration	Model Characterization	Theoretical Framework	Contextual Factors	Model References to Conflict
Buys & Bursnall (2007)	University–community partnerships	Sargent & Waters's (2004) inductive process model	University engagement	Institutional issues; national & international differences in climate	Reference to disparate interests
Norris-Tirrell, Lambert-Pennington, & Hyland (2010)	Engaged scholarship	Philosophical core; internal & external forces; boundary-spanning points	Engaged service-learning	Leadership vision; external demands & opportunities; internal critical mass	No explicit references
Sargent & Waters (2004)	Academic research collaborations	Inductive process	University research	Institutional supports; resources; climate; national & institutional; interpersonal & social aspects	No explicit references
Suarez-Balcazar, Harper, & Lewis (2005)	Community–university partnerships	Nondirectional phases; interactive & contextual	Participatory action research	Potential challenges & threats; power & resource inequality; time commitment; conflicts of interest; funding	Conflicts of interest, power & resource inequality, & time commitment; budgets
Tyler & Haberman (2002)	Education–community partnerships	Continuum	Community partnerships with community perspective	No explicit references	No explicit references; insight on power and conflict throughout text

Note. Efforts were made to preserve the specific language employed by each author.

Exploring Organizational Theories of Paradox and Contradiction in the University–Community Partnership Context

Many theorists view organizations as social action systems constructed by individuals who use them as arenas in which to achieve their goals and ambitions *(Poole & Van de Ven, 1989)*. Activity within these systems therefore lies in the "structural properties of a social system, the purposive actions of people, and the relationship of system and action" *(Poole & Van de Ven, 1989, p. 567)*. Theorists and researchers have tried to determine what the purposive actions of people will be when interacting within various social systems or constructs. However, paradoxical theorists argue that simplified

models will not adequately predict or capture actions, given the inherent tensions, strategic contradictions, and direct conflicts at play *(Coleman, 1986; Lewis, 2000; Poole & Van de Ven, 1989; Smith & Lewis, 2011; Smith & Tushman, 2005)*. Such models may also fail to provide "a theory grounded in purposive action of individuals" that accounts for impacts at the system level *(Coleman, 1986, p. 1312)*. By embracing paradox, models are expected to be more responsive to competing elements at work, without the need to fully resolve inherent conflicts to the point of nonexistence.

"*Paradox* denotes contradictory yet interrelated elements . . . [which] seem logical in isolation but absurd and irrational when appearing simultaneously" *(Lewis, 2000, p. 760)*. Smith and Lewis *(2011)* add that these contradictory yet interrelated elements persist over time. In U-C partnerships, these elements often include the need to deepen relationships while simultaneously improving collaborative efficiency, positioning time-intensive practices against time-cutting ones *(Silka, 1999; Strier, 2014)*. The factor of time is recurring in paradox theory and has implications for how it is conceptualized. Logical paradox, which exists in "timeless, abstract thought," is different from social scientific paradox, which is responsible to the real world, subject to its temporal and spatial constraints *(Poole & Van de Ven, 1989, p. 565)*. Engaged scholarship fits within social scientific paradox. Limitations and stressors due to time, space, and context have influence, from seasonal or semester scheduling, the pace of activity, and other logistical minutiae such as arranging meeting spaces or agreeing on timelines *(Fogel & Cook, 2006)*. In these challenges, the university process is likely to be slower than that offered by community settings, and use of space can serve to either alleviate or exacerbate power imbalances *(Dempsey, 2010)*.

Social paradoxes are not strictly logical and are often somewhat vague *(Poole & Van de Ven, 1989)*. Social paradox theory, as defined by Ford and Backoff *(1988)*, is "some 'thing' constructed by individuals when oppositional tendencies are brought into recognizable proximity through reflection or interaction" *(p. 89)*. Paradox in this context utilizes Coleman's *(1986)* juxtaposition of individual action against structures (or systems), and Poole and Van de Ven *(1989)* characterize the tension as the Action:Structure paradox. They outline three basic aspects of working with paradox: (a) There is ambiguity surrounding the genesis of action and structure, (b) there are contrary ontological assumptions about structure and action, and (c) there are explanatory tensions between objective and interpretive methods. These aspects shed light on many facets of U-C relations, particularly the role of faculty in nav-

igating academic systems. Faculty members may attempt to operate as individual actors, but they are tied to structures, processes, and relationships that influence their ability to then interact with individuals and systems outside academia. Within this tension, faculty must navigate both the objective and subjective ways in which their institution operates, as well as the organizational myths that drive values and meaning-making *(Birnbaum, 1988; O'Meara, Eatman, & Petersen, 2015)*.

Paradoxical frameworks have been developed that facilitate the use of organizational tensions advantageously in theoretical models *(e.g., Poole & Van de Ven, 1989)*. Smith and Tushman's *(2005)* work is one such framework, and its authors explore the negotiation of short-term performance and long-term adaptability, focus and flexibility, and exploratory and exploitive activities within organizations. "Exploratory activities require experimentation, flexibility, divergent thinking, and increasing variance while exploitive activities demand efficiency, focus, convergent thinking and reducing variance" *(p. 523)*. These competing goals necessitate thoughtful management. Within the U-C partnership context, exploratory activities may include brainstorming, serving on a committee, innovative pilot programs, or other activities that develop through ongoing trial and error. Exploitive activities may take the form of more streamlined, agreed-upon activities such as a controlled research study.

Differentiating competing activities, conflicts, tensions, and actual paradox is needed to further clarify the use of paradoxical thinking in managing embedded contradictions. Smith and Lewis's *(2011)* dynamic equilibrium model of organizing addresses this need. "Dynamic equilibrium . . . assumes constant motion across opposing forces. The system maintains equilibrium by adapting to a continuous pull in opposing directions . . . the role of leadership is to support opposing forces and harness the constant tension between them" *(p. 386)*. Opposing forces manifest differently, and the authors differentiate among dilemmas, dialectics, and paradox to reflect the gradation. *Dilemmas* involve competing choices, each with advantages and disadvantages, whereas *dialectics* involve contradictory elements (thesis and antithesis) resolved through integration (synthesis), which may prove paradoxical if they persist over significant amounts of time. Dilemmas and dialectics each imply that resolution can be reached, without expectation for ongoing tension, whereas management of paradox does not *(Smith & Lewis, 2011)*. In attempting to identify what paradox means within U-C partnership work, distinctions need to be made between what

constitutes a dilemma, a dialectic, or a true paradox to appropriately address any identified conflicts, tensions, or obstinacy.

It is *paradox* that can hold sustained tensions, which are not expected to disappear as partnerships unfold. Academia may never fully resolve the tension between objectivist and applied stances, but paradoxical theory suggests it need not do so. In fact, engaged scholarship may be an avenue by which to harness inherent tensions. Smith and Lewis *(2011)* assert that a dynamic equilibrium model, fostering a theory of paradox, aids learning and creativity, cultivates flexibility and resilience, and unleashes human potential, thereby increasing sustainability. A dynamic equilibrium model of organizing is designed to nurture and reinforce a commitment to multiple agendas in competition with one another, and to attend to salient and latent tensions with different management strategies depending on the context.

This matters for two key reasons. First, the model includes both salient tensions, which are more explicit to organizational actors (i.e., a community partner, faculty member, or student), and latent tensions, which are "contradictory yet interrelated elements embedded in organizing processes that persist because of organizational complexity and adaptation" *(Smith & Lewis, 2011, p. 389)*. Latent tensions are effectively dormant or imperceptible. They become salient when they are experienced by organizational actors *(Smith & Lewis, 2011)*, which the authors propose happens in conditions of scarcity, plurality, or change. The historical context of U-C partnerships becomes integral in identifying these tensions, as it aids in understanding many of the latent tensions that are less evident but may still inform processes. This includes organizational dynamics like loose coupling *(Weick, 1976)* or organizational norms, strategies, and characteristics of academe that influence behaviors and attitudes at higher education institutions *(Birnbaum, 1988; Kecskes, 2006; Norris-Tirrell et al., 2010)*. A tension, such as an expectation for faculty to publish in a top journal, may be latent for a period of time but rise to the surface when a faculty member is asked to confront a scarcity of time and prioritize among ongoing research efforts. This person is then confronted with Poole and Van de Ven's *(1989)* Action:Structure paradox, as contrary ontological assumptions about structure and action persist (e.g., "I am relational and take time to invest" or "I am solitary and efficient").

Second, the model involves multiple contingencies and demonstrates that processes can produce positive or negative outcomes, what Smith and Lewis *(2011)* name vicious or virtuous cycles. Bryson, Crosby, and Stone *(2006)* include in their model on cross-

sector collaborations contingencies and constraints, which involve power imbalances and competing institutional logics that must be incorporated into practice. Because U-C partnerships are highly relational processes, they could benefit from these models' attention to specific behaviors and capacities that generate more productive outcomes. Smith and Lewis discuss one's ability to sit with ambiguity, entertain an internal open-mindedness, and engage the process, which they connect to human potential. Many of the models available regarding U-C partnerships discuss capacity building or empowerment as desired outcomes of the engagement process *(e.g., Nichols, Gaetz, & Phipps, 2015; Norris-Tirrell et al., 2010)*, and Smith and Lewis's model could help inform how, and under what circumstances, that may be cultivated.

A Proposed Framework for Model Modification

The central argument of this piece is that by integrating an additional element into U-C partnership models and frameworks, one that employs paradoxical theory to advantage, models can better address embedded contradictions. Literature from both the engaged scholarship and organizational management domains, described in greater detail below, suggests this element should include a willingness to engage with inherent conflicts and tension. The element should encourage the identification of paradox throughout partnership processes, not to induce anxiety, inertia, or unnecessary strain, but as a mechanism to continually leverage possibilities toward short-term wins that build to long-term success *(Smith & Lewis, 2011)*. It should involve the cocreation of solutions, as collaborators examine distinctive paradoxical perspectives and explore what commonalities and synergies exist, as well as what differences and alternatives might offer a better path forward. These components then link together to form a continual loop aimed at harnessing engaged scholarship and its potential in U-C partnership work to maximize both procedural effectiveness and partnership outcomes.

The Framework Elements

The following four components are proposed as an interconnected approach to modify existing models toward integrating theories of paradox and strategic contradiction into practice. They are introduced collectively as *employing paradox* and are derived from a synthesis of the two main literature bases, presented conceptually for the first time in this article. They include (1) individual commit-

ment and transparency *(Lewis, 2000; Prins, 2005),* (2) identification of organizational tensions *(Jaeger, Jameson, & Clayton, 2012; Smith & Lewis, 2011),* (3) development of shared paradoxical frames *(Silka, 1999; Smith and Tushman, 2005),* and (4) sustained differentiating and integrating practices *(Ferman & Hill, 2004; Smith & Tushman, 2005).* Together, these components offer a means toward realizing the goal of sustainable models of collaboration that account for competing and mutable organizational structures and priorities (see Figure 1).
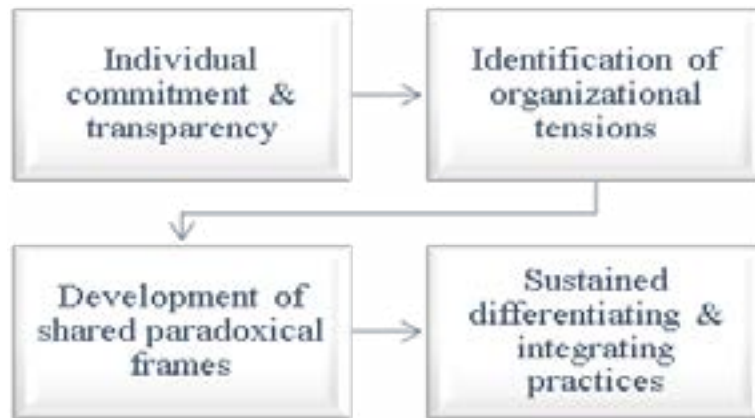

Figure 1. Employing Paradox

Individual commitment and transparency. Prins *(2005)* calls attention to the fact that "unequal interests, power, and status inherent in universities and community organizations structure our actions in unconscious, unintended ways. Ignoring these differences can perpetuate inequitable relationships" *(p. 71).* It is therefore vital to enter into the collaboration with transparency in order to expose any unconscious perpetuation of defensiveness and inflexibility. The clarification of goals, values, and expectations as a part of that process is similarly important, as ambiguity regarding the mission and individual roles can lead to confusion about who should lead and what should be done *(Holland, Gelmon, Green, Greene-Moton, & Stanton, 2003; Prins, 2005).* Also, when partners continue to meet and commit to the value of the project, conflict can lead to growth rather than dissolution *(Dempsey, 2010; Prins, 2005).* Lewis *(2000)* notes that exemplars within this type of organizational work strive for an ongoing process of bringing balance to opposing forces that encourage commitment, trust, and creativity while maintaining efficiency, discipline, and order, all vital to the functioning of engaged scholarship work. Community partners

have expectations of their university counterparts, including a commitment to outcomes, sharing authority and financial management, supporting the work within the community, and incorporating community representatives into universities' structures and roles *(Brukardt et al., 2006).* These expectations need to be identified and committed to in order to avoid ambiguity and distrust as the partnership unfolds, setting the stage for more open, reciprocal communication strategies throughout the collaboration *(Dempsey, 2010).*

Identification of organizational tensions. Organizational tensions must be identified in order to be strategically managed, a process that should be ongoing. "In all the phases of the development cycle of U-C partnerships it is common for issues to arise and require clarification, suggesting that partners may need to frequently revisit goals and objectives as they evolve and change over time" *(Buys & Bursnall, 2007, p. 83).* Not only objectives, but paradoxical tensions as well, should be revisited regularly. Jaeger et al. *(2012)* "believe that a paradox exists between community engagement efforts and various messages received by faculty members at universities that are both land-grant and research universities" *(p. 149).* The authors use research and experience to clarify the nature of this paradox. Various communities of scholars and practitioners can similarly identify paradoxes at work, developing this process further.

Strier *(2014)* provides more concrete examples of how paradox permeates much of a U-C partnership's establishment, management, and development. Strier's first paradox describes a "top down" versus a "bottom up" grassroots orientation. Elements of power must be yielded by the institution or other authorities (i.e., the top) to allow for the empowerment of participants instead (i.e., bottom up) as they self-direct and facilitate the work. The relinquishing of control by the top is at odds with its directive to maintain order and predictability. A second paradox involves improving the quality of relations among contributors versus increasing organizational effectiveness, or the need to harmonize internally (i.e., build the relationship) while simultaneously keeping up with external demands for output (i.e., demonstrate productivity). Exposing unequal power relations versus strengthening trust is a third identified paradox, and a fourth involves trying to foster an egalitarian approach while respecting and navigating hierarchies. Hierarchies have a long history in university settings *(Wade & Demb, 2010),* and overcoming structural norms and reward systems is a persistent tension *(Fisher et al., 2004).*

Strier's fifth paradox centers on navigating how to achieve transformational goals versus tangible achievements, or how to achieve transformational change while bound to short-term wins, a tension also reflected in the Smith and Lewis *(2011)* model. The sixth involves concurrently encouraging a shared esprit de corps versus respecting the multiplicity of identities, and, finally, the seventh paradox examines having discipline for long-term involvement versus generating permanent innovation. This last paradox echoes Smith and Tushman's *(2005)* reference to managing exploitive and exploratory activities discussed above. Though each of these persistent organizational tensions may always be present, there is an actionable component within paradoxical thinking, as interrelationships are used to explore contradictions and advance organizational purposes.

U-C partnerships must identify potential issues as dilemmas, dialectics, or paradoxical tensions. This allows for more appropriate approaches to embedded contradictions and/or identified contingencies and constraints *(Bryson et al., 2006)*. Literature has identified a multitude of such issues. Those frequently cited include mistrust, temporal and spatial issues, communication, incentive structures, institutional support, prior "baggage," resources, balancing power, lack of knowledge and/or leadership, cultural differences, informal versus formal commitments, problem-solving styles, and interpersonal dynamics *(Amabile et al., 2001; Amey & Brown, 2005; Barnes et al., 2009; Buys & Bursnall, 2007; Ferman & Hill, 2004; Fogel & Cook, 2006; Sargent & Waters, 2004)*. Prins *(2005)* writes, "Since partnerships bring together people from institutions with distinct interests, cultures, and practices, tensions may arise about partner roles, decision-making, grant management, reward structures, diverging agendas, modes of work, mismatched timelines, forms of knowledge, and status differences" *(p. 59)*. For land-grant, research universities in particular, Jaeger et al. *(2012)* identify systemic and individual tensions at play that may both inhibit and advance engaged scholarship. Chief among these tensions are funding support; reappointment, promotion, and tenure policies; and faculty commitment. By identifying possible tensions, it is possible to begin to work with them.

Development of shared paradoxical frames. The development of shared paradoxical frames emerges from conversations that first identify the tensions and paradoxes present. Identified issues commonly involve differences in exploratory and exploitive objectives. Smith and Tushman *(2005)* offer two organizational designs to manage the balancing act between exploratory and

exploitive activities: *leadercentric* and *teamcentric* teams. In leadercentric teams, conflicts are managed by one person or a small group of people, whereas in teamcentric teams, "the teams themselves integrate the contradictory agendas" *(p. 531)*. Leadercentric teams manage conflict by trying to moderate it through a central leader or leaders, whereas in teamcentric teams more conflict abounds. However, teams that use conflict can balance contradictions, leading to enhanced decision-making. The authors pose that sustained organizational performance may lie in "the senior team's ability to successfully attend to and deal with the challenges of operating in different timeframes and strategic logics" *(p. 533)*. What constitutes a "senior team" among U-C partnership efforts may vary widely, from a team of two to a large-scale institutional initiative. Therefore, learning from different types of individual and organizational pairings engaged in paradoxical leadership, and adapting them properly, is essential to integrating the concept into U-C practice.

Universities commonly exhibit a decentralized organizational environment *(Birnbaum, 1988)*, and partnership work is predisposed to remain somewhat disconnected from other disciplines, departments, and offices *(Silka, 1999)*. Consequently, individuals bear much of the weight in integrating contradictory agendas and seeing their partnership through to successful outcomes. Situating this role within Smith and Tushman's *(2005)* work, the teamcentric design may prove most useful to U-C partnerships. In leadercentric models, different subordinates can pursue exploiting or exploring activities independently, whereas in teamcentric teams each individual must embody both roles. The authors call this "sharing paradoxical frames," which enables collaborators to "build a collective understanding of the team's complex goals and a collective acknowledgement of the tensions and conflicts between their contrasting agendas" *(Smith & Tushman, 2005, p. 531)*. Within the U-C context, Silka *(1999)* describes a sharing of frames as different stakeholders, representing "very different perspectives" *(p. 354)*, drawing on and returning to cocreated generative images or shared metaphors to discuss their community challenges. Sharing a conceptual vision enables better integration of contradictory agendas.

Smith and Tushman *(2005)* suggested that high quality interactions are associated with the amount of information revealed and exchanged, as well as the cultivation of understanding among team members and team leaders, and among teams themselves. Collaborators strive to reach an understanding of what needs to be dealt with, what concerns are present, and the process by which

they plan to attend to them. In the case of U-C partnerships, this could take many forms. Kecskes *(2006)* used a cultural theory approach to conceptualize differences in perceptions and subsequent approaches to community–campus partnership work. The use of framing such as Kecskes put forth may inform ways in which the sharing of paradoxical frames translates to the U-C context. By better identifying and conveying one's own orientations and agendas, partners may achieve high quality interactions. This element is also dependent on identifying what types of conflict truly exist, be it dilemmas, dialectics, or paradoxes, so that expectations align. If complete resolution is unlikely, determining this at the outset can help mitigate unreasonable anticipated outcomes that would lead to more frustration and conflict.

Sustained differentiating and integrating practices. Sustained differentiating and integrating practices are the fourth element, and they are aimed at exploiting the advantages of competing needs. Differentiating involves "clarifying differences in strategy and organizational architectures," whereas integrating involves "identifying synergies between strategy and organizational architectures" *(Smith & Tushman, 2005, p. 528)*. As an ongoing process, differentiating and integrating pull apart and bring back together ideas in ways most advantageous to achieving desired outcomes. For U-C partnerships, this would likely involve revealing the ways in which a project or partnership has different goals or paradigms while continuing to seek out ways in which each organizational and individual actor could heighten the realization of successful outcomes.

Boundary spanners, whatever their primary role, capacity, or organizational perspective, could help facilitate this work for engaged scholarship *(Ramaley, 2014; Weerts & Sandmann, 2010)*. Boundary spanners are individuals who do not fully identify as academics or practitioners; rather, they have the shrewdness and capacity to respond to both groups as having something of value for the other *(Bartunek, 2007)*. Norris-Tirrell et al. *(2010)* discussed the need for setting up an infrastructure to support boundary-spanning activities, or the bringing together of different parties and sectors to explore and facilitate collaborative potential, which could include differentiating and integrating practices at the outset and throughout the engagement process. Boundary spanners are able to convene and reimagine new ways of solving messy, complicated problems *(Ramaley, 2014)* and may serve as the structural and relational drivers of differentiating and integrating.

Toward Model Modification

As these four components begin to coalesce, an iterative loop should manifest to increase benefits in engagement work. The presence of individual commitment and transparency is a needed precursor. This orientation to employing paradox invites the tackling of inherent conflict and tension and facilitates subsequent ways of joining together. The presence of commitment and transparency supports the loop of activity that starts with identifying organizational tensions, leading to the development of shared paradoxical frames, which in turn supports sustained differentiating and integrating practices. This loop of activity is introduced as *employing paradox*. The model modification is intended to be included in U-C models and frameworks to enhance theory and subsequent practice by leveraging inherent tensions to ensure collaborators are prepared when inevitable friction arises.

In Tyler and Haberman's *(2002)* work, employing paradox may serve as a linking strategy to demonstrate how phases functionally progress. It may connect each phase or certain phases, as partners negotiate their way from exploitive to committed ways of being. Bringle and Hatcher's *(2002)* model could incorporate employing paradox into relationship-building, particularly in the development phase as terms are negotiated, or as a possible element to mitigate the dissolution of partnerships. Bryson et al. *(2006)* could replace the contingencies and constraints component with employing paradox to more fully address its functionality, or include it within the component as an added strategy. In Suarez-Balcazar et al.'s *(2005)* model, employing paradox could be introduced as the procedural element for managing potential challenges and threats. These examples are included as illustrative possibilities for model modification, requiring additional consideration for use.

Discussion and Limitations

The path to finding the balance and sustained reciprocity that both U-C partnership models and corresponding practice aim to achieve may lie in embracing rather than avoiding contradictions *(Smith & Tushman, 2005)*. Although there is a strong case for this, there is also no question as to why conflict is customarily avoided. It is difficult to handle and relies on intra- and interpersonal competence. Smith and Lewis *(2011)* note, "Attending to competing demands simultaneously requires cognitive and behavioral complexity, emotional equanimity, and dynamic organizational capabilities" *(p. 391)*. Not everyone participating in the process will have

such capabilities, and therefore trainings and/or guidelines may be an important consideration in cultivating this framework and resulting practice.

The proposed framework must balance opening up the complexities and contradictions at play without so confounding the process that they render it useless. Peterson *(2009)* suggests that each partner, including students, community members, and professors, "should be giving and receiving in different ways as they are able, creating a balanced sense of reciprocity" *(p. 548)*. However, it remains unclear how each actor, and particularly student actors, should be involved in the processes of creating transparency, engaging in negotiation, and exhibiting commitment. Complicating factors include time and course limitations, personal development, and positionality within the work.

Organizations also face contradictions at multiple levels *(Poole & Van de Ven, 1989; Smith & Tushman, 2005)*. The existence of various levels can serve to separate paradoxical tensions *(Poole & Van de Ven, 1989)*, but it also creates layers of paradox that influence the process in implicit and explicit ways. When institutions are viewed through the lens of loose coupling *(Weick, 1976)* and/or as decentralized, multifaceted systems *(Birnbaum, 1988)*, paradoxical tensions may look different within various elements (i.e., departments or units). In attempts to address these varying paradoxical tensions, collaborations might generate confusion that outweighs any intended benefit. As Poole and Van de Ven *(1989)* warn, "The complexity and interdependence of individuals and organizations typically exceed researchers' capabilities to describe or explain them with coherent and consistent theories" *(p. 576)*. Furthermore, collaborators may be able to identify paradoxes at play but feel restricted in how to address or exploit those occurring at a different organizational level.

There are also challenges with resources, and going through processes of negotiation requires variable amounts of time, effort, and emotional energy *(Sandy & Holland, 2006)*. Engaged scholarship efforts are a place-based practice, and each setting uniquely transforms the ways in which core elements of experiential learning pedagogies are interpreted and played out *(McNall et al., 2015)*. Moreover, engaged scholarship is oriented toward public or social good, yet it may manifest contrarily in short-term, narrow outcomes or in long-term, broad outcomes *(Barker, 2004; Eddy, 2010)*. This proposed framework has the advantage of not being explicitly linear, nor space or time bound, but it requires internalization and practice that likely cannot be reproduced systematically.

Finally, this framework requires further development. It has only begun to introduce, much less unlock, the power of paradoxical thinking, an issue that extends to organizational literature as well. Smith and Tushman *(2005)* have suggested that despite the growing literature on important topics such as exploratory and exploitive activity, "there is limited literature on the characteristics of the senior team that can manage these complex strategies as associated complex organizational forms" *(p. 534)*. What constitutes a senior team in the context of U-C partnerships is also in question. Given the dynamics of engaged scholarship, does a greater burden to facilitate the employment of paradox fall on the postsecondary institution? Literature on strategic alliances *(Das & Teng, 2000)*, collective leadership in pluralistic organizations *(Denis, Lamothe, & Langley, 2000)*, exploration versus exploitation *(Andriopoulos & Lewis, 2009; Lavie, Stettner, & Tushman, 2010)*, and the gap between theory and practice *(Bechara & Van de Ven, 2007; Best & Holmes, 2010; Carver, 1996; Hale, 2008; Van de Ven & Johnson, 2006)* all have the potential to inform this emerging conversation. U-C partnerships, in turn, may be uniquely positioned to inform organizational theory development on these areas of scholarship.

Implications for Research and Practice

There is opportunity to move engaged scholarship forward by integrating practices built on realistic goal-setting, sustainable interaction, and shared paradigms. Bartunek *(2007)* suggests the following to help build academic–practitioner relationships and reduce the obstinacy in perceptions of the other: (1) boundary spanning, (2) forums to flesh out what implications journal articles may have for practice, and (3) opportunities to discuss topics of common interest among different groups. Future research could explore how these activities incorporate the employment of paradox to deepen understanding of paradoxical tensions and other conflicts and contradictions within engaged scholarship. Communications of best practices among collaborators from both campus and community could add further insight.

Research to clarify and deepen understanding of this proposed framework is also needed, particularly in the identification and operationalization of terms. This article has attempted to provide examples of paradox, contradiction, and conflicts present within U-C partnerships to shed light on the prevalence of each not only historically but currently, and within theoretical models and frameworks. This is a starting point for further refinement of understanding exactly what paradoxical tensions are involved

in this work. What are the latent and salient tensions in engaged scholarship? What are concrete examples of dilemmas, dialectics, and paradoxes? A typology could be generated, facilitating better identification of conflict and leading to better mechanisms to address it. In addition to scholarship that better clarifies concepts, research is needed regarding implementation of these ideas in practice. Prins *(2005)* suggests that if a willingness to learn and deliberate is cultivated, inherent tensions could become the means by which more productive, responsible collaboration is realized.

Conclusion

As engaged scholarship gains momentum, it is important that models and frameworks not only respond to emerging practice but help define it. This article has attempted to review current models and frameworks of U-C partnerships in the context of historical and emerging trends and to introduce theories of paradox and strategic contradiction as a way to more effectively address inherent tensions and conflicts found within such collaborative efforts. This piece attempts to improve theory by improving the theorizing process, which cannot be done "until we describe it more explicitly" *(Weick, 1989, p. 516)*. Enhanced theory and practice will further engaged scholarship's capacity to transform the potential of collaborative work between higher education institutions and the communities with which they work. Though they have a complex history, universities and communities have the opportunity to find new life and relevance through the deployment of one another.

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About the Author

Amanda M. Bowers is a doctoral candidate at the University of Louisville in the Educational Leadership, Evaluation, and Organizational Development Program. Her work focuses on campus–community partnerships and local education initiatives, examining the processes that drive effective and egalitarian practice, as well as how these collaborations determine and assess impact. She received her M.Ed. in community development and action from Vanderbilt University.

RESEARCH ARTICLES

A Prestudy Curricula-as-Research Model for Scholarship of Engagement: Combining Continuous Service with Discontinuous Learning

Sherrie Steiner

Abstract

Restructuring changes in higher education may be affecting how faculty conduct the scholarship of engagement. As faculty increasingly face uncertain futures, the limits of service-learning need to be better understood in order to maximize the pedagogical possibilities. One way of exploring limitations is to focus on sustainable faculty-community collaborative relationships since sustainability recognizes both constraint and possibility. This article presents a Curricula-as-Research Model as a risk-reduction strategy for faculty involved in Scholarship of Engagement. According to the model, the sustainability of research collaborations can be strengthened if a multicourse collaborative project is integrated into course sequencing. The model is developed with an autoethnographic prestudy of a service-learning collaboration between Indiana University, Purdue University Fort Wayne and Blackford County Concerned Citizens in Indiana (Fall 2014 -Spring 2016). Prestudy findings indicate that curricular content may be a factor influencing the evolution, and community impact, of collaborative relationships between the university and the community.

Keywords: service-learning, scholarship of engagement, sustainability, collaboration, partnership

Introduction

*T*he public scholarship movement has "come of age" during a time of economic uncertainty. The global economic downturn of 2007–2008 decreased university endowments *(Clark, 2009)*, adversely impacted other sources of higher education revenue *(Weisbrod & Asch, 2010)*, and made external funding more difficult to obtain *(Klentzin & Wierzbowski-Kwiatkowski, 2013)*. External pressures and increased scrutiny by external governing bodies have shifted the internal focus to learning outcomes assessment *(Holberg & Taylor, 2007)*. Restructuring higher education institutions by restricting enrollments, eliminating programs, eliminating departments, and consolidating campuses has become an increasingly common response to statewide budget cuts *(Smith*

& Martinez, 2015). Although most research on the restructuring of institutions of higher education does not explore its psychological impact on faculty and staff *(Eckel, 2003)*, a case study of Western University's mandated department eliminations resulting from statewide budget cuts describes "terror and anxiety now acting like a contagion" *(Smith & Martinez, 2015, p. 78)* among affected faculty and staff, who consistently reported being expected to do "the same job with fewer resources" *(p. 79)* under the restructuring. Higher status employees viewed restructuring more positively as a transformational moment, but lower status, more vulnerable employees perceived the change negatively.

Although ensuring the sustainability of quality collaborative processes between universities and communities is a recognized priority among community engagement scholars *(Fitzgerald, Bruns, Sonka, Furco, & Swanson, 2016)*, strategies for ensuring program sustainability have focused primarily on top-down institutional change such as managerial aspects and resource allocation *(Fear, 2015)*; the quad helix of systems change involving higher education, business, civil society, and government *(Fitzgerald, 2014)*; transforming the culture of higher education *(Klentzin & Wierzbowski-Kwiatkowski, 2013)*; institutionalizing service-learning programs *(Bringle & Hatcher, 2000)*; and alignment of institutional structures with broader institutional missions *(Reed, Swanson, & Schlutt, 2015)*. Perhaps this is the legacy of Boyer's initial focus on engaged scholarship at the institutional level of change, but the field has tended to embrace systems thinking and modeling and discouraged what Kania and Kramer *(2011)* refer to as the isolated-impact approach *(Fitzgerald et al., 2016)*. Although a systems approach is needed for addressing the complexity and multidimensionality of problems that are most "worth solving" *(Kolko, 2012)*, attention to the individual level should not be overlooked because of resistance to the isolated-impact approach. The long-term resolution of messy wicked problems requires sustained faculty–community engagement so that collective impact initiatives involving extensive partnerships and networks can be developed *(Kania & Kramer, 2011)*. McNall, Barnes-Najor, Brown, Doberneck, and Fitzgerald *(2015)* offer six principles for systemic engagement: systems thinking, collaborative inquiry, support for ongoing learning, emergent design, multiple strands of inquiry and action, and transdisciplinarity. How are faculty to engage in this type of research behavior given the increasingly uncertain environment of higher education?

Despite calls for collective approaches and lack of empirical evidence supporting isolated initiatives as effective approaches

for engaging the most pressing problems, the isolated-impact approach continues to dominate faculty practice of community engagement with the nonprofit sector *(Fitzgerald et al., 2016; Kania & Kramer, 2011)*. Even at the beginning of the movement, Boyer *(1996)* recognized that the mismatch between faculty reward systems and faculty behavior often leaves professors caught between competing obligations. Decades later, various deterrents to community engagement persist *(Maddrell, 2014)*, including concerns over funding and logistical support, uncertainty regarding course design, and lingering negative perceptions of community engagement as too time consuming *(Lambright & Alden, 2012)*. Klentzin and Wierzbowski-Kwiatkowski *(2013)* have added assessment pressures to this list, describing development of service-learning outcome measures as a methodologically impossible task that defies quantitative solutions. In the wake of the global economic downturn and the restructuring of higher education, service-learning programs are under increased pressure to become legitimized as an academic activity (and not simply community service) or risk being incorporated into a student engagement model of community service in student life. In addition, collaboratively responding to community input and jointly tackling injustices—that is, community-based participatory research (CBPR)—may be construed as a nonscholarly form of practice *(Brint, 2009; Martinez et al., 2012)*.

Faculty who wish to engage professionally with the community are caught in a cross-purposes quandary: Implementation of best practices, such as community collaboration and taking an interdisciplinary approach, may undermine the sustainability of collaborative community relations by threatening personal job security. For example, can nontenured faculty establish their expertise by moving *away* from an expert-driven to a demand-driven mode of knowledge cocreation *(Fitzgerald et al., 2016)* without undermining their own futures? Optimal community engagement means demand-driven cocreation of knowledge with the community rather than creation of knowledge driven by academia. Because of uncertainty that this type of knowledge cocreation will be recognized in the context of promotion and tenure, nontenured faculty may threaten their own career advancement by applying community engagement best practices. A top-down focus on transforming the culture of higher education, institutionalizing service-learning programs and aligning institutional structures with broader institutional missions is too far removed from faculty experience to identify and understand how faculty are responding to the uncertain educational environment. A new approach is needed if scholars

want to understand why the isolated-impact approach continues to dominate faculty practice of community engagement with the nonprofit sector.

Administrators interested in strengthening university–community connections have long recognized a need to provide support to faculty caught in the crossfires of institutional change *(Seldin, 1982)*. Some of these barriers have been addressed through the reform of promotion and tenure guidelines *(Chait, 2002; Diamond & Adam, 1995, 2000; Ellison & Eatman, 2008)*, and mentorship programs have been established for new faculty. Boyer *(1990)* encouraged faculty to clarify how their service activities were "directly tied to one's special field of knowledge and relate to, and flow directly out of, this professional activity" *(p. 22)* to qualify them as scholarship. Faculty were advised to decide early in their careers to be public scholars and establish a "public good" focus for teaching, scholarship, and creative work *(Ellison & Eatman, 2008, p. 21)*. But the complexities of contemporary problems may place limitations on the extent to which an academically rigorous, civically engaged pedagogy that is both useful and responsive to community groups can progressively develop. Butin *(2010)* has suggested that there may be an achievement ceiling for higher education engagement that is oriented toward the public good, and that the *limits* of service-learning must be understood in order to maximize the pedagogical possibilities.

The current trend of decreased state support for higher education and resultant restructuring highlights the need for a new model for advancing the scholarship of engagement that takes internal and external pressures into account. Before the global economic downturn, Sandmann, Saltmarsh, and O'Meara *(2008)* identified five distinct models for advancing the scholarship of engagement: individualized faculty scholarship, campus revision of promotion and tenure guidelines, documenting scholarly engagement for reward systems and for improvement, creating rigorous criteria for peer review of engaged scholarship, and professional education/discipline-focused resources and examples. In 2010, Franz developed a holistic model of engaged scholarship to assist faculty who were looking for practical ways to plan, implement, and reflect on engaged scholarship to meet productivity expectations. Although this model identifies multiple points suitable for faculty to practice engaged scholarship, Franz's engaged scholarship model assumes that "research is not more important than teaching or outreach" *(p. 34)*. These assumptions may prove difficult to implement for faculty subject to traditional promotion and tenure guidelines. In 2012, Martinez et al. developed a research-as-curriculum model

of individualized faculty scholarship where faculty–community partnership research was used as pedagogy. Community residents participated in the course alongside undergraduates and faculty "to facilitate co-learning and promote the value that diverse perspectives bring to research" *(Martinez et al., 2012, p. 492)*. The study was designed and implemented in collaboration with local community residents, faculty, service providers, and students as a joint collaboration among multiple stakeholders. Students, community residents, and faculty members shared the roles of facilitator and student, and attempts were made to obtain academic credit for community member participants; in lieu of academic credit, community members received a certificate, stipend, and library access. Although this model "successfully engaged undergraduate students, faculty and community residents in applied research to increase the capacity of local nonprofit organizations" *(p. 498)*, application of this model may increase faculty vulnerability in the current environment of increased scrutiny, outcome assessment pressures, and service-learning program devolution.

This article presents a curricula-as-research model of individualized faculty scholarship that complements existing individualized faculty scholarship models by incorporating faculty risk reduction strategies to accommodate an uncertain environment. Although service-learning practitioners in higher education have implemented "multi-semester projects with the same nonprofit partner, but different groups of service-learners" *(Maddrell, 2014, p. 218)*, this strategy has not yet been fully developed into a working model for community-engaged scholarship. The model presented here helps faculty identify how research fits into their practice of service-learning as community-engaged scholarship. This model was designed to enable faculty to ameliorate the effects of institutional restructuring on motivation for engaged scholarship. Although it is not applicable to all contexts, this model offers a method that may enable faculty to engage undergraduate students and community members in a sustainable collaborative partnership that implements best practices principles while minimizing career-related risk and uncertainty.

Model Overview

The limits of service-learning are explored within a theoretical framework useful for understanding how sustainable collaborative faculty–community relationships can be developed in a context of institutionalized devolution. The model adapts Padgett's *(1980)* theory of serial judgment, which combines Simon's *(1957)* theory

of bounded rationality with Cohen, March, and Olsen's theory of organized anarchies *(Cohen & March, 1974; Cohen, March, & Olsen, 1972; March & Olsen, 1976)*, to scholarship of engagement research.

According to Padgett, educational and public sector organizations operate as "organized anarchies" where ambiguity and uncertainty shape preferences so that what is being accomplished is neither clear nor consistent, implementation strategies remain unclear, and participation in decision-making remains fluid *(Padgett, 1980, p. 583)*. Ambiguity becomes heightened during times of crisis or "value instability" *(Mohr, 1978, p. 1035)*, but Padgett *(1980)* has also shown that the theory of organized anarchies is applicable to fairly traditional and bureaucratic organizational structures. Under trying circumstances, decision makers favor process incrementalism by seeking satisfactory, rather than optimal, solutions through a series of incremental judgments that systematically adjust the outcome by cycling through discrete neighboring alternatives; serial judgment provides the flexibility for pursuing superior outcomes within a hierarchical framework of budgeting uncertainty and change *(Lepori, Usher, & Montauti, 2013)*. The theory focuses less on the details of individual decision making and more on how the flow of decisions provides an element of flexibility that is, in turn, "constrained by access structures, energy loads, and attention-focusing rules" *(Padgett, 1980, p. 583)*. The series of choices is studied as a function of organizational processes operating under conditions of uncertainty and ambiguity. Lepori, Usher, and Montauti *(2013)* describe how budgeting is a power-based negotiation that operates under conditions of high uncertainty about both problems and priorities and is most applicable to contexts where horizontal power is strong but vertical power is weak. For this reason, the model put forward here is context dependent and is deemed most applicable to contexts where faculty have strong control over the course content of their teaching load. This model is also applicable in contexts where community-based organizations are seeking social change; it is not suitable to program-oriented service-learning goals where community-based organizations place students in established programs that need positions filled such as after-school tutoring, meal preparation, and client intakes *(Blouin & Perry, 2009)*.

The curricula-as-research model is a continuous project-oriented model of service that spans multiple courses (see Figure 1). The project evolves over time within the constraints of a supportive sustainable university–community collaboration. Project components, or subprojects, are designed for completion within each course. Course discontinuity provides both exit and entry points at

which the *project* can move in a different direction, as determined by collaborators. Although Steiner *(2016)* states that it is difficult to develop collaborative relationships with community partners if the service-learning program exists only within the classroom context, and Harrison and Clayton *(2012)* consider development of collaborative service-learning relationships to be a counternormative pedagogical approach, the collaborative potential embedded in the curricula-as-research model is not rooted within classroom operations per se. Rather, reciprocity principles of the type that Steiner *(2016)* identifies as conducive to collaborative relationships are primarily implemented via the faculty member's role as a *boundary spanner* (see Figure 1). According to Steiner *(2016)*, combining extracurricular programming with service-learning within the classroom allows faculty to strategically develop collaborative partnerships within the hierarchical context of higher education:

> Curricular aspects of the program (e.g., service learning classes) become contexts where the academic standards and the higher education hierarchy are uncompromisingly prioritized without apology. In the overall relationship, academic pedagogy can be prioritized without compromising the relationship with the community partners because there are other aspects to the overall program which respect and showcase the practical knowledge nonprofit leaders derive from experience. From this perspective, the combination of curricular and extracurricular programming presents an opportunity to cultivate a willingness to collaborate from both faculty and nonprofit leaders. *(p. 14)*

In theoretical terms, the curricula-as-research model locates faculty extracurricular activities (formal and informal) within the framework of boundary spanning. Unlike models that Jones *(2003)* has critiqued for undermining collaborative partnerships, this model provides enough discontinuity within the continuous collaboration to enable faculty to arrange outlets for partner expertise and incorporate faculty pedagogical priorities without compromising community priorities of empowerment, capacity building, and problem solving. The curricula-as-research model combines continuous service with discontinuous learning over time (see Figure 2). The different courses also provide faculty with multiple entry and leverage points for moments when the collaboration suggests that the subject-based pedagogy may need to move in a dif-

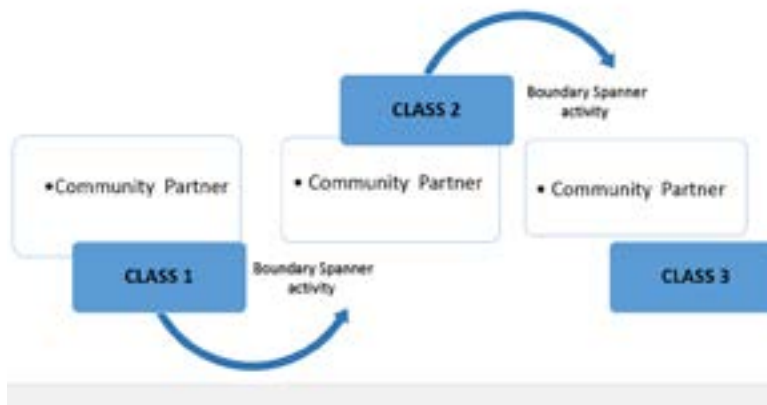ferent direction to respond to the changing context, needs, uncertainty, and complexity of the situation.

Figure 1. Curricula-as-research model for community-engaged scholarship. This figure illustrates how faculty can engage in boundary-spanning actions to arrange multiple classes for ongoing collaboration on a project with a community partner.
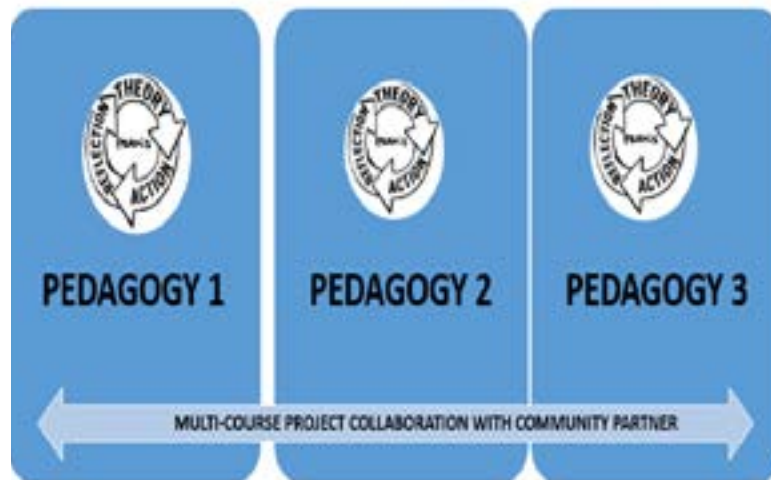

Figure 2. Combining continuous service with discontinuous subject-based pedagogy. This figure illustrates how the content of various courses introduces dynamics into the ongoing collaboration with the community partner as students reflect on their engagement in light of theories introduced in the classroom.

Williams *(2002)* defines boundary spanners as key agents who influence development of collaborative behavior in the interstitial spaces between organizations, what Williams refers to as *interorganizational theatres*. Boundary spanners are particularly suitable for developing coalitions directed at messy public policy problems because "real progress is dependent on systemic change not short-term fixes" *(Williams, 2002, p. 104)*, and wicked problems do not "yield readily to single efforts and [are] beyond the capacity of any one agency or jurisdiction" *(Luke, 1998, p. 19)*. Although Williams indicates that interorganizational capacity "is unlikely to flourish in organizational structures that are based on hierarchical control and power" *(2002, p. 105)*, this model is about how faculty pursue suboptimal "satisficing" behavior within organizational anarchies *(Padgett, 1980)*.

This strategy intentionally diverges from the current trend toward service-learning program institutionalization, which deemphasizes "the individual [service-learning] 'champion' in favor of a more hands-off management approach" *(Klentzin & Wierzbowski-Kwiatkowski, 2013, p. 50)*. Since it costs more to pay a faculty member to run an academically sound community engagement program than to pay an administrator to run a service-learning program located in student services, scholarship of engagement faculty could practice risk reduction by directing their expertise toward boundary-spanning work with specific classes rather than toward program development. Although Furco and Holland *(2004, 2009)* have identified both positive and negative dynamics associated with individual service-learning champions in the literature, Klentzin and Wierzbowski-Kwiatkowski's *(2013)* recent study of service-learning program formalization identifies "the barrier of the individual" as one of five emergent themes obstructing service-learning institutionalization *(p. 53)*. Might the tension run both ways? Might institutionalization serve as a barrier obstructing faculty engagement in research?

According to Hudson *(1993)*, "the fashioning of collaborative relationships of substance is a job for talented practitioners" *(p. 375)*. Williams *(2002)* describes it as an art involving "the use of particular skills, abilities, experience and personal characteristics" *(pp. 114–115)*. Competent boundary spanners are trustworthy network managers capable of building effective personal relationships with a wide array of diverse actors within complex environments characterized by uncertainty and interdependence *(Grandori, 1998)*. Different boundary-spanning skills are needed for different stages of the collaborative relationship involving cycles of problem set-

ting, direction setting, and/or implementation *(Snow & Thomas, 1993; Williams, 2002)*. Competent boundary spanners negotiate and broker in nonhierarchical decision environments as "policy entrepreneurs" *(Williams, 2002, p. 121),* connecting problems to solutions and mobilizing resources and effort in the search for successful outcomes. Effective boundary spanners are necessary for building sustainable university–community relations so that conflict and criticism can be successfully managed within the context of an ongoing collaborative relationship *(Williams, 2002)*. Williams *(2002)* identifies boundary spanning as particularly appropriate for addressing the type of complex and seemingly intractable "messes" *(p.104)* that McNall et al. *(2015)* consider suitable for the scholarship of engagement, and that characterize the contemporary public policy landscape *(Clarke & Stewart, 1997)*. Emphasis on active researchers as boundary subjects is also in keeping with Huzzard, Ahlberg, and Ekman's *(2010)* critical exploration of the action research team's role in constructing collaborative development projects.

Faculty Acting as Boundary Spanners

Although Kolko *(2012)* has developed a social entrepreneurship curriculum template that provides a structure for business curricula, the model presented here is more versatile and not discipline specific. The curricula-as-research model facilitates faculty exercise of agency as boundary spanners to establish and maintain sustainable community–university collaborations in how they choose the problem, the community partner, the project, and the courses.

Choosing the problem(s). This model will work best if the scholar picks a "problem worth solving" *(Kolko, 2012)* that broadly fits with the faculty member's areas of expertise. In systems theory, Ackoff *(1999)* refers to problems worth solving as "messes"; Rittel and Webber *(1973)* refer to them as "wicked problems" for governance because they elude definition, continue to change as they are studied, lack clear-cut solutions, leave little room for trial and error, and are unique yet interconnected with larger, more complex challenges *(Clarke & Stewart, 1997; Ramaley, 2014)*. The messier the problem, the greater the likelihood that multiple strands of inquiry and action will be identified for course sequencing and multidisciplinary collaboration *(McNall et al., 2015)*. Community-engaged scholarship is time consuming, so newer faculty should select problems with promotion and tenure requirements in mind. Problems most amenable to this model are wicked or messy problems that (1) bridge jurisdictional, organizational, functional, professional, and generational boundaries; (2) involve multiple stake-

holders from diverse perspectives; (3) remain intractable; (4) are dependent on systemic change; and (4) are beyond the capacity of any single agency or jurisdiction *(Luke, 1998; Rittel & Webber, 1973; Williams, 2002)*. The more complex, multisystem, and multidimensional the problem, the greater the flexibility for arranging course sequencing in response to the unfolding collaborative research process. Examples of messy problems include community safety, poverty, social inclusion, urban regeneration, health inequalities, teenage pregnancies, climate change, homelessness, and substance misuse *(Williams, 2002)*.

Choosing the community partner(s). The faculty member begins the search for the primary long-term community partner by first identifying how far the scholar is willing (and able) to travel with the students, then search within that radius. The highest quality collaborative partner may be worth the inconvenience of navigating some distance. Messy problems will require maturity and expertise from everyone involved in the partnership, not just from the faculty. Enos and Morton *(2003)* have identified a continuum of university–community partnerships ranging from "transactional" to "transformational." Transactional partnerships involve relatively superficial levels of interaction, span short periods of time, and involve short-term projects. Transformational partnerships involve longer term commitments of interdependent involvement that at times is mutually transformative. Although Bushouse *(2005)* has shown that community organizations prefer transactional service-learning partnerships because they yield higher benefits with lower economic costs, choosing a community partner open to development of a transformational partnership is better suited for any type of sustainable collaboration. That said, collaborative attempts to transform community partners' neighborhoods for the better will involve a wide range of factors. In keeping with best practices as identified by McNall et al. *(2015)*, faculty might look for a community partner that is willing to embrace an emergent design approach and openness toward expanding the collaborative partnership, when necessary, to better address the multiple strands of inquiry and action that emerge over time. Unlike service-learning programs that let students choose from a diverse array of partners, in this model the faculty member develops service-learning opportunities for students in the context of a long-term sustainable collaborative relationship with a few highly vetted community partners. This approach is in keeping with Maddrell's *(2014)* finding that faculty routinely express a preference for focusing on long-term relationships with a small, select set of nonprofit partners.

Choosing the project(s). Most project-oriented service-learning experiences are short-term, specific, one-time assignments such as event planning, grant writing, advertising, or administration of special projects *(Blouin & Perry, 2009)*. In this model the overall project associated with the wicked problem is transformational and long term, spanning multiple courses. Specific assignments associated with the project emerge within the context of each course over time. If the project is initially sketched out very broadly, the design, methods, and measures associated with specific elements of the design can emerge based on what is being learned *(McNall et al., 2015)*. The scope of subprojects should be realistically aligned with a 15-week semester. Maddrell *(2014)* recommends establishing clear boundaries for any given subproject with the community partner at the outset, including the deliverables to be completed, subproject milestone checkpoints for monitoring progress, and forms of student assessment that will be used once the subproject is under way. It is also helpful to develop, if possible, an array of subprojects that can adapt to students' competing time constraints and make accommodations to place-based service demands. Subprojects involving virtual e-service are particularly adaptable in this regard *(Maddrell, 2014)*. Project element diversity often presents opportunities for additional short-term collaborators to participate in the project.

Choosing the courses. This model presumes that faculty have some say in the courses and the course sequencing associated with their workload. When identifying the course sequence, faculty should distinguish between ongoing foundational courses for the collaboration and courses suitable for augmenting the collaboration where appropriate. Foundational courses define the parameters of the long-term ongoing collaborative project. Augmenting courses (special topics, readings, etc.) "fill in" as opportunities arise. Augmenting courses are less tightly integrated into the service-learning collaboration (e.g., student service-learning participation is a choice among alternate assignment options). Courses would be carefully chosen to allow maximum flexibility to respond to the evolving, complex, and multidimensional issues associated with community engagement around "problems worth solving." However, faculty should resist the temptation to make a course fit the messy problem; "poor fit" partnerships present significant challenges in service-learning *(Blouin & Perry, 2009, p. 128)*. At times the best way to keep the collaboration moving forward may be an individualized readings service-learning activity with a small cadre of students implemented as an unpaid overload; one way to make this

suboptimal arrangement work to the faculty member's advantage is to use this opportunity to mentor students and promote undergraduate scholarship. Whenever possible, the scholarship can try to match course pedagogy to issues that arise from one semester to the next in accordance with the emergent design principles of the systemic engagement approach to messy problems *(McNall et al., 2015)*. Course sequencing should also be carefully matched, where possible, to fit the needs of the community-based organization. "Poor fit" partnerships can put the community organization at risk of losing much-needed resources and can interfere with student learning outcomes *(Blouin & Perry, 2009)*.

Because messy problems consist of networks of interacting problems, effective management of the emergent issues that arise from transformational community engagement will involve different teams collaborating to tackle different aspects of the same mess *(McNall et al., 2015)*. Kania and Kramer *(2011)* advocate for a collective impact approach involving collaborative teams capable of addressing multiple strands of inquiry and action that become drawn together to address complex problems. Although such an approach may be optimal and more desirable, the "satisficing" model proposed here for faculty affected by economic constraint and university restructuring is more modest: It is to focus on developing a long-term, sustainable partnership with one or two high-quality community partners. Working from within that core relationship, the project can be appropriately expanded and/or contracted by adding or withdrawing additional collaborators as the project proceeds. Faculty can partner with their core community partner to develop the service component of different courses as the project moves forward and clarify the community partner's role in each course *(Blouin & Perry, 2009)* without being overwhelmed by pressures to joint venture with all of the partners involved in collaborative teamwork. Although the organizational constraints of higher education institutions may hinder boundary-spanning activity, universities also provide interstitial spaces where faculty exercise choice of problems, community partners, courses, and projects. The curricula-as-research model suggests that strategic exercise of those choices may be conducive to faculty interest in conducting community-engaged research even during times of fiscal constraint and uncertainty.

Curricula-as-Research Prestudy

This prestudy used the ethnographic method, an approach used by scholars of engagement *(e.g., Fear, Rosaen, Basden, & Foster-*

Fishman, 2006; Sandmann 2008). The curricula-as-research model prestudy was developed at Indiana University, Purdue University Fort Wayne (IPFW) over a 2-year timeframe between August 2014, when the faculty member serving as primary investigator (PI) first began to choose a problem and identify an appropriate community partner, and June 2016, when the third course in the prestudy was concluded. The collaborative partnership is ongoing. Illustrative data is referenced for purposes of theorizing in a context of discovery, rather than gathered as test data for purposes of theory testing in a context of justification *(Reichenbach, 1938)*. In contrast to theory-driven or atheoretical research, prestudies represent the earliest and first stage of theoretical development where scholars engage in what Swedberg *(2012)* describes as "empirically driven creative theorizing" *(p.8)*. In prestudies, scholars observe, name the concepts, build out the theory, and complete the theoretical explanation *(Swedberg, 2012)*. For this reason, the PI obtained Institutional Review Board protocols in association with the service-learning conducted within each discrete course associated with this project during that timeframe (spring semester 2015, fall semester 2015, and spring semester 2016).

The initial PI activities were consistent with Sandmann, Saltmarsh, and O'Meara's *(2008)* integrated model for advancing the scholarship of engagement: Faculty are said to operate in an environment influenced by the horizontal axis of faculty socialization and the hierarchical vertical axis of scholarship of engagement institutionalization. The PI initially served as a visiting assistant professor in fall 2014 and was heavily socialized by the department chair to engage in service-learning. IPFW has a Carnegie Foundation Community Engagement Classification and an Indiana Campus Compact membership to maintain, so service-learning activities were highly encouraged at the institutional level as well. The PI obtained funding for the service-learning project from two Indiana Campus Compact Scholarship of Engagement grants. Matching funds were provided by the IPFW Department of Sociology. Broader institutional support for the project was provided the following year when the PI was selected to be a Purdue Scholarship of Engagement Fellow; fellow funds were put toward the project.

However, the PI went beyond guidance offered in current models by deciding against broader program development at IPFW despite having significant experience with institutionalization at two universities, and given the current trends in the field *(Klentzin & Wierzbowski-Kwiatkowski, 2013)*. Similarly, the PI did not rely on

these models for the decision to seek out a community partner that, although within the university's service area, was located 60 miles from the campus rather than collaborate with local nonprofits. When queried, the PI conveyed an appreciation for the value structured programming brings to an institution; the PI's decisions for this project, however, reflected the recent experience of having been replaced by an administrator at a previous institution after establishing a service-learning program involving between 10 and 19 partnerships that serviced a required service-learning course for the core curriculum. The PI was motivated to pursue a less risky service-learning strategy centered on academic integrity and service-learning scholarship.

Choosing the problem(s). The PI chose a "messy problem" compatible with a research agenda centered on civic engagement for responsible governance and operative within the faculty member's areas of expertise which, in this case, were environmental sociology and social change. According to the Environmental Protection Agency's Toxics Release Inventory Program, Indiana is consistently ranked among the highest releasers of toxic pollutants in air, soil, and water and is most recently ranked as the second highest polluter of all states and territories in the United States *(EPA, 2014)*. Since the unintended consequences associated with unsustainable socioeconomic conditions have been identified as social problems that are widespread, messy, and intractable, the PI chose public health in relation to environmental pollution as the focus problem. The PI then consulted tenured faculty members familiar with community organizations and performed an internet search to identify civic groups committed to addressing public health concerns related to the environment.

Choosing the community partner(s). The PI has a strong background in service-learning and was aware of what would be involved in conducting service-learning off campus. The PI printed out a map and drew a circumference around the campus to delineate the boundaries within which service-learning could be practically implemented. Congruent with an interest in developing a transformational partnership, the PI searched for civic groups engaged in environmental justice concerns. The leading environmental justice nonprofit in the area, Hoosier Environmental Council (HEC), focused the majority of its activities in regions outside the service-learning boundary lines. However, a smaller affiliate, Blackford County Concerned Citizens (BCCC), had recently partnered with HEC to investigate the possibility that environmental exposures were contributing to higher risks of cancer and neurologic disease

in Blackford County. BCCC was also partnering with Indiana State Department of Health, the Indiana University Fairbanks School of Public Health, Cancer Services of East Central Indiana, and the American Cancer Society. The BCCC board was deeply rooted in the community and composed of people with significant experience and relevant expertise (former two-term mayor, former district attorney, etc.) to competently respond to the types of emergent issues that might arise over time. Formed in 2008, the BCCC described its mission as "to improve the quality of life of Blackford County, Indiana residents by reducing the incidence of diseases, primarily through citizen action to investigate the diseases that are prevalent and by advocating to have these diseases investigated" *(BCCC, 2014, para. 2)*.

Blackford County, Indiana, had been a pastoral agricultural community from first settlement until natural gas was discovered in the 1880s. A natural gas and oil boom lasted for three decades, attracting eight glass factories that worked at full capacity with all of the practices and impacting outcomes associated with the legal operation of that industry over a century ago. Other industries were also attracted to the region, from support industries such as nitroglycerin factories, to local paper production and steel recycling firms. In the 1950s, a few large manufacturing facilities were attracted to the area (e.g., plastics, glue); other industries, such as metal stamping and fiberglass auto part molding, had come and gone.

Many residents were concerned that one of the legacies of this industrial history might be toxic exposure to industrial pollutants such as arsenic and lead that remain in the soil and do not break down over time. Blackford County has a cancer rate higher than the state average and an increased rate of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS), a serious nervous system disease. According to the Indiana State Department of Health, Blackford County had some of the highest age adjusted county incidence rates for lymphoma, bladder, colon, lung and thyroid cancers for the period between 2004 through 2008 *(ISDH, 2012)*. Cigarette smoking is elevated in Blackford County, but during the same timeframe, reports indicated a decrease in smoking behavior among Blackford County residents. Given the area's industrial legacy, BCCC board members wanted to investigate whether there might be links between the cancer rates and toxic exposure. Over time, a few local residents have expressed concerns at the collaborative service-learning events convened in Fall 2015 and Spring 2016 that the publicity associated with BCCC activities might negatively affect the local

economy. BCCC board members have adopted a different perspective, as indicated in their brochure, where they state:

> When people can speak in a climate of openness—where we can candidly discuss challenges facing our community, and work swiftly and with sound science to solve them. Recent local clean-ups of leaking petroleum tanks, PCBs and heavy metals have reduced hazardous exposures. These clean-ups are also helping restore community confidence and improve local property values. These examples show that addressing environmental issues is good for the community and good for the economy. *(BCCC, 2014, para. 15)*

In 2011, BCCC worked with the Indiana State Department of Health (ISDH) to get an analysis of the county's cancer data, and in 2014, ISDH agreed to their request for an update. By 2014, BCCC had gathered sufficient donations and grant funds to hire an environmental health specialist.

When the PI contacted BCCC, they had just agreed to collaborate with HEC to use funds from the Blackford County Community Foundation to hire Dr. Indra Frank, a medical doctor with a master of public health degree. Dr. Frank served as an Environmental Health Project Director and worked with the Blackford County community to review environmental exposures and their links to health. BCCC board members secured funding from the Blackford County Community Foundation, but they did not have sufficient organizational capacity to process the grant and solicit matching funds. Dr. Frank was hired by HEC to focus on the BCCC project. Dr. Frank brought significant experience in working on environmental health programs, education, and policy with Indiana-based nonprofit organizations, including Improving Kids' Environment, the Health by Design Coalition, and the Indiana Environmental Health Summit. The high quality composition of the BCCC's board, the transformative agenda associated with its mission, and the location of its concerns within the service-learning boundary lines were decisive factors influencing the PI's choice of this small, minimal-infrastructure organization as a community partner.

Choosing the project(s). The shared collaborative project spanning multiple courses was to use a popular epidemiology approach to investigate avenues of toxic exposure in the community. Dr. Frank worked on behalf of BCCC to get the state health department to provide a cancer data update in January of 2015.

Information on the elevated bladder, colon, and thyroid cancer rates were communicated to the community via the BCCC newsletter, the BCCC webpage, and a variety of community meetings. Citizens were educated about behaviors they could adopt to protect themselves and their families from possible toxic exposure. Funding constraints eventually prevented the partnership from using Dr. Frank's preferred case control approach, so the project shifted strategies as the collaborative relationship evolved over time to accommodate grant outcomes. The collaboration eventually focused on identifying avenues of toxic exposure in the immediate neighborhood surrounding the only industry already documented as exceeding legal limits for several carcinogenic pollutants: Hartford Iron & Metal. Appropriate semester-long subprojects were variously implemented as the project evolved. During the prestudy, the project collaboration spanned three courses: a special topics public policy course on environmental sociology, a collective behavior and social movements course, and an individualized readings course on risk society with a small group of students interested in continuing with the collaboration (see Figure 3). BCCC initiated requests for the first two subprojects: development of geographic information system

(GIS) maps of the industrial history of Blackford County, and a short video describing their well-testing project that could be used to communicate their activities to the general public on their web page.
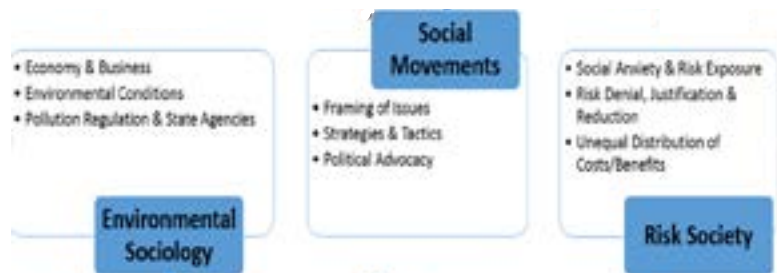

Figure 3. Application of curricula–as–research model for community-engaged scholarship. This figure identifies specific course content from three different classes that influenced the ongoing community partner collaboration

The methodologies involved in both of these requests were outside the expertise of the PI, so the professor approached IPFW's Studio M and Environmental Resources Center and asked if they would like to collaborate for these subprojects. Both agreed, and a series of maps and three videos were created by students for use

by BCCC (maps and videos are posted at *http://blackfordcounty-concernedcitizens.com/resources/*). The maps, which identified areas of concentrated industrial activity, enabled BCCC to target locations for additional soil testing for specific contaminants related to industry type. This approach was continued through the second course during which the *students* initiated two subproject ideas: social media reorganization and a photovoice project. The BCCC board approved both projects for implementation in Course 3, and the PI obtained a grant extension from Indiana Campus Compact (see Table 1). By the third course, BCCC, the PI, and students were collaborating on subprojects. The PI and BCCC were working together to test soil samples, students were training a newly positioned communications coordinator, and students were teaching BCCC board members how to use Twitter and their Facebook page.

Table 1. Multicourse subproject diversification and collaborative evolution.

Course	Subproject	Initiator	Subproject Support
Environmental Sociology	GIS maps	BCCC	Environmental Resources Center
	Project videos	BCCC	Studio M
Social Movements	GIS maps	BCCC	Environmental Resources Center
	Video update	BCCC	Studio M
Risk Society	Photovoice project	Faculty & students	
	Social media project	IPFW students	IPFW IT Services
	Communications job	Faculty & students	
	Soil testing	Faculty & BCCC	Hoosier Environmental Council & Envision Laboratories

Note: This table displays how subprojects may be initiated by multiple partners over time as part of the overall collaborative project.

An unintended consequence of this collaborative approach was that faculty colleagues responded to the PI's novice use of GIS as if the PI was an expert in GIS mapping, despite repeated claims to the contrary. GIS mapping was a phase of the service-learning collaboration that came, and went, as needed. Communicating this to colleagues in an environment where faculty are expected to engage

as experts blurred the relationship between the PI's emphasis on service-learning and colleagues' interpretations of the maps as research. The PI has felt similar pressures from the community partner, who would eventually like to produce a documentary on the unfolding story. The prestudy highlights the importance of faculty being careful to clarify when they are making a novice employ of a specific methodology for purposes of service-learning versus when their products reflect an area of expertise (see Figure 4).

Choosing the courses. The PI selected two foundational courses sequenced in alternate years to strengthen the sustainability of the ongoing partnership. In this case, because the BCCC–IPFW collaboration is a transformational partnership focused on societal-environmental relations in Blackford County, the PI designated Environmental Sociology and Social Movements as foundational courses. The PI obtained two Indiana Service Engagement
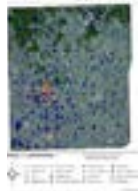
GIS Map Sample	Video Sample	Photo Voice Project	Social Media Sample

Figure 4. Novice employ of diverse methodologies for service-learning. This figure illustrates the variety of methods faculty may be asked to utilize when collaborating on an ongoing project.

Grants that were augmented by departmental matching funds to finance this part of the collaboration. During the prestudy, a small cadre of students in the Social Movements course initiated a service-learning subproject that they wanted to implement (see Table 1) the following semester, so the PI augmented course sequencing with a special readings overload course centered on risk (exposure, perception, denial, justification, and reduction; see Figure 5).

Toward the end of the Social Movements course in fall 2015, the students submitted their service-learning subproject proposals, and the BCCC board reviewed and approved the subprojects for implementation during spring 2016. This course was funded through efficient spending on a prior grant that was extended to cover costs through spring 2016. The PI obtained student grants from

the Department of Sociology, the College of Arts and Sciences, and the university's Office of Sponsored Programs to cover the costs of taking students to present at professional meetings about their experiences with community engagement. Students participated in paper presentations on the collaborative project at the 2016 Midwest Sociological Society annual meeting in Chicago.

Figure 5. Sequencing foundation and augmenting courses for sustainability. This figure illustrates how faculty may choose to augment the sequencing of foundational courses with the occasional creation of a specific course to address issues that emerge from the project collaboration.

One possibility that was considered but rejected was integration of this service-learning project into a Religion and Society course. As a reflection of a growing faith-based environmental activism movement, such integration could have been academically relevant. A local minister had participated in the well-testing video; however, he had done so as a citizen and father, not acting as minister of a particular faith. If BCCC had been formally collaborating with a local multifaith organization, integrating service-learning into the Religion and Society course might have been appropriate; however, the absence of religious diversity and the informal nature of the local minister's endorsement led the PI to consider the Religion and Society course a poor fit for the service-learning project.

The PI obtained an Indiana Campus Compact Service Engagement Grant to convene a community conversation with BCCC and Hartford Iron & Metal to explore the possibility of relocating the facility from the residential neighborhood to a more appropriate industrial location. In a voluntary service-learning assignment, a limited number of students were able to observe how various stakeholders interpreted and responded to the same social problem via a fall semester 2016 socialization course. The PI worked with students to obtain a Purdue Office of Engagement

Student Grant for a spring 2017 foundation course, Environment and Society, that is under way as of this writing; on Earth Day, students are slated to gather nine samples of moss from trees in the residential neighborhood to test for possible pollutants in the upwind/downwind air surrounding Hartford Iron & Metal. At several points in the collaboration, the current sociology chair provided matching departmental funding in support of grant applications to keep the project moving forward; however, the chair of the department will be retiring soon, and the department has been identified for university restructuring in the near future, so the long-term viability of the service-learning collaboration remains uncertain.

Findings and Discussion

The curricula-as-research model facilitated project continuity, but course discontinuity introduced an unanticipated influence on the service-learning collaborative relationship between IPFW and BCCC. The PI and students from the Risk Course reflected on these context-specific impacts in their paper presentations at the Midwest Sociological Society annual meeting *(Puff, 2016; Steiner, Wegner, Puff, & Marsh, 2016)*. During the Environmental Sociology course, BCCC representatives had exposed students to a complex situation. While students studied the tension between economic interests and environmental regulation that pervades the global economy, they also observed BCCC's efforts to identify possible contaminants. Several students were inspired by BCCC's activism. For the final service-learning trip for that course, more than 60 people came to City Hall in Hartford City to hear updates on BCCC's work to identify risk factors associated with cancer and neurologic disease, including well testing, soil testing at old glass factory sites, and the student mapping of the county's industrial history. BCCC, in partnership with HEC (and with the support of the Blackford County Health Department, EnviroForensics, and Envision Laboratories), had tested private wells and soil at some of the old glass factory sites. All of the water results came back clear, and all of the soil samples from Montpelier and Southside Elementary School had the low levels of arsenic and lead characteristic of soil in that part of Indiana. A few deposits of arsenic and lead were found at Hartford City's baseball field; the amounts were high enough to exceed Indiana's residential standard, but they were well within the standard for recreational fields *(IDEM, 2015)*. The results reduced the anxiety levels of many residents, but also contributed to an attitudinal shift among participants when the service-learning collaboration resumed the fol-

lowing fall. Failure to produce a polluting "smoking gun" affected BCCC's ability to obtain additional funding from the Blackford County Community Foundation.

BCCC changed their strategy to focus on one industry, Hartford Iron & Metal, where unacceptably high levels of carcinogenic pollution had been documented 10 years earlier by the Indiana Department of Environmental Management (IDEM). Hartford Iron & Metal had been mismanaging auto fluids and other waste on their five-acre site on Division Street. The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) got involved when dangerous levels of PCBs were discovered. In 2009, the scrapyard agreed to remove pollutants on the property, control stormwater runoff, and prevent further impact on the residential neighborhood, but cleanup efforts stalled over a dispute between Hartford Iron & Metal and Valley Forge Insurance while Hartford Iron & Metal activities continued to expand *(Slabaugh, 2016a)*. BCCC met with representatives from IDEM asking them to enforce the order. IDEM and the EPA have brought enforcement actions to fine Hartford Iron & Metal and enforce remediation, but the pollution has continued. Other than addressing direct stormwater runoff to city streets bordering the junkyard, attention to Hartford Iron & Metal's impact on the immediate neighborhood has been minimal at best. Citizens routinely complain about fugitive dust; children are particularly vulnerable to the types of pollutants produced by Hartford Iron & Metal *(Slabaugh, 2016b)*. The immediate neighborhood surrounding Hartford Iron & Metal is disproportionately poor. Residents have not yet organized a neighborhood association to advocate for their interests and concerns.

Students approached the service-learning collaboration with expectations that change on behalf of residents in the Hartford Iron & Metal neighborhood was possible. Throughout the second course, students studied successful and unsuccessful case studies of social change. When they interacted with their service partners, however, they were repeatedly cautioned by BCCC board members against being overly optimistic. Students encountered a diverse array of frames (e.g., risk denial, risk justification, and risk reduction) on their service-learning trips, so the PI facilitated several in-class discussions with students about the social construction of social problems and the importance of framing for human agency in social movements. Students updated the water-testing video from the previous semester to include the good news about the negative findings, and added the industrial history of Montpelier to the Blackford County maps.

As the semester drew to a close, the BCCC board asked students to provide recommendations based on their readings of the social movement literature. One group of students focused on the role of social media usage as a social movement strategy. They then conducted a SWOT (strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats) analysis of BCCC's social media and critiqued it as an underutilized resource. They presented recommendations for social media reorganization and expressed a desire to continue with the service-learning project. The board discussed and approved their proposal in time for students to enroll in an individualized readings course focused on risk for spring semester 2016. BCCC's funding from the Blackford County Community Foundation that supported Hoosier Environmental Council's environmental health project director was coming to an end, so any future collaboration with HEC would be performed by BCCC board members volunteering their time. Dr. Frank, drawing upon resources at HEC, had processed donations, maintained an updated donor and newsletter data base, written and delivered regular newsletters, maintained social media sites, communicated with residents interested in testing their water and/ or soil, and answered email inquiries. BCCC board members were unable to maintain this level of activity on a volunteer basis and they became discouraged about what their nonprofit organization might contribute to the community. Students disagreed with BCCC board members about what might be possible in Blackford County. They were convinced that BCCC, despite funding issues and a weak infrastructure, could influence community dynamics associated with Hartford Iron & Metal if they reduced their rural isolation by appropriately connecting to relevant virtual communities *(Puff, 2016; Steiner et al., 2016)*. BCCC board members were less optimistic about how an increased presence on the internet might influence community dynamics.

Throughout spring semester 2016, the PI and students continued to encounter diverse risk responses from community members. They distributed 30 cameras to residents for a photovoice project. Photovoice is an approach to service learning that uses video and/or photographic images to empower marginalized people by capturing aspects of their experience to share with other people. In 1992, Caroline Wang and Mary Ann Burris gave cameras to rural village women in Yunnan Province, China and asked them to document their lives in ways that would provide insight into the power relationships that affect their lives. The method of photovoice is built upon the following five principles: 1) images teach, 2) pictures can influence policy, 3) community members

ought to participate in creating and defining the images that shape public policy, 4) the process requires policy makers to serve as an audience, and 5) individuals and communities take action *(Wang & Burris, 1997)*. When IPFW conducted the photovoice project in Hartford City, local participation was less than what was hoped for; of the 30 cameras that were distributed, only 23% fully participated. Despite extensive discussion with residents about the importance of using this project as an opportunity to voice community concerns in relation to the mission of BCCC, the majority of photos that were taken expressed pride of place without controversy or critique (e.g., most of the photos were of the Carnegie library and the beautiful courthouse). This behavior was consistent with results of other photovoice service-learning projects *(e.g., Bell, 2015)*, but the PI and students were surprised by how few photos were used to address public health issues. The PI and students encouraged the BCCC board to choose a hashtag to record social media posts that would make residents most comfortable. BCCC chose the hashtag #BlackfordProud. When it came time to post commentary with photos on social media, the number of participants had shrunk so much that the board decided to create posts as a group to learn together how to use social media in a manner consistent with BCCC's mission. Board members developed a series of tweets that told local stories of community improvement and transformation before they addressed the situation of children playing in fugitive dust at the entrance of Hartford Iron & Metal (see Figure 6). Although students were discouraged by the low levels of community participation, the board considered this photovoice project a trial run. Board members kept the unused cameras and asked to repeat the photovoice project in the future now that they understood the process and were more comfortable using social media to the organization's advantage.

When the PI and the students reflected on how the collaborative dynamics shifted throughout Courses 2 and 3, they developed the diagram shown in Figure 7 to indicate how the IPFW service-learning collaboration influenced BCCC regarding the community dynamics surrounding Hartford Iron & Metal *(Steiner et al., 2016)*. The ongoing collaboration with IPFW influenced the board of BCCC to maintain communications with their constituencies in relation to ongoing board engagement with Indiana Department of Environmental Management (IDEM) and the role of the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) about enforcement of Hartford Iron & Metal cleanup activities.

Figure 6. Photovoice commentary on Hartford Iron & Metal. This figure illustrates what can emerge from student contributions to a collaborative project over time.
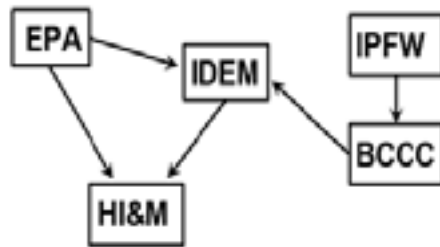

Figure 7. IPFW service-learning as contingent actor. This figure illustrates how the students came to indirectly influence community dynamics surrounding Hartford Iron & Metal (HI&M) through their collaboration with BCCC.
Source: Steiner, Wegner, Puff, & Marsh (2016).

Sustaining Collaboration Through Satisficing

Over time, the PI engaged in suboptimal satisficing behaviors to sustain and develop the collaborative project with BCCC. When failure to identify high concentrations of soil or water pollutants weakened local foundation support, the environmental health director shifted to work primarily with Hoosier Environmental Council. This left BCCC without anyone to write their newsletters and update their social media sites. The BCCC board trusted the PI by providing the PI with access to their social media sites to

enable students to reorganize and integrate BCCC's online presence. When the semester came to an end, the PI and students presented BCCC with a communication coordinator volunteer job description and encouraged them to find a resident interested in maintaining communication with their constituency. Initial efforts failed to implement this process; however, one resident has been identified and is currently obtaining university training in social media. In the meantime, the PI has written and distributed two BCCC newsletters as suboptimal boundary-spanning activity to keep the BCCC constituency updated regarding the ongoing nonprofit activities.

After the departure of the environmental health director from BCCC, the PI maintained contact in an effort to secure funding for a collaborative case control community health survey of Blackford County. The PI applied for external grants from national, regional, and university sources, but case control studies are expensive, the grants were highly competitive, and funding was not secured. The PI decided to shift attention to popular epidemiology as a suboptimal satisficing strategy. Along with this shift, the PI narrowed the coalition to focus on BCCC as the core partner.

The PI successfully applied to become a Scholarship of Engagement Fellow with Purdue University and used fellow funds to pay for residential soil testing for pollutants around Hartford Iron & Metal as a popular epidemiological exploration of neighborhood health issues. The first 10 of 15 soil samples were gathered by the PI in collaboration with BCCC board members as part of boundary-spanning activities between classes; students assisted with collection of the final five samples. Four of the 15 samples indicated heavy metal contamination above Indiana background levels, but none were high enough to be actionable according to EPA residential yard standards. Benzo(a)pyrene, a carcinogen, was detected at two locations, but this substance is an example of a polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbon that can come from a wide variety of sources (including barbecuing, asphalt sealcoating, and creosote-covered railroad ties); the findings did not unequivocally point to the activities of Hartford Iron & Metal. Enough pollution was found to motivate the PI to secure funding to continue with additional testing.

Popular epidemiology involves a process of activism where epidemiological findings are used to explore possible causes of community health problems to alleviate suffering and query whether (for example) cancer-related deaths might be due to pollution that has escaped official medical surveys *(Brown, 1992)*. The popular

epidemiology approach tends to interpret findings in accordance with the precautionary principle that aims to shift the burden of proof from exposed communities onto producers and distributors of pollutants and to prioritize democratic over private interests in an attempt to preempt community harm. Actionable levels are lower for air than soil pollution since the point of contact between humans and the pollutants is considered to be more direct for air than for soil. Although testing air samples was previously avoided because of its prohibitive cost, tree moss has been increasingly used as an affordable surrogate for air pollution testing *(Gatziolis, Jovan, Donovan, Amacher, & Monleon, 2016)*. This form of sampling underlies the previously mentioned plan for students to collect moss samples on Earth Day 2017.

Conclusion

This article has had two purposes. On a theoretical level, an attempt has been made to extend the organized anarchy paradigm to the scholarship of engagement in the context of institutional devolution and restructuring. The model proposed that scholarship of engagement can operate with some limited flexibility within classical bureaucratic chain-of-command constraints in uncertain environments. On a more practical level, the model suggests several managerial recommendations for faculty interested in reducing the personal risk involved in community-engaged research. The opportunity to engage in valuable boundary-spanning behavior is enhanced when faculty pick a complex problem worth solving, find a community partner interested in developing a transformational partnership, choose a project that can accommodate a variety of subprojects that can be realistically aligned with a 15-week semester, choose a set of foundational courses for the ongoing integration of service-learning, and identify a set of augmenting courses that are less tightly integrated into the service-learning collaboration for "filling in" as opportunities arise. Prestudy findings also indicate that the novice employ of methodologies in association with subprojects may pose risk to faculty who are expected to be methodological experts. The added workload associated with piecing together funding should be carefully considered; faculty may hesitate to invest in ongoing collaborations that are plagued by financial uncertainties.

In keeping with Butin *(2010)*, the inability to secure funding in support of a case control study suggested that there may be an engagement ceiling for higher education that is oriented toward the public good, and that the *limits* of service-learning must be understood in order to maximize the pedagogical possibilities. In this case, the PI shifted toward adoption of a satisficing approach to the project (popular epidemiology). This strategic shift was particularly noteworthy as a boundary-spanning behavior that reflected an internal locus of control that increased the spanner's ability to frame ideas as opportunities *(Holmes & Moir, 2007)*. When the PI concluded that the normative "ideal" of a case control study was not possible for this particular collaboration, the PI shifted strategies to do what could be done within the boundaries posed by the given financial constraints. Nevertheless, the curricula-as-research model explores the merits of greater investment in faculty as boundary spanners despite the trend toward the increased institutionalization of service-learning. The curriculum itself may be an important factor influencing the evolution of collaborative partnerships.

A key limitation of this work is the focus on individual faculty choices for addressing complex problems that involve institutional and systemic change. Although the article is attuned to how faculty might make the best of constraining circumstances (e.g., applying for grants, shifting to more affordable satisficing models, engaging in extracurricular activities to ensure the collaboration continues between class sessions, making novice use of methodologies requested by the collaborative partners), the model is not useful for addressing the kinds of institutional cultural changes that are needed. Neither is this approach conducive to understanding how to create collective impact community collaborations for effective responses to messy problems. Although recent studies of boundary-spanner roles have emphasized the entrepreneurial function that boundary spanners play in *expanding networks* and bringing innovation in cross-sector partnerships *(Ryan & O'Malley, 2016)*, this work has identified the way in which faculty engage in boundary spanning under pressures of constraint and *network reduction*. Sometimes coalition devolution and extracurricular activities are appropriate boundary-spanning innovations when financial pressures necessitate suboptimal satisficing behavior. In either case, whether networks are expanding or contracting, the ability to manage trustworthy networks appears to be a consistent boundary-spanning behavior that is essential to the maintenance of healthy and sustainable collaborative partnerships. Boundary spanners play an important role when they build effective personal relations and demonstrate an ability to manage in nonhierarchical decision environments through negotiation and brokering *(Williams, 2002)*.

Future research might implement what Swedberg *(2012)* refers to as Phase 2 of the research process. According to Swedberg, research data enters into the overall research process at two different stages: the more familiar test data stage, in relation to hypothesis testing, and the less familiar illustrative data stage, where empirical observations are used for theoretical development. This prestudy empirically illustrated a curricula-as-research model with an ethnography of IPFW's 2-year research collaboration with BCCC in Blackford County, Indiana. Future research might execute a research design to test a model hypothesis in a context of justification. Research might also explore whether this model poses less risk to faculty and is more conducive to development of sustainable university–community collaborations than other systemic engagement models.

There are many important questions that remain unresolved in this work. The model is strong on structure and faculty motivation for investing in the individual during a time of service-learning institutionalization. The model is weak on processes and effectiveness. More specific evidence is needed to link the use of particular boundary-spanning competencies or collaborative behavior techniques to outcomes.

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About the Author

Sherrie Steiner is assistant professor of sociology at Indiana University Purdue University Fort Wayne (IPFW). Her research focus is on community engagement with particular attention to environmental sociology, sociology of religion, and social change. She obtained her Ph.D. from Washington State University.

Undergraduate Learning Through Engaged Scholarship and University–Community Partnerships

Kristen L. Tarantino

Abstract

The impact of university–community partnerships and involvement in engaged scholarship on student learning was examined through in-depth interviews with undergraduate members of a student-led, community-based research organization at a selective mid-Atlantic university. Students reported benefits of participation that included increasing critical thinking skills, changing perspectives, and practicing facilitation and decision-making skills. Students also reported experiences of enhancing learning by developing a deeper understanding and ownership of the project. Findings suggest the need for a deeper look at how students are interacting with communities and how that interaction can lead to enhanced learning outcomes.

Keywords: student learning, engaged scholarship, community-based research

Introduction

*T*he field of community engagement in higher education has begun to address, in some form, each of three constituent areas: the university and its faculty, the students, and the community. Each area relates to a particular niche of community engagement. Though recent research trends have indicated an increased focus on the effects of engagement on the community, calls for accountability related to student learning remain. Research that addresses the role of students or student learning in community engagement is most visible in the service-learning literature. Such research points to the benefits of service-learning programs *(Astin & Sax, 1998; Eyler & Giles, 1999)*, ways to assess these programs *(Bringle & Hatcher, 2009; Holland, 2001; Lichtenstein, Thorme, Cutforth, & Tombari, 2011)*, and strategies for producing future programs *(Furco & Holland, 2004; Hodge, Lewis, Kramer, & Hughes, 2001)*.

College students interact with communities through various experiential learning opportunities such as internships, service-learning courses, and volunteer service trips. These types of learning experiences have generally been specific and tied to a particular community. Although students routinely engage in these experi-

ences, there are few sustainable means through which students may continue their involvement with a particular community over time. For example, for many students, a week-long service trip is a "one and done" type of experience with little or no future interaction with that specific community. Though the experience of interacting with a community may provide a hands-on approach to academic material or a change in global perspective for students, long-term engagement with a community enhances the quality and benefits of experiential learning *(Roberts, Mason, & Marler, 1999; Wallace, 2000).*

However, students who participate in community-based projects must have a foundation in the abilities and conceptual knowledge necessary to contribute in meaningful and sustainable ways. Without the necessary background in research or discipline-specific knowledge, students may do more harm than good while engaging with a community *(Gelmon, Holland, Seifer, Shinnamon, & Connors, 1998; Peterson, 2009).* Community-based projects should be built on partnerships between communities and campuses such that both sides may benefit from involvement *(Strand, Marullo, Cutforth, Stoecker, & Donohue, 2003).* For students, little is reported on how active participation in these partnerships benefits their learning. This article presents findings from a larger study that was designed to examine the impact of university–community partnerships on student learning. The case under study is that of a specific student organization that incorporates research, service, and academic learning within the context of a community-based project, while also incorporating students as equal partners in the process. Understanding the unique design of this organization led to the creation of a new model for integrating the missions of higher education with a community to form a true engagement.

The present article aims to address two main questions regarding student learning: (a) What is the value for students of being engaged in community-based participatory research? (b) How does the experience of working in and with the community enhance the learning experience for students?

Literature Review

For college students, community engagement has mostly been conceptualized as service. Morton *(1995)* differentiates to three paradigms of service that aid in understanding its role in higher education: service as charity, service as a project, and service as social change (also referred to as activism). For many service trips and volunteer opportunities, students experience service as charity.

These experiences are limited to the time in which the service project or trip is conducted and rarely offer opportunities to understand the root causes of the social problems witnessed *(Morton, 1995).* In contrast, conceptualizing service as a project allows for a focus on defining a problem and implementing solutions to fix it. In the project model, a true dichotomy is exhibited between the "experts" and the "served," and there is little or no effort by the "experts" to further reflect or redefine the project as circumstances may dictate *(Morton, 1995).* Service as social change is probably the most time and resource intensive because it involves building and maintaining relationships with the community, fostering reflexive learning, and trying to focus on the process of understanding the root causes of a problem. For students to really develop a sense of service as social change, institutions need to utilize existing structures of service-learning courses but also develop new strategies to create a more lasting commitment to understanding and establishing partnerships with communities.

Students involved in service-learning benefit from the development of skills such as critical thinking, interpersonal skills, and leadership skills *(Astin & Sax, 1998; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Jameson, Clayton, & Ash, 2013).* Additionally, service experiences incorporated into an academic course create opportunities to connect theory and concepts with a hands-on, real-world application *(Kuh, 2008; Ramaley, 2009; Reardon, 1998; Roberts et al., 1999).* Similarly, service-learning courses can increase students' personal awareness and understanding of social problems *(Astin & Sax, 1998; Cermak et al., 2011; Eyler & Giles, 1999).* This increased awareness can enhance a student's notion of civic responsibility and the role that the student will play in future community interactions *(Astin & Sax, 1998; Brukardt, Holland, Percy, & Zimpher, 2004).* However, the greatest benefit seems to lie in the cooperative learning experiences that a student engages in through collaborating with peers and interacting with community members *(Astin & Sax, 1998; Brukardt et al., 2004; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Liu & Dall'Alba, 2012; Ramaley, 2009; Reardon, 1998).*

University–Community Partnerships

Meaningful student learning that occurs as a result of experiential, community-based opportunities is not possible without successful university–community partnerships. Establishing these partnerships is important for the sustainability of any engaged scholarship effort. Existing literature suggests multiple elements that make a successful university–community partnership, such as communication between the university and community *(Strand,*

2000; Vernon & Ward, 1999; Weerts, 2005) and utilization of the community voice in identifying needs *(Christopher, Watts, McCormick, & Young, 2008; Fear et al., 2004; Gelmon et al., 1998; Strand et al., 2003; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2000)*. Partnerships that recognize the importance of building a relationship based on trust take time to encourage the community voice *(Barnes et al., 2009; Christopher et al., 2008)*. These partnerships encourage open dialogue among the community and campus representatives in order to minimize the influence of power and privilege held by one or both sides of the partnership so that equitable terms are created between partners. Several studies emphasize the amount of time needed to develop a successful partnership *(Clayton, Bringle, Senor, Huq, & Morrison, 2010; Vernon & Ward, 1999; Wallace, 2000)*. Clayton et al. *(2010)* describe the main difference between reciprocity and mutual transformation as the amount of time spent interacting collaboratively with a community. An example of a university–community partnership at work can be seen in the development of community-based research projects.

Partnerships Through Community-Based Research

The use of community-based research (CBR) showcases attempts by institutions of higher education to conduct research in tandem with the community. Strand *(2000)* stresses that the role of the community in CBR is one of involvement in every stage of the process. In the CBR model, research is conducted "*with* the community, not *on* the community" *(Strand, 2000, p. 85)*. There are three primary elements that identify CBR projects *(Stoecker, 2003; Strand et al., 2003)*. First, a CBR project is collaborative between the academic and community sides of the project. Essential in both CBR projects and university–community partnerships is the idea that "the needs and capacities of the community must define the approach that the university should take" *(Ramaley, 2009, p. 148)*. Communities have unique insight into the needs and problems they face. Within the context of CBR, communities are the "experts" on their unique situations. The academic side of the partnership (faculty and students), however, also has unique expertise and resources to bring to the table. The key to success is to find a balance between the two sides in order to promote a mutually collaborative process.

Second, CBR projects use multiple and interdisciplinary sources of knowledge *(Strand et al., 2003)*. For the academic side of the partnership, this means reaching beyond the confines of a particular discipline to gain a better understanding of the whole picture. Ramaley *(2009)* supports the idea that "any partnership must

be based on the academic strengths, educational philosophy, and institutional goals of the university" *(p. 148)*. However, the community also helps to provide the whole picture by contextualizing the project, in what Ramaley *(2009)* refers to as a "culture of evidence" *(p. 149)*. To produce a whole picture, CBR projects rely on a mixed-methods approach. These methods include quantitative and qualitative measures of data as well as ethnographic approaches to conducting research in the community.

Finally, the goal of any project is action that results in social change or social justice. Because social change is not an easy or short process, CBR projects are typically long-term projects, the basis of which lies in redefining the project goals as the need arises. Researchers and communities that are engaged in a CBR project must reflectively adjust the project's needs, and students who are involved with these types of projects often point to the challenges of working in an uncontrollable environment *(Roberts et al., 1999)*. Reardon *(1998)* states that this type of research is "expected to follow a nonlinear course throughout the investigation as the problem being studied is 'reframed' to accommodate new knowledge that emerges" *(p. 59)*. The continual process of reassessing the project goals based on the research that is developed allows the project to be relevant to current circumstances in order to achieve the best results for both the academic partner and the community.

A lack of research on students involved in CBR supports findings that the primary avenue for student learning through experiential involvement seems to be curricular engagement: service-learning, internships, and study abroad *(Brown et al., 2006)*. However, the benefits for student involvement seem to mirror those benefits achieved through service-learning courses. These benefits include thinking critically about existing social structures and inequities *(Reardon, 1998; Strand et al., 2003)*, applying learning to real-world situations *(Brown et al., 2006; Willis, Peresie, Waldref, & Stockmann, 2003)*, and learning listening skills, decision-making skills, and teamwork strategies *(Brukardt et al., 2004; Strand et al., 2003)*.

A common barrier to producing successful partnerships in CBR projects is a lack of equality and reciprocity between partners due to apparent social and economic hierarchies. However, Strand *(2000)* found that social hierarchies are largely irrelevant in CBR projects that involve undergraduate students, allowing communities to openly engage and collaborate with students for the length of the project. The ability to build this level of trust and comfort with the students can be attributed to the community perception of students as young, inexperienced, and from a similar or lower

socioeconomic status. Students in turn achieve a greater familiarity with the community and a greater feeling of responsibility and accountability toward the community *(Strand, 2000)*. Though CBR projects allow students to fully interact with and gain meaningful experiences from working with a community, rarely are these projects incorporated into an academic course. Additionally, since academic courses are generally confined to the length of a semester, students do not establish the lasting connection with a community through service-learning courses that they would establish through a CBR project.

A Partnership Between Students and the Community: The Case

The main focus of this study is the partnership between a specific student organization at a mid-Atlantic university and an individual community in the Dominican Republic. The student organization began as a student-led campus organization that provides a free medical clinic in country for a week in January. What began as a service trip in 2004 blossomed into a determination to make a lasting impact on the community. Students sought out a sociology professor at the university, who later became their faculty advisor, to help them forge a sustainable link with the community by investigating the underlying causes of major health concerns present in the community. Since 2005, students have been instructed by their advisor on how to accomplish ethnographic research that aims at promoting ways of improving the health of the community residents. Although the research generated from this partnership will be invaluable to the community and for informing best practices for this kind of student-led partnership, there is currently little reported evidence to show the value of this partnership for the students involved.

In the current structure of the student organization, students apply to join the research "team" and are chosen at the discretion of current members. Although there is some emphasis on language proficiency in Spanish, the team also encourages non-Spanish speakers to apply. Once accepted on the team, students are expected to remain with the team until they graduate. Each semester, team members enroll in a three-credit-hour seminar course specifically designed for the organization. The fall semester generally covers introductory and preparation material for the upcoming winter break trip. The team completes reading assignments, reviews literature, and conducts independent literature research into past and current community development projects. The class time is split

into two sessions: a 1-hour business meeting, which focuses on the logistics of the team and organization of the trip, and a 2-hour seminar at which the faculty advisor is present and the group focuses more on the relevant literature and a discussion of the project itself.

Between the fall and spring semesters, the team travels to the Dominican Republic and participates in a week-long clinic as well as community development in early January. The clinic is operated by medical providers from the United States and varies in the number of providers that attend each year. The community development aspect is strictly the purview of the students' organization and is focused on addressing the underlying factors contributing to the community's prevalent health concerns. The students gather information from community members and engage with the community directly through personal interviews about health issues. The spring semester is typically designed to focus on analysis of information that was gathered during the trip as well as recruitment and reorganization of the team for the next year. In some years, a few students may also go back to the Dominican Republic during the summer for about 6 weeks. These trips generate more data about the particular contexts and concerns of the community while solidifying the team's presence in the community. The ultimate goal is for the organization to work with the community to develop a plan of action that addresses conditions contributing to complex health needs.

Conceptual Framings: Challenges and Possibilities

A review of the literature regarding community engagement has suggested three discrete approaches to categorizing engagement efforts: as research, as service, or as teaching and learning. Each approach maintains its own field of knowledge and draws upon its own body of research to inform best practices. However, there is little evidence suggesting how these approaches work in tandem. Most of the literature reports how two of these approaches can work together. For example, service-learning is an effort to provide new opportunities for student learning through service activities. CBR projects, on the other hand, recognize the need to involve communities in the research process and continually work toward promoting the welfare of the community.

Categorizing the student organization under study into a particular type of community engagement proved difficult in the context of the existing literature. The organization exists as both a

student-run and student-led organization that performs a much-needed service to a marginalized community. It also includes a rigorous academic component. Students are required to participate in a seminar course each semester and earn credits toward their degrees. The team project is by design a research-based project in which students actively serve as the researchers and cocreators of knowledge with their advisor, as well as with the community. Using Bringle, Games, and Malloy *(1999)* as the basis for the framework for this study, the proposed model for engagement efforts includes a way for learning, service, and research to interact with one another in a given community context. As the model is depicted in Figure 1, each triangle represents a particular area (i.e., community, research, service, or academics). The diamond in the center represents the area in which all of these subcategories combine to describe projects that incorporate all of the listed components, much like the student organization under study.

Figure 1. Conceptual model of how interaction among community, research, service, and academics can create a portal for engaged scholarship as defined by the student organization's model. Each triangle represents Adapted from Bringle, Games, and Malloy (1999).

Although this conceptual model has many of the same interactions advocated by Bringle et al. *(1999)*, a difference between the two models is the central area where the four contextual areas of academics, service, research, and community connect. This central area suggests that some engagement efforts incorporate all of

these elements into a given project. The examined student organization would likely fall into this central area. More importantly, this model reflects, from the student perspective, how to incorporate the four contextual areas and participate in engagement efforts. It is this model that frames the findings of this study, as well as the conceptualization of the project and how students have come to understand their role in engaged scholarship.

Researcher Positionality

The student organization under study came to my attention after a presentation of the group's work by its faculty advisor. The advisor presented on how the organization conducted ethnographic and community-based research in the Dominican Republic, emphasizing the value that it would have for the community. However, it became clear that there was no means of capturing how students were affected by their involvement. I obtained permission from the advisor to interview students about their experiences with the organization. Although I was never a formal member of the group, I was affiliated with the university that housed the organization during the data collection and analysis process.

Methods

As part of a larger study, this research employed a qualitative phenomenology case study *(Creswell, 2013)*, in which the phenomenon of student experiences in a unique community engagement program provided a focal point. At the center of phenomenology is the search for the essence of the experience, which is accomplished in this study through "phenomenological reflection" *(van Manen, 1990, p. 77)*. Such reflection is to be understood as retrospective of a past experience. Given my role in interpretation of students' experiences, I utilized hermeneutic phenomenology, which is "focused on subjective experience of individuals and groups. It is an attempt to unveil the world as experienced by the subject" *(Kafle, 2011, p. 186)*.

Given the bounded nature of the research, I also used a case study structure because all of the participants were enrolled in the same organization *(Merriam, 1998)*. "By concentrating on a single phenomenon or entity (the case), the researcher aims to uncover the interaction of significant factors characteristic of the phenomenon" *(Merriam, 1998, p. 29)*. My purpose was to use the bounded case from an instrumental perspective *(Stake,1995)*, which allowed me to examine issues that pertain to the student experience within

the organization. This article addresses two research questions: (a) What is the value for students to be engaged in community-based participatory research? (b) How does the experience of working in and with the community enhance the learning experience for students?

Participants

Undergraduate students at a selective, mid-Atlantic university who were members of a specific community engagement–oriented organization and enrolled in a fall 2011 seminar, Community Health and Participatory Development, were sought as the participants for this study. With the permission of the faculty advisor for the organization, interested students were asked to volunteer their participation. Of the 13 members of the organization, five students chose to participate (four female, one male). These participants represent a variety of class years (one senior, two juniors, and two sophomores) and varying years of involvement with the project (first trip to the Dominican Republic through fourth trip). Due to the small size of the group and racial/ethnic composition of the organization, I purposefully did not gather demographic data about race or ethnicity so as to keep participants' identities as confidential as possible. This study was exempted from formal review by the Institutional Review Board at the participating institution.

Data Collection

Each student participated in two interviews; interviews were scheduled around the timing of the team's trip to the Dominican Republic. Students were asked to provide a pseudonym of their choosing so that their responses would remain anonymous. Interviews were conducted in a mixture of Skype and face-to-face formats due to student scheduling and availability. All interviews were audio recorded with the students' permission. Those students who participated in a Skype interview were subsequently audio and video recorded with the student's consent. Ten interviews were completed in total, five during the first round and five during the second round.

The first round of interviews was conducted following the fall semester and prior to the trip to the Dominican Republic. These interviews focused on the students' perceptions of membership in the organization, experiences in the classroom environment, understanding of engagement scholarship, and preparation for the trip. Each interview lasted between 40 minutes and 1 hour. The second

round of interviews was conducted at least 3 weeks following students' return from the Dominican Republic. This round focused on the students' experiences while in the Dominican Republic and averaged about an hour in length. Questions during this interview addressed community interactions, the team dynamic, and moments of student learning.

After all interviews were completed, each recording was transcribed verbatim. The individual transcriptions were then e-mailed to the corresponding student for verification that the tone and content of the interview was not misrepresented. Students were given a week to submit any changes or additions to the transcripts. However, they did not submit any changes. Final versions of the interview transcripts were then used for analysis.

Data Analysis

The students' responses guided the "pattern[s] of meaning" that developed through the thematic analysis of the interview data, not a predetermined theory or idea *(Creswell, 2013, p. 25)*. Merriam *(1998)* explained that meaning making "involves consolidating, reducing, and interpreting what people have said and what the researcher has seen and read" *(p. 178)*. Consistent with a holistic reading approach *(van Manen, 1990)*, I analyzed student interviews as a single data source instead of five paired sources (pretrip/posttrip). The interview transcripts were analyzed line-by-line and coded for those statements or phrases that suggested the structure of meaning for the lived experiences of participants *(van Manen, 1990)*. Emerging themes developed based on the patterns in the coding *(Merriam, 1998)* and the focus on identification of the essence of the experience *(Savin-Baden & Major, 2013)*. This interpretation led to the configuration of four overall themes from the study at large, two of which are the subject of this article: benefits of involvement and enhanced student learning.

Findings

Benefits of Involvement

Students reported benefits of involvement that are consistent with the literature on the benefits of service participation. The students involved in the organization referred to experiences that created a change in their perspectives, the development of critical thinking skills, and the development of various group organization skills. Experiences also reminded students of the uncontrollable

nature of the project and that preparation is key but not absolute in the success of the project.

Change in perspective. Students experienced a change in perspective when their responses indicated a shift in the perception of previously held information about the world. In particular, participation in the team provided opportunities for students to develop an understanding of the nature of community development. Lucy felt that her most significant insight from the project was that the change process can be difficult. In her posttrip interview, she explained,

> We've no definite proof that in a year much is gonna have changed in the community. A lot of it depends on them, and so the lessons of outside-in versus community-up change, where does that come from? Doesn't matter how much you want to change things or how intentionally and research based and well thought out your approach is, development is really hard and really getting results that matter to the people that are living there that are lasting, that feel relevant, that they feel included in, really difficult.

Lucy's perspective changed throughout her time with the organization, which she joined her freshman year because she wanted to "give back to a community" by using "all of the intentionality and the research that went into this particular project." As a result of the multiple trips she has taken to the Dominican Republic, she now understands how time intensive and difficult the social change process is for communities.

Christopher had a different type of perspective change. Since this was his inaugural trip to the Dominican Republic, he intellectually understood the challenges he would see but did not fully comprehend the impact of these challenges. After relating a story about a difficult experience in the clinic, Christopher reflected,

> You know, we live in a country that has resources and has the potential to attend to a lot of the same health issues that we're seeing in the clinic. But. They're just not attended to and so [the medical provider] was kind of, we were talking about how she was a little upset about, you know, our stuff's not together, how are we supposed to expect third world countries that don't have these resources to do the same to provide the same type of

> healthcare as we do in the states? . . . I mean it sounds super naïve and probably ridiculous, when I react in kind to this way, but it's things that you just don't hear about. You don't really think about when you're kind of in a bubble at home and so it was good because it kind of like broke through that like ignorance a little bit I think.

This experience allowed Christopher to empathize with the community members and be able to truly understand what life is like in the community. He also called attention to the idea that a typical college student may not have such perspective-shifting experiences on a college campus. Elizabeth also referred to this phenomenon of changing perspectives in college students. She explained,

> It's hard to accept but it's kind of true that especially in college, everyone's very idealistic and you think that everything is always gonna work out and that everything you do to help someone is always the right thing. And I think that the self-critical part of this project and being there and seeing, you know, sometimes things aren't always as easy as you would think they would be.

Elizabeth's reflection suggests that involvement in similar projects can often be disillusioning for students. Experiences in country that do not match up with a student's ideal world create opportunities for students to explore the dissonance that occurs from this disparity and develop a new perspective from which to view the world.

Critical thinking skills. A primary learning outcome for many liberal education programs is the development of critical thinking skills *(AAC&U, 2009)*. *Critical thinking* refers to the ability of an individual to gather and explore various information before making a decision or coming to a conclusion *(AAC&U, 2009)*. Although none of the students referred to this skill by name, it became clear that moments when they had to balance difficult choices with their current knowledge required a certain level of critical thinking ability. For example, Rachel, a native Spanish speaker, described in her posttrip interview the difficulty she had in conversing with community members. Her experience suggests that she had to not only weigh which words to choose but also be able to communicate those words back in a different language. She described the process of communicating with community members as

thinking hard about who it was and I mean you're not supposed to be that subjective but at the same time like you have to be . . . but also objectively think, "Okay, here's the culture of the country. How do I word this so that I can reach the major number of people at this meeting?" So a lot of this was thinking about like past stuff but also thinking, "Well if I say this this way, they're gonna take it wrongly and, you know, completely misconstrue what I'm trying to say." Or just thinking, "Well if I say this then I think the whole team is now like promising that this is gonna happen."

Rachel further explained how she needed to be selective about the things she said so that she was respectful of the culture and the people in the community. She reflected,

> That's such a big challenge because there's a lot of explaining that you have to do and a lot of sort of care that you have to take in explaining. You have to make sure that you don't say too much because if it's somebody in the government, you don't wanna tell them everything and you don't wanna spark any animosity.

The importance of choosing her words carefully forced Rachel to consider not only her vocabulary but also the audience and what could be inferred from her choice of words. Her reflection about this challenge shows how she was able to draw on her ability to analyze the situation critically and make an appropriate decision.

Elizabeth spoke of using her experiences with the organization to guide her thinking about future causes she might choose to be involved in. She remarked,

> I think that this project really makes you question and say, sometimes if the—if you're not doing things the right, not right way, but if you're not doing things in a sustainable way and really putting what the people of the communities want first, are you actually helping by donating to these causes?

For Elizabeth, her participation in the organization has given her the ability and critical lens through which she can begin to choose what fund raisers or charities she donates to and whether those causes are truly helping a community as advertised.

Another experience that Elizabeth mentioned was dealing with situations in country that the team had not anticipated. For

example, in discussing the voting process for community block meetings, Elizabeth described how the team needed to reexamine their approach. She explained,

> We hadn't really come head to head with things like illiteracy. Like, we had talked about how some people are illiterate so we knew how to handle that in the clinical setting, in the way we prescribe medications, the way we talk people through how to take medications, but we had never talked about it in terms of like voting. You know, how are people gonna vote if they can't read the options? And then the stigma attached to things like illiteracy, you know, you're not gonna say, "Who here can't read the ballot? Raise your hand." You know, there's a lot of stigma and so we had to navigate a lot of those issues.

This unanticipated challenge provided an opportunity for the team to reexamine the issue of illiteracy in a new context. Critical thinking skills, in this case, required students to synthesize new information and contexts with previous learned experiences. Both Rachel and Elizabeth suggested ways in which these skills were manifested by the team while in the community.

Group maintenance skills. A final benefit of student involvement with the organization is skills associated with group maintenance. These skills included decision making, communication, and facilitation of meetings. Most of the students spoke of group decision-making and the challenges associated with it. Lola spoke in her posttrip interview about the challenges of navigating decision making when students were highly invested in the project.

> [One] of the best outcomes of that is honest conversation because every decision that is made has to go through the entire group and people voice their opinions respectfully but honestly. So like for example, who was gonna go to the government meeting, that is a decision, you know it seems like a small decision but it's like well do we want just older people to go to that meeting or do we want like a past and present [organization] representation, stuff like that so, and they're very vocal people in this group because they're all passionate about you know what we're doing and just being able to communicate with people effectively and respectfully is very

important to our success as well as the success in the community.

Communicating effectively among the team members was essential to smooth decision-making while in country. However, since the team never really knew what would happen until they were in country, Rachel commented that "being able to make quick decisions and just thinking on my feet" was a significant learning experience. Rachel further explained this as significant because "you're very much sheltered on campus and like in your usual classes, and like during the trip there were many times when I just kind of like had to make a decision on the fly." The experiences Rachel and the other students had while being in country offered them the chance to learn to trust their ability to make decisions under the pressure of time and consequence.

Another skill that Lucy and Elizabeth pointed to as being learned from their experiences was the ability to facilitate meetings. Lucy confirmed,

> facilitating meetings is just really difficult, and second, some skills in facilitating meetings that I don't think I had previously. It's very difficult to make sure that everyone is heard. Everyone's opinion is heard. Everyone feels included, but at the same time you don't fracture so much that the point of the meeting doesn't get across.

Lucy's response suggests that facilitation is a skill that is less about presenting and more about making sure everyone's voice is heard and respected. Her response also suggests that she may have had the ability before the trip to the Dominican Republic, but she never had the realization that she was capable of facilitating a meeting. Elizabeth echoed Lucy's thoughts about facilitation skills.

> I didn't know how to facilitate a conversation with just, you know, me, one other person and then a couple people taking notes, and you know anywhere from thirteen to twenty community members, you know? So it's a skill, it's definitely a skill because we didn't want to "present," we wanted to discuss. And so it was, how do you start this discussion? How do you answer questions when they come up? How do you keep people from going off on tangents and staying on task?

Elizabeth's response suggests that her involvement in the team was the first time she really experienced the need to facilitate a meeting. Both Elizabeth and Lucy indicated that facilitation is a skill that may not have been realized in the on-campus environment because of the unique nature of the community and language barriers. Lola described her facilitation of community meetings as a significant learning experience, including aspects such as

> the actual manifestation of an invitation, ask people what they think about these ideas and how they would follow through with them and doing all this in Spanish, you know, so that whole thing. 'Cause I'm very comfortable talking in front of a group of people but this is a little different 'cause it's not my first language, and it's surprising how much, you know even fluent speakers have a hard time sometimes, so the language barrier can be a pretty important barrier.

Lola's reflection on her experience with facilitation suggests that the development of these skills is an important benefit of participation in similar engagement projects.

Enhanced Student Learning

Participation in the organization helped enhance student learning directly related to the project. Students reported feeling more connected with the community and having a better ability to engage in future discussions about the community by developing deeper contextual knowledge. All of the students in the study reported an increased responsibility associated with making sure the project is a success. They all mentioned the weight of this responsibility and the feeling of failure if they do not follow through with their plans for the community. Students also recognized the importance of their experiences for postgraduation and how they can integrate these experiences with their current and future academic plans.

Depth of knowledge. Students conveyed how the knowledge and academic preparation they received prior to their time in country was amplified by their physical presence in the community. The depth of knowledge that they gained as a result included contextual information that would have been difficult to learn while at the university. For Christopher, having no previous interaction with the community made the experience of being in the community more salient for him. His personal interactions with com-

munity members were helpful "because now I can kind of engage in that discussion about the people and the life in the community." By talking with community members and being able to see how the team interacts with the community, Christopher stated how he was able to translate his experience into a learning opportunity in order to be a more "effective member of the group."

Lucy, who had been on multiple trips, pointed to the importance of prolonged exposure to the community. She and the other students who had been on previous trips to the Dominican Republic reported that their first trips were disorienting because they did not know anyone. Lucy described her experience:

> My first two trips, I spent a lot of time not knowing exactly all of the details or all of the context or all of the personal information, didn't know people's names, didn't know that kind of thing, and so it was a much lighter experience. And having spent . . . time there and then going back, it was much more deeply layered because I knew personal relationships. I knew people in the community. I knew their families, how many—who their kids were, who works, who doesn't, who is friends, you know, who's had trouble lately, who's the most marginalized, who likes us, who knows me, you know, all of those things.

Christopher can now engage in more discussion about the community because he has some contextual knowledge; Lucy's experience supports the idea that a longer immersion in the community can only make that knowledge deeper. For Lucy, her knowledge of the intricacies of the community allowed her to provide insight for the rest of the team that lacked such contextual knowledge.

Depth of understanding. Associated with a depth of knowledge is the idea that students' learning can be enhanced through a depth of understanding. This understanding is more of a recognition of the larger implications for the project and the student's role within it. Whereas a depth of knowledge included students' gaining contextual grounding as a result of their experiences, a depth of understanding embraces the intrapersonal meaning-making that occurred. The amount of work that these students accomplish each semester can be tremendous; however, the sheer volume of work does not compare to the weight of the students' perceived responsibilities to the community or the desire to right every wrong. Lola described the feeling of wanting to correct all the inequities

and the resulting understanding of the scope of the problem. She commented,

> you come back wanting change but it like—things like sustainable healthcare or like the kind of medication that we're giving people or how we're able to care for them or like really being able to see these projects out in the community, and it's just—sometimes there are so many aspects to one idea or one situation that it's a little overwhelming sometimes, but it's recharging at the same time, or really makes you think, you know?

Even though this was not Lola's first trip to the Dominican Republic, her response describes the ongoing struggle to make sense of her experiences in the community. In addition to grappling with the magnitude of their involvement, students reported feeling that they are responsible for the success of the project and the welfare of the community. Lucy described how this responsibility affected her view of the team's involvement in the community:

> We always sort of make a promise being there, just the fact that we're there and people know we're from the [United States] and that we have to do with health, but officially in words and in writing, telling the community that we were going to pursue these projects was a huge commitment to take on. And I think I definitely felt the weight of that and will for the rest of my time in college and looking at the project, just because, you know if we don't come through that's a broken promise.

The "weight" that Lucy referred to implies that she has internalized her involvement with the organization and feels some ownership in the project. This suggests that a deeper understanding of the complexities of the project and relationship with the community provides opportunities for enhanced student learning.

Depth of integration between interests and coursework. A final illustration of how the team project enhanced student learning comes from the idea that students are able to integrate their learning across contexts and recognize the importance of different perspectives. Christopher described how the seminar course is designed and how this unique design is beneficial for the students. He claimed that the organization is

kind of a funky hybrid between an extra-curricular and academic class, but I think that balance works out really well because even though it's technically an academic class, there most certainly is an academic component to it, a lot of the work that's done is self-motivated and it's derived from like a genuine passion and interest in pursuing this research further, which is *really* great because it just shows the level of commitment and determination to the project that all the different members have even though they come from different backgrounds.

Christopher's view of the "class" shows that the design of the course is important to achieving student and project success. His response also indicates the value of an interdisciplinary model of learning, as evidenced by the various backgrounds and perspectives of the students.

Rachel's explanation of the project also reflects integration across her coursework at the university. She indicated that

being in country is where it kind of all goes to practice. So the class really kind of forces me to think about the concepts that I'm learning in like my global health seminar or like the intro to public health class in terms of thinking about, you know, not only the community or the person who was ill themselves but also how where they live, who they live with, the environment that they're in affects them and then going to the bigger level, where they live in terms of the country, in terms of the local politics, the challenges that they might face outside of the community and in it as well.

Rachel's response highlights the ability of students who are pursuing coursework in public health and sociology to apply concepts from other courses to the real-world work they do in the team's project. Although not all of the students in the organization are in the same degree program, the students who participated in this study are either currently in a degree program for public health or premedicine or are considering adding those kinds of courses to their academic portfolio as a result of involvement with the project. The implication for participants in this study is that they will have a higher likelihood of being able to integrate course concepts and theories with actual practice in a community environment.

Discussion

The findings from this study emphasize the student experience of two main themes: benefits of involvement in the engagement project and overall enhanced student learning. The benefits of involvement for students in the organization reflect changes in perspectives, the development and utilization of critical thinking skills, and the fostering of group maintenance skills. Students enhanced their learning experiences by working in country because they were able to internalize their responsibility to the community by establishing deeply rooted connections with community members and reflecting on the value of these experiences for the remainder of their involvement with the organization, as well as postgraduation.

Students reported benefits of involvement that reflect the same trends as service participation data. Astin and Sax *(1998)* found that students involved in service participation exhibited a greater understanding of the world. Student responses indicated that involvement with the project encouraged a change in how students viewed the inequities in the community. Another consistent finding is that participants referred to experiences in which they utilized critical thinking abilities. Astin and Sax *(1998)* also concluded that a positive association exists between students' involvement in service participation and critical thinking skills. However, since the organization's project does not entirely fall into the category of service participation, there may be a connection between student learning and community involvement that extends beyond mere service participation. Institutions looking to create similar programs should consider the depth of community involvement necessary to contribute to meaningful learning experiences, specifically considering the role of community-based research or reciprocal means of community engagement.

An interesting trend that appeared in student interviews was the prevalence of a sense of responsibility toward the community. Not only did students feel empowered to make a difference in the community, but they also became invested in the long-term success of the project. Students felt very strongly that the weight of the project's success fell on their shoulders, a burden that they recognized also needed to be shared by the community. The realization that the community needed to take ownership for parts of the project is consistent with Strand's *(2000)* idea that in order for a true partnership to exist, both sides must be active participants. Similar programs may need to monitor partnerships to ensure that projects are not one-sided. Additional support for students who are involved might require an active faculty advisor who can provide

guidance, as well as the establishment of clear goals between the institution and the community.

Vernon and Ward *(1999)* point to the challenges created by short-term commitments to communities in service-learning partnerships. However, findings from the current study suggest that the longer students interact with a community, the stronger the relationship they develop with the community. An established, strong relationship results in enhanced learning experiences because students are immersed in the context and understanding of the community. This finding is consistent with learning attributed to long-term commitments in CBR projects *(Wallace, 2000)*.

Although it seems that most of the findings are consistent with engagement literature, it is important to note that students who are members of the organization choose to apply because they have the interest and motivation to do so. The depth of their motivation is apparent in their responses regarding their experiences and how they reflect on the impact of the project. It is also important to note that these students had not been afforded opportunities to deeply reflect about their experiences with team members or with any others. Some of the students had given cursory explanations of the trip to friends and family, but few had shared their experiences with other students. Being able to speak with students and walk with them through their reflections created a safe environment for them to fully explore their experiences in an open and honest dialogue.

One recommendation for the student organization is to incorporate more reflection into the students' work. The process of reflection includes "critically assessing the content, process, or premise(s) of our efforts to interpret and give meaning to an experience" *(Mezirow, 1991, p. 104)*. Students reported needing to digest a lot for research material and discuss the implications of those works with each other. It would be helpful for students to be able to frame those discussions within the context of the community and reflect on how they make sense of those conversations *(Jay, 2008)*. Another reason to incorporate a reflective writing or discussion component is to encourage students to maintain their level of involvement. Several students mentioned that long-term involvement in the community could produce burnout and lead to uninterested, dissatisfied students in the classroom. By incorporating a reflective component, students can revisit the motivation that encouraged them to apply to and participate in the organization.

Limitations and Future Research

This study has several limitations. First, the small number of students who participated limits the application of results to both the student organization and to other student organizations like it. These results are not generalizable beyond the group of students that participated. Additionally, the intentional research decision not to collect demographic data, in order to protect students' identities, limits the analysis of student learning based on racial or ethnic background or socioeconomic status. As a result, findings that reflect benefits of involvement do not consider students' prior understanding of or identification with the community. Further, having only one male student participate largely limits the ability to demonstrate differences in the data based on gender.

The institution that these students attend also limits the study's findings. The characteristics of the student body at the university may influence the results of this study because students are highly intellectual and involved in extracurricular activities, especially those that are community and service oriented. Student diversity at the institution is also a limiting factor. For example, the ethnic and racial composition of the student organization in this study is not reflective of the student body at this predominantly White institution (PWI).

Given these limitations, several avenues for future research emerge. This particular student organization is not unique at the university; there is another organization that follows a similar structure and operates in a Nicaraguan community. It would provide an interesting comparison to see whether responses from students in the other organization follow similar thematic trends. Taking this idea one step further, if the themes from the present study were replicated, what implications and suggestions would such a finding have for developing similar courses at other institutions?

Additionally, the impact of the international context for the organization's work was not explored in the current study. Conducting further analysis and follow-up studies with students about the impact of the international context may provide more holistic understandings of how students prioritized certain learning experiences over others. How do the current organization's outcomes differ from those that occur in short-term study abroad programs? Does the location, noted by participants as welcoming and hospitable, create easy access for students to develop connections with the community, in contrast to international com-

munities who may be suspicious of outsiders, particularly those from the United States?

Conclusion

The literature on engaged scholarship is vast and tends toward creating specific subsets of engagement depending on the participants and recipients of such engagement. Each subset of literature (i.e., service-learning, community-based research, university–community partnerships) provides pointed insight into the challenges and benefits of producing a sustainable model of engagement. Student learning outcomes are typically associated with the development of life skills and open perspectives. However, the project and organization in the current study moved beyond student volunteer service or service-learning opportunities and brought together the spectrum of engaged scholarship in a single endeavor.

This study provides valuable information about how students understand and participate in engagement projects. Findings from this study can help guide the development of similar projects as meaningful elements in student learning. In particular, findings suggest a cumulative, value-added effect for using more than one high impact practice for student learning within a single context *(Kuh, 2008)*. Merging practices such as common intellectual experiences, undergraduate research, service-learning, collaborative projects, and global learning allows students to engage with diversity, practice working with others, and develop critical skill sets necessary for postgraduation life. Although recent research trends in the engagement literature have emphasized the communities with which higher education engages, public scrutiny related to accountability for student learning is ever increasing. Higher education has as its primary purpose educating the minds of students. Incorporating service participation in student learning outcomes has only scratched the surface of how students may benefit from experiential education opportunities. As engaged scholars, we cannot neglect the student learning that occurs as a result of participating in community engagement programming, whatever format it takes. The unique model proposed by this study provides examples of how students can participate in community engagement and how higher education can further develop engaged learning experiences. If university–community partnerships are supposed to be balanced and reciprocal, then researchers and community members should not be the only partners at the table. Student learning should always be considered as part of the equation.

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About the Author

Kristen L. Tarantino is an educational researcher and adjunct assistant professor in the School of Education at the College of William and Mary. Her research focuses on the environmental

and experiential components of higher education that support or inhibit student learning, including the roles of student development, teaching, and faculty development. She received her Ph.D. in educational policy, planning, and leadership from the College of William and Mary.

Faculty Development for Advancing Community Engagement in Higher Education: Current Trends and Future Directions

Marshall Welch and Star Plaxton-Moore

Abstract

This research involved the conduct of a conceptual review of 28 refereed journal articles and a survey of campus centers for community engagement staff to identify salient features and trends of existing faculty development programming designed to advance service-learning and community engagement in higher education. Results of this investigation are presented and discussed. The article begins with an overview of theoretical frameworks and competency-based approaches for faculty development. The narrative concludes with additional questions and suggestions for future research and practice.

Keywords: faculty development; service-learning, community engagement

Introduction

*I*n a recent study of centers at campuses with the Carnegie Classification for Community Engagement, approximately 70% of the respondents reported that they provide faculty development programming, and 90% reported offering one-on-one consultation, technical assistance, and resource materials to support faculty in developing and implementing various forms of engaged teaching and scholarship *(Welch & Saltmarsh, 2013)*. From the 2015 survey of its members, Campus Compact reported that just over 75% of the respondents indicated that they provide (a) faculty development workshops/fellowships, (b) materials to assist faculty with reflection and assessment, and (c) curriculum models and sample syllabi. These reports, however, do not provide detailed descriptions of faculty development programs designed to advance community engagement in terms of content, format, duration, or impact assessment. This suggests a need for further exploration to understand what is currently being done to advance community engagement as well as to identify what is not taking place in this important work. As community engagement continues to expand and evolve, directors of campus centers for community engagement and their staff are expected to provide professional development and technical support to faculty *(Chamberlin & Phelps-Hillen,*

2015; Welch, 2016). Consequently, there is an emerging pedagogical and ethical incentive to identify and implement continued professional education to faculty that effectively serves not only the instructors and scholars using engaged pedagogy in the courses, but students, community partners, and those they serve as indirect beneficiaries as well.

Over 15 years ago, Van Note Chism and Szabo *(1998)* conducted a comprehensive study to identify evaluation procedures and measures of faculty development and reported the dominant methods incorporated in surveys and interviews of participants. The investigation described in the present article was designed to build upon and update those efforts by identifying salient features and trends of existing faculty development programming designed to advance service-learning and community engagement in higher education. The results can be used to inform community engagement professionals as they design, deliver, and assess professional development programs. For the purpose of this investigation, *faculty development* is broadly defined as educational activities designed to help faculty grow in their professional practice *(McKee & Tew, 2013)*.

The purpose and structure of this study is twofold. First, we conducted a conceptual review of articles in refereed journals to identify salient features of existing faculty development programming in the field of service-learning and community engagement in higher education. Kennedy *(2007)* characterized a conceptual review under the broader umbrella term "systematic literature review" as "an approach [that shares] an interest in gaining new insights into an issue" *(p. 139)*. She provided useful examples to illustrate the purpose and utility of conceptual reviews in which researchers "did not ask what we know, empirically, about the problem but asked instead why we don't know more, how people have thought about the problem in the past, and what other issues are intertwined with this one" *(p. 139)*. Second, we conducted a survey to obtain information on current practice and formats of faculty development designed to advance community engagement within higher education. Given the exponential growth of the community engagement movement and the emerging demand for community engagement professionals to provide technical support to faculty through faculty development, the survey was designed to identify how and which (if any) competencies, knowledge, and skill sets are currently disseminated through professional development.

This article continues with an overview of theoretical frameworks for adult learning through faculty development on community engagement in higher education. Using a competency-based

approach, the narrative also enumerates proposed skill sets and content knowledge relevant to advancing engaged teaching and scholarship embedded within community engagement. The theoretical framework and proposed knowledge and skill sets formed the basis of this investigation's research questions and the structure of the content analysis coding of the articles as well as the survey questions. The article continues by presenting the results of a conceptual review of the professional literature coupled with survey responses provided by directors of campus centers for community engagement. Procedures for both of the research methodologies are described for replication purposes. The review process and format is based on a model of previous studies in other related educational fields *(Sheridan, Welch, & Orme, 1996; Welch, Brownell, & Sheridan, 1999)*. The article concludes by presenting implications for the results coupled with recommendations for future practice and research.

Theoretical Frameworks of Faculty Development in Community Engagement

Theory is a set of analytical principles or statements designed to structure the observation, understanding, and explanation of a phenomenon. A theoretical framework serves as a structure or plan consisting of concepts, constructs, or variables and the relations between them that explain a phenomenon and that can be used to translate research into practice through process models consisting of implementation steps *(Nilsen, 2015)*. Academia incorporates theory and theoretical frameworks to guide research, scholarship, and practice. Therefore, one aspect of this investigation was to determine to what extent (if any) theory and theoretical frameworks or models inform adult learning that occurs during faculty development to advance community engagement in higher education.

Van Note Chism, Palmer, and Price *(2013)* provided a theoretical overview of faculty development in the context of service-learning. They noted that theoretical foundations for faculty development tend to be developmental in nature, focusing on how faculty change and grow. These researchers also observed theories of individual learning, such as the developmental model of Lewin *(1947)* and experiential learning described by Dewey *(1933)* and Kolb (1984), as the most common theoretical models incorporated. Reflective practice described by Schön *(1983)* and Eraut *(1994)* is also utilized to a degree. Van Note Chism et al. *(2013)* also synthesized five developmental components common to all theoretical

foundations for faculty professional development, regardless of the topical focus.

1. *An entry point based on need.* Faculty enter into continued professional education due to an exterior trigger such as an organizational mandate or an interior motivation based on personal experience.

2. *Formulating a plan to change practice.* Participants explicitly or implicitly contemplate how to revise their professional practice based on new information.

3. *Active experimentation.* Faculty will incorporate new knowledge or skills on a trial basis rather than entirely adopt and assimilate them on a permanent basis.

4. *Observation of impact.* Faculty will observe the impact of the experimental implementation of new knowledge or skills.

5. *Reflection and implications.* Based on the observation, a faculty member reflects on the impact of the trial application and determines whether to adopt or reject the new knowledge or skill.

These five developmental stages represent a chronology of technical and professional support before, during, and after applying new knowledge and skills. Hoyt *(2011)* refined this approach of developmental sequencing even further by incorporating a theory of systemic chronological adoption from thought to action into five stages: (1) pseudo-engagement, (2) tentative engagement, (3) stable engagement, (4) authentic engagement, and (5) sustained engagement. These stages manifest themselves at the individual faculty level as well as the institutional level.

Competency-Based Approach

A competency-based approach to faculty development has overt expectations (if not explicit requirements) that participants will assimilate and apply new information and skills, often in a developmental and chronological scaffold over time. Many programs that use this approach will include assessment methods to verify assimilation and implementation by participants. Competency-based medical education (CBME) involves continuous, ongoing criterion-based developmental assessment methods that incorporate both quantitative and qualitative measures in multiple settings or contexts, as well as the collective wisdom of supervisors in

determining the progress of health practitioners *(Holmboe, 2015)*. A similar approach can be applied to faculty development programs designed to assist faculty in developing and implementing service-learning or other forms of engaged scholarship.

Blanchard et al. *(2009)* developed a comprehensive scope and sequence of 14 competencies that define an engaged scholar. They categorized each competency across three levels of experience and expertise ranging from novice to intermediate to advanced. These competencies include understanding and applying the concepts, principles, theory, and practice of community-engaged scholarship; transferring skills to working with partners; disseminating new knowledge gained from community-engaged scholarship through publications and presentations; balancing and integrating community-engaged scholarship within the trilogy of academic missions (teaching, research, and service); and preparation for and successful reward of promotion and tenure.

More recently, Axtell *(2012)* developed another in-house competency-based framework for faculty development at the University of Minnesota consisting of two broad domains, each incorporating five categories or competencies. The faculty development domain consists of (1) skills, (2) career development, (3) critical reflection, (4) building and sustaining relationships, and (5) navigating and changing the institutional system. The domain of community engaged scholarship includes (1) teaching, (2) research, (3) practice, (4) outreach, and (5) administration.

The investigation described in this article was conducted to identify which, if any, of these theoretical frameworks and competency-based skill sets and knowledge were evident in the literature and practice of faculty development designed to advance engaged teaching and scholarship through community engagement (see Appendix for articles referenced).

Methodology

This investigation incorporated a qualitative research method described by Berg *(1998)* consisting of a chronology of elements that begins with an idea followed by a review of the literature that leads to a design to collect and organize data into findings that are analyzed and disseminated. The scholarly idea of this study was focused on identifying current topics, formats, and skill sets related to faculty development to promote community engagement. To formulate this idea, a conceptual review *(Kennedy, 2007)* of the literature was conducted and coupled with a survey to collect

information that was analyzed and disseminated for use by community engagement professionals. Patton *(1990)* noted that "there are trade-offs, advantages, and disadvantages related to when to review the literature: before, during, or after the field-work or on a continual basis throughout the study" *(p. 163)*. For the chronology of this descriptive study, the authors chose to first conduct the conceptual review of the literature to help inform the nature and content of the survey instrument. The researchers incorporated descriptive statistics to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent do current faculty development programs designed to advance community engagement through engaged teaching and scholarship in higher education incorporate theoretical frameworks for adult learning?

2. What types of information regarding faculty development designed to advance community engagement through engaged teaching and scholarship in higher education exist in the professional literature?

3. What are the current formats, topics, and practice of faculty development designed to advance community engagement through engaged teaching and scholarship in higher education provided by campus centers for service-learning and community engagement? What topical skills and/or sets of competencies are included in faculty development designed to advance community engagement through engaged teaching and scholarship in higher education?

4. What new directions should the field pursue to support and enhance faculty development designed to advance service-learning and community engagement within higher education?

Conceptual Review

Each of the authors conducted an independent review of the literature using the ERIC database. The search was limited to peer-reviewed journal articles published between the years 2000 and 2015 using the following descriptors to identify possible sources: "faculty development," "faculty training," "professional development," "service-learning," "community engagement," "higher education," "college," or "university." A total of 50 articles were initially identified. Each investigator independently reviewed each article

abstract to determine whether it met the search criteria related to faculty development. Articles describing K-12 teacher preparation programs or other related topics such as faculty motivation were not included in this review. Therefore, of the initial pool of articles, the investigators agreed that 20 did not meet the topical criteria. These 20 articles were omitted from the literature review for a total of 30 articles. However, two articles were unobtainable, resulting in a total of 28 articles for this review (see Table 1; also see Appendix for complete reference listing).

Initial, cursory review of these articles revealed an emerging cluster of characteristics that were noted and incorporated into codes for use on a data summary sheet as described by Drew, Hardman, and Hart *(1996)* to be used in the conceptual review analysis. The authors then individually reviewed each article using a summary worksheet designed to identify and list specific components related to article type, design, outcome measures, and theoretical framework. Subsequently, the investigators exchanged their worksheet summaries to obtain interrater reliability and consensus of interpretation *(Patton, 1990)*. By following the decision logic in reverse, researchers can come to an understanding of how and why discrepant conclusions were drawn and reconcile coding differences that naturally occur *(Drew, Hardman, & Hart, 1996)*. The authors reviewed their initial worksheet results and achieved 59% interrater reliability. The preliminary discrepancies were generally minor, usually involving only one interpretive disagreement in review of several worksheet items. Each investigator independently revisited the articles in question to reassess their interpretations. The authors reconvened for a second review process and achieved 100% agreement for interrater reliability.

Article type. Each article was categorized by type: (1) program description (DP), (2) empirical research (ER), and (3) technical guide/method (TG).

Design or method. Some of the articles explicitly stated the design or methodology they incorporated. The investigators categorized the type of design or method based on their interpretation of the narrative for those articles that did not overtly discuss design. Design or method was generally not applicable for classifying position papers, technical guides, and theoretical narratives. Design or method classifications included (1) case study (CS), (2) correlational or factor analysis (COR), (3) descriptive data (DD), (4) quasi-experimental (QE), (5) qualitative (Q), or (6) none.

Outcome measures. A total of 14 outcome measures derived from the literature or suggestions during the field testing were listed on the investigators' review worksheet: (1) anecdotal report (AR), (2) pre/post measures (P/P), (3) participant evaluation or

Table 1. Summary of Literature Review

Author & Year	Type	Method	Measure	Theory
Becket, Refaei, & Skutar (2012)	DP	None	PR	None
Blanchard et al. (2009)	TG	None	None	None
Blanchard, Strauss, & Webb (2012)	DP	None	P/P, GA, O	None
Bowen & Kiser (2009)	DP	CS, Q	PE, SR, I, O	None
Bradshaw (2013)	DP	None	PE, PR, CD	None
Bringle et al. (2000)	DP	None	AR, CD, O	Yes
Browne & Roll (2015)	DP	None	AR	Yes
Butler (2002)	DP	None	AR, CD, GA	None
Carracelas-Juncal et al. (2009)	DP	None	CD, PR	None
DeLugan, Roussos, & Skram (2014)	DP	None	AR	Yes
Dorfman & Murty (2005)	DP	None	CD, O	Yes
Furco & Moely (2012)	ER	COR	P/P, PE	Yes
Gelmon et al. (2012)	ER	DD, QE, Q	P/P, CD, O	Yes
Hamel-Lambert et al. (2012)	DP	None	PE, CD, O	Yes
Hansen (2012)	TG	None	None	None
Harwood et al. (2005)	ER	DD, Q	AR, PE, FG, PR	None
Hughes, Huston & Stein (2011)	TG	None	AR, PE	Yes
Jaeger, Jameson & Clayton (2012)	DP	CS	CD, PR, I, O	Yes
Jameson et al. (2012)	ER	QE, Q	P/P, PE, PR	Yes
Jordan et al. (2012)	ER	DD, QE, Q	P/P, PE, CD, PR, I, O	Yes
Leh (2005)	DP	None	PE, PD, I	Yes
Litzky et al. (2010)	TG	None	AR, GA	None
Ryan (2000)	DP	None	PR	None
Seifer et al. (2012)	DP	None	AR, PE,FG, CD	None
Welch (2002)	DP	None	PE, CD, PD, O	None
Welch (2010)	TG	None	None	None
Whitley & Walsh (2014)	TG	None	None	Yes
Zlotkowski (2001)	TG	None	None	None

Note. Article type: DP = Program Description, ER = Empirical Research, TG = Technical Guide

Design or Method: COR = Correlational Factor Analysis; CS = Case Study; DD = Descriptive Data; Q = Qualitative; QE = Quasi-experimental Design

Outcome Measure: AR = Anecdotal Report; CD = Course Development; FG = Focus Group/Debriefing; GA= Goal Attainment for Community Partner; I = Interview; O = Other; PD =

Product Development; PE = Participant Evaluation or Survey; P/P = Pre/Post Measure; PR = Personal Reflection; SR = Syllabus Review or Analysis

survey (PE), (4) syllabus review/analysis (SR), (5) focus group/debriefing (FG), (6) course development (CD), (7) personal reflection (PR), (8) product development (PD), (9) community partner goal achievement (GA), (10) interview (I), (11) none or not applicable (None), and (12) other (O).

Theoretical framework. The coding process utilized a dichotomous Yes/No code to indicate whether articles specifically articulated a theory of adult learning used to inform and frame the professional development program. The investigators then noted which theoretical model (if any) was incorporated and report them in the Theoretical Framework subsection below.

Survey

The survey was intended to ascertain current trends, formats, and topics used in faculty development to advance community engagement. The authors considered and followed recommendations for effective survey development and administration provided by Drew, Hardman, and Hart *(1996)*. This included limiting the length and number of survey items for efficiency and to increase potential response rates, piloting the prototype, and administering a follow-up to improve the response rate. The survey consisted of 22 items organized into six sections: (1) Who, (2) What, (3) Where, (4) When, (5) Impact outcomes, or how is faculty development assessed, and (6) Institutional information.

Who. This section of the survey consisted of seven items designed to determine who conducts and attends faculty development as well as how many participants typically attend faculty development activities, coupled with identifying the structural formats of the events.

What. Five questions were designed to identify the topics and structures of the faculty development programs.

Where. Only one survey item focused on location of faculty development by asking respondents to rank the frequency with which they use space on or off campus.

When. Two questions asked the duration of faculty development formats and when the activities are conducted over the course of one year.

Impact outcomes. The survey question in this section provided a list of measures of outcomes derived from the review of

the literature and input obtained during the field testing of the instrument.

Institutional information. This section of the survey asked respondents to characterize the type of their institution as well as whether it had received the Carnegie Classification for Community Engagement. Three remaining items asked if respondents' institution has a center or office that supports service-learning/community engagement, as well as the number of full-time staff at the center and where the center is located in the institutional structure (e.g., academic affairs, student affairs).

A prototype of the survey was developed by the investigators and field-tested by three colleagues who oversee campus centers for community engagement, each at a different type of institution: faith-based, private liberal arts, and public research university. Each colleague critiqued the prototype with one of the investigators via Skype. Revisions were made utilizing the feedback to create the final survey instrument on Survey Monkey. Based on the field test process, we estimated that respondents would spend approximately 10 to 15 minutes completing the survey. In alignment with multiple studies on electronic survey response rates *(Galesic & Bosnjak, 2009; Marcus, Bosnjak, Lindner, Pilischenko, & Schütz, 2007; Trouteaud, 2004)*, the investigators kept the estimated survey response time to 10–15 minutes and notified recipients that it would require a minimal amount of time to complete. This measure was an attempt to increase the response rate.

The survey instrument and the methodology of this investigation were reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board of one of the authors' institutions. The survey was distributed by e-mail using the electronic database housed at the New England Resource Center for Higher Education (NERCHE) that was used in a previous study *(Welch & Saltmarsh, 2013)*. Research has shown that surveys distributed by e-mail result in higher quality of responses in terms of thoroughness and candidness than do mail or phone surveys *(Sheehan, 2001)*. The survey was distributed to an array of types and sizes of institutions across the United States. A total of 609 surveys were sent, resulting in 75 undeliverable mailings for a total of 534 delivered surveys. Respondents were invited to complete and return the survey within 18 days, and an e-mail reminder was sent approximately midpoint of the response window. The investigators counted on the high issue salience of the survey topic (faculty development) for community engagement professionals to generate a strong response rate, as described by Sheehan *(2001)* and Marcus et al. *(2007)*.

A total of 89 (16.6% rate) responses were received, of which 83 surveys (15.5%) were usable. The low response rate is analyzed in the Limitations section below. The authors originally hoped to compare and contrast responses by type of institution and between institutions with the Carnegie Classification for Community Engagement and those without it. The small return rate and anonymity of institutional types built into the response platform did not allow for this type of comparison.

Results

Conceptual Review of the Literature

Article type. Of the 28 articles reviewed, 16 (57%) were descriptions of faculty development programs, whereas seven (25%) were categorized as technical guides on strategies or specific methods to assist faculty in developing service-learning courses. It should be noted that despite using a keyword search that included a variety of related terms within community engagement, the majority of the articles identified specifically used the term *service-learning* in their narrative—a term that has been contested or questioned by some critical theorists and practitioners. In essence, the authors of these articles employed "storytelling" to communicate how the faculty development was implemented and what was accomplished. Two articles provided descriptive data regarding participants and/or outcomes. The program descriptions, however, often lacked detail and specificity for replication purposes. Only five (17.8%) employed any type of empirical research methodology to answer research questions.

Design or method. As reported above, the majority of articles did not employ specific research methodology to answer research questions. One study *(Furco & Moely, 2012)* conducted a factor analysis as well as pre/post measures to assess impact of faculty development. Of the remaining six articles, three incorporated quasi-experimental designs utilizing pre/post measures. At least two of these also included personal reflections by participants. Another study *(Harwood et al., 2005)* used a qualitative method that included focus group debriefing and personal reflection coupled with anecdotal reports and participant evaluations. Another used mixed methods combining personal interviews, participant evaluation surveys, and review of documents *(Bowen & Kiser, 2009)*.

Outcome measures. The most commonly used method for assessing outcomes and impact of faculty development was course

development and participant evaluation surveys (39%). Anecdotal reports in the form of testimonials were the third most common approach (28%) intended to document the outcome and impact of faculty development. Only five articles (17%) employed a pre/post measure to assess increase of participants' knowledge and understanding, and four articles (14%) reported using interviews to assess impact. One article reported that faculty and students attained goals that served as objectives for the course, met community partner needs, and facilitated faculty efforts to earn promotion and tenure *(Blanchard, Strauss, & Webb, 2012)*. Likewise, only one article reviewed course syllabi as a way of assessing the extent to which faculty development participants effectively applied newly assimilated knowledge regarding course design *(Bowen & Kiser, 2009)*. Three articles incorporated and reported a method to assess community partner satisfaction or goal attainment *(Blanchard, et al, 2012; Butler, 2002; Litzky, Godshalk, & Walton-Bongers, 2010)*.

Theoretical framework. Most of the articles lacked any inclusion or description of a theoretical framework to guide the adult learning process. Only thirteen (47%) explicitly articulated a theoretical framework used to guide the adult learning process, not the pedagogical process embedded within engaged teaching such as service-learning. Kolb's *(1984)* experiential learning model, Mezirow's *(1991, 2000)* transformative learning model, and Rogers's *(2003)* diffusion of innovations model were described in two articles. An array of models was articulated in the few articles that explicitly noted incorporating theoretical frameworks: Cooks, Scharrer, and Castaneda Paredes's *(2004)* social approach model; Cox's *(2004)* faculty learning communities; Eccles et al.'s *(2005)* transformative change model; Swidler's *(1986)* social and system change model; and Wenger, McDermott, and Snyder's *(2002)* community of practice model.

Two articles described using a charrette method *(Lindsey, Todd, Hayter, & Ellis, 2009)* as an instructional approach to promote adult learning and professional development. These articles indicated that this approach was a key feature of a grant project specifically designed to promote engaged teaching and learning for faculty. A number of the articles incorporated Blanchard et al.'s *(2009)* competency-based approach, which is specifically designed for advancing engaged teaching and scholarship. Although this particular model did not address or influence adult learning per se, the investigators regarded this as a potentially viable and theoretically grounded approach to frame professional development through acquisition of skills at various levels of competency. Similarly, one

article by Jordan et al. *(2012)* built upon the work of Blanchard et al. *(2009)* to construct a similar competency-based program for faculty development.

Survey

A total of 89 responses out of 534 electronically distributed surveys were received, but only 83 responses were usable, resulting in a 15.5% response rate. An analysis of possible reasons for the low response rate is included in the section on limitations below. Note that the number of responses varies because some respondents chose not to answer all questions. The adjusted sample size for particular data sets has been noted where appropriate.

Characteristics of responding institutions. Five questions in the survey provide a general profile of respondent institutions. Public colleges and universities represented 40% of responses; 37% of returned surveys were from private liberal arts institutions; faith-based institutions provided 20% of the responses. Only two community colleges and one HBCU were represented in the survey data.

Approximately 76% of respondents represent institutions with the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification, 23% are from institutions that do not hold the classification, and one respondent did not know their institution's status. The vast majority of respondents (89%) were from institutions that have a center or office dedicated to supporting service-learning and community engagement, and just over two thirds of those centers/offices are located in academic affairs. The investigators originally expected to receive responses that were more equitably distributed, and planned to do a comparative analysis of institutions with Carnegie Classification and without, as well as a comparison of institutions with community engagement centers located in either academic affairs or student affairs. However, the actual results apparently show that Carnegie classified institutions, and those with a community engagement center located in academic affairs, are more likely to respond to this type of survey. Perhaps this is due to greater funding, staffing, and resources for community engagement and service-learning at institutions that qualify for the Carnegie Classification and the expectation for staff at centers that report through academic affairs to contribute to scholarship in the field.

Faculty development formats. Survey questions attempted to reveal formats used for faculty support, including how training time is structured, where and when such training occurs, and

the amount of time faculty engage in development for service-learning and community engagement. According to the survey results (see Table 2), faculty development most commonly takes the form of one-on-one consultations and workshops. Responses to another survey question indicate that the most common workshop format is a series of 1–2 hour workshops, which is utilized by 78% of responding institutions. One-time half-day workshops are second most popular (41%), and full-day workshops are third (31%). Referring back to the data in Table 2, the next most utilized faculty development practices include inviting community partner guest speakers and connecting with colleague mentors. It's important to note that the most common faculty development formats all require minimal time commitments and, in the case of consultations and mentors, can be organized around individual faculty schedules fairly easily. The fifth most popular intervention, implemented by about half of respondent institutions, is faculty learning communities, which consist of a group of faculty who meet on a regular basis and play a role in setting the learning agenda and contributing resources for collective improvement of community-engaged scholarly practice. It's possible that this particular format is used because research shows positive outcomes *(Cox, 2004; Furco & Moely, 2012)* and the responsibility for developing the curriculum is shared by participants, instead of resting solely with community engagement staff who have competing priorities for their time. Seventeen respondents indicated "other" formats for faculty development, with webinars, regional symposia, and conferences mentioned in multiple comments.

Just over a third of survey respondents indicated that they use a faculty cohort model (also referred to as a faculty fellows seminar). The cohort (or fellows seminar) is distinct from the faculty learning community in that an instructor, usually a community engagement center staff member or distinguished faculty member, designs the curriculum and facilitates the learning process. Of the respondents who reported using a cohort model, 25% require 5–10 hours of faculty participation, 32% require 11–15 hours, 18% require 16–20 hours, and 25% require over 20 hours. In comparison, just over half (54%) of the institutions that do not use a cohort model report that faculty participate in 1–3 hours of development for service-learning and community engagement each year, and 33% report 4–6 hours per faculty member. Thus, it is clear that a cohort model provides significantly more time for faculty to acquire the knowledge, skills, and competencies needed for community-engaged scholarship than sporadic faculty development program offerings.

Table 2. Structures and Formats of Faculty Development

Survey Question: What are the structures and formats used in faculty development? (Mark all appropriate.)

Structure/Format	Responses (*n* = 83)	Percent
One-on-one consultation	75	90.36%
Workshops	71	85.54%
Community partner guest speakers	48	57.83%
Colleague mentors	44	53.01%
Learning community	42	50.60%
Faulty fellows seminar(s)	32	38.55%
Community tours	30	36.14%
Book club/readings	22	26.51%
Training videos	9	10.84%
Writing retreats	10	12.05%
Other (please specify)	17	20.48%

In general, 90% of respondents conduct faculty development during the semester or quarter, versus intersession or summer. The most common place to conduct faculty development is in a classroom or conference room on campus (74%), with campus service-learning centers and off-site locations being used much less at 16% and 10% respectively. For accumulative calculation purposes, all N/A responses were ignored, resulting in 74 usable responses. The authors surmise that these choices about when and where to conduct faculty development are guided primarily by the desire to reduce barriers to participation. Faculty may be more likely to attend programming when they are already on campus to teach, and when the location of the event is conveniently close to their offices and classrooms.

Who is involved in faculty development. Four questions in the survey gathered information about who facilitates faculty development and who participates. The majority of respondents (55%) named service-learning/community engagement center directors as the *primary* persons responsible for implementing faculty development for service-learning and community engagement. However, faculty development is clearly a collaborative effort. In a follow-up question, 59% of respondent institutions indicated that multiple community engagement center staff members contribute to programming. One third of respondents consistently reported four additional groups as co-facilitators of faculty development: staff from campus centers for teaching/learning, outside speakers and consultants, faculty fellows, and community partners.

Two survey questions asked respondents to indicate the number and type of participants in service-learning faculty development training each year. For those institutions that use a cohort model (see Table 3), the majority indicated that their cohorts consisted of 1–5 full-time tenure-track faculty, 1–5 full-time adjunct faculty, and 1–5 part-time adjunct faculty. Surprisingly, over half of respondents said that 1–5 community partners participate in faculty development cohorts. Most institutions do not include staff or undergraduate, master's, or doctoral students in faculty development cohorts. This is likely because the target audience is faculty members who are currently teaching, or plan to teach, community-engaged courses. A noteworthy anomaly is the institution that indicated that more than 16 doctoral students participate in a faculty development cohort each year. Perhaps this institution is

Table 3. Number and Type of Participants in a Faculty Cohort Model

Survey Question: If you use a faculty cohort model, indicate/estimate the number of individuals in each category who participate in the cohort each year. Please mark N/A for each item if you do not use a cohort model.

Category of cohort participant	Number of participants from each category					Total institutional responses
	0	1–5	6–10	11–15	16+	
FT tenure-track faculty	1	15	10	2	0	28
FT adjunct or clinical faculty	8	13	2	0	0	23
PT adjunct or clinical faculty	7	15	0	0	0	22
Staff	10	9	0	0	0	19
Undergraduate students	13	2	0	0	0	15
Master's students	13	2	0	0	0	15
Doctoral students	11	5	0	0	1	17
Community partners	7	9	1	0	0	17

Note. N/A responses were not included. Numbers in each column represent the number of institutions that indicated how many of each type of participant participates in the faculty development cohort. For example, one institution indicated that zero full-time tenure-track faculty members participated in their cohort.

mobilizing around O'Meara's *(2008)* chapter "Graduate Education and Community Engagement," in which she describes a model for socializing and preparing future faculty for community engagement by building in relevant coursework at the doctoral level.

A similar question was asked about the total number and types of individuals that participate in all forms of faculty development for service-learning and community engagement annually (see Table 4). One promising finding is that almost one third of institutions reported that over 16 tenure-track faculty participate in faculty development offerings annually. Their participation indicates

Table 4. Number and Type of Participants in All Forms of Faculty Development

Survey Question: Indicate/estimate the TOTAL number of individuals in each category who participate in all faculty development events each year. If you use a faculty cohort model, please include cohort participants in this response.

Category of faculty development participant	Number of participants from each category					Total institutional responses
	0	1–5	6–10	11–15	16+	
FT tenure-track faculty	3	23	19	8	22	75
FT adjunct or clinical faculty	9	26	12	7	9	63
PT adjunct or clinical faculty	10	36	6	4	7	63
Staff	9	36	13	3	4	65
Undergraduate students	28	12	2	2	3	47
Master's students	29	13	2	1	2	47
Doctoral students	27	11	5	2	1	46
Community partners	10	36	6	6	3	61

Note. N/A responses were not included. Numbers in each column represent the number of institutions that indicated how many of each type of participant engages in all types of faculty development offerings. For example, three institutions indicated that zero full-time tenure-track faculty members participated in their faculty development offerings each year.

these faculty members' commitment to improving community-engaged practice even as they balance the responsibilities of research, teaching, and service. In general, 1–5 full-time and part-time adjunct faculty participate in annual faculty development training activities at the majority of institutions. These low numbers may be related to barriers and disincentives specific to adjunct faculty, such as teaching commitments at multiple institutions, lack of

pay for professional development, and inability to create and teach community-engaged courses without department chair approval. Approximately 59% of respondents include 1–5 community partners in development offerings, an indication that institutions are making an effort to develop community partners as co-educators. Again, the great majority of institutions do not include undergraduate, master's, or doctoral students in annual faculty development trainings for service-learning and community engagement.

Faculty development curriculum. Respondents were asked to identify topics covered in their faculty development (see Table 5). Six content areas emerged as most commonly integrated into curricula (in order of frequency): reflection, course development, principles of community engagement, syllabus development, assessment, and establishing/maintaining community partnerships. These topic areas represent the basic practical building blocks for designing and teaching a community-engaged course, which seems to be the purpose of most faculty development programs offered by centers for engagement. The second most common cluster of topics includes teaching about community-based research and critical pedagogical models, signaling a focus on developing more advanced community-engaged knowledge, competencies, and practices in alignment with Blanchard et al.'s *(2009)* competency model. Content areas integrated by less than half of the respondents include (in order of frequency) social justice or faith tenets related to engagement, cultural competency, risk management, publishing/dissemination of research, international service experiences, theories of learning, promotion and tenure, domestic immersion experiences, Title IX, and student travel procedures. It's possible that these topics are less popular because they are (a) specific to a certain type of community-engaged course (e.g., international experience), (b) outside the purview of the community engagement center (e.g., student travel procedures), (c) outside the expertise of the community engagement center staff, or (d) not on community engagement staff radar as important aspects of community-engaged scholarship. Some topics listed in the "other" section are worth naming, including scholarship of teaching, self-reflection on identity as a community-engaged scholar, and teaching with technology.

Approximately half of respondent institutions (49%) create or develop their own faculty training curricula and materials by drawing upon resources and information from the professional and scholarly literature. Another 45% of respondents use a combination

Table 5. Content and Topics of Faculty Development

Survey Question: What content/topics are included in faculty development? (Mark all appropriate.)

Content	Responses (n = 83)	Percent
Reflection	75	90.36%
Course development	74	89.16%
Principles of community engagement	71	85.54%
Syllabus development	68	81.93%
Assessment	67	80.72%
Establishing/maintaining partnerships	66	79.52%
Community-based research	52	62.65%
Logistical coordination	50	60.24%
Critical pedagogy	48	57.83%
Social justice or faith tenets related to engagement	40	48.19%
Cultural competency	37	44.58%
Risk management	34	40.96%
Publishing/dissemination	33	39.76%
International service	29	34.94%
Theory of learning	26	31.33%
Prep for P&T review	25	30.12%
Domestic immersions	25	30.12%
Community organizing	17	20.48%
Student travel procedures	16	19.28%
Title IX	12	14.46%
Other	8	9.64%

of existing curricula from the broader field and materials developed at their own institutions, whereas 6% rely exclusively on existing curricula and training program models previously developed in the field. When asked to identify specific curriculum resources, 16 respondents replied to the open-ended question. Eight respondents referenced Campus Compact's various publications and toolkits, three referenced the *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning*, and two referenced American Association of Colleges and Universities publications. Six also listed specific community engagement scholars and/or their publications.

Theoretical framework for faculty development. One survey question asked respondents whether they use a theoretical framework for adult learning to inform faculty development processes and practices. Surprisingly, 61% do not use a theoretical frame-

work, in contrast to 19% who do and approximately 20% who were unsure. Respondents were invited to name the theoretical frameworks they use. Of the 13 responses, three referenced Kolb's *(1984)* experiential learning model and two cited Mezirow's *(1991, 2000)* transformative learning. Individual respondents also identified Schön's *(1983)* reflective practitioner model, Lawler's *(2003)* community of adult learners, Freire's *(1970)* critical learning praxis, and the framework of communities of practice described by Lave *(1982)* and Wenger, McDermott, and Snyder *(2002)*. Situated cognition, self-directed learning, critical pedagogy, and "feminist and culturally responsive teaching and learning" were also mentioned without specific citations. It was noted that the survey asked respondents to indicate whether they used a theory of learning to guide or frame the cognitive process of faculty development, yet some responses listed theoretical frameworks for *student* learning in engaged teaching and learning.

Incentives for participation in faculty development. Respondents were asked to identify all incentives used to encourage faculty participation in development activities (see Table 6). Most commonly used incentives are food and the intrinsic benefit of participating in a professional learning community. These incentives demonstrate the power of a desire for community, which can be formed when individuals share meals and when people come together around a common interest. Access to additional resources and minigrants for course development were identified by just under half of respondents as additional incentives. These institutions, or at least the community engagement centers, appear to use incentives to address the challenge of community-engaged teaching as a labor- and time-intensive act. However, only around 7% of institutions are able to offer course releases, which effectively allow faculty to reallocate their teaching and/or research time toward community-engaged teaching and research, instead of doing this work as an "add-on" to their full workload.

Over one third of institutions provide a stipend, which varies according to the type of faculty development activity. Based on 32 responses to the open-ended question about stipend amount, it appears that participation in faculty fellows cohort programs is incentivized by stipends ranging from $500 to $3,500. Many institutions described stipend rates for other types of faculty development ranging from $75 for a half day to $200 for participation in a multiday seminar to $250 per day for training that falls outside contract hours. Meanwhile, almost a quarter of respondents claimed that

their institutions provide no incentives for faculty development in the area of service-learning and community engagement.

Table 6. Incentives for Participation

Survey Question: What are the incentives for participation? (Mark all appropriate.)		
Incentive	Responses (*n* = 83)	Percent
Food	55	66.27%
Being part of a professional learning community	47	56.63%
Minigrants for course development	39	46.99%
Access to additional resources	39	46.99%
Stipend	32	38.55%
Letter/documentation for P & T portfolio	31	37.35%
Conference attendance (e.g., travel and registration)	23	27.71%
None	18	21.69%
Student assistants	13	15.66%
Course release time	6	7.23%

Assessing outcomes of faculty development. Respondents were asked to select from a list of 12 items (including "none" and "other") generated from the literature review and field testing of the survey to indicate all examples of assessment practices that they employ in their faculty development programs (see Table 7). The most common assessment practice is conducting a participant survey or evaluation of the training, which yields faculty members' self-reports of their learning and satisfaction with the program. This finding aligns with more general studies of faculty development program evaluation *(Ebert-May et al., 2011; Kucsera & Svinicki, 2010)*, all of which call for more robust and direct assessment of faculty learning.

All other assessment activities listed in the survey are used by less than half of respondent institutions. Direct assessment practices like syllabus review and analysis, course development and approval, and analysis of faculty participants' personal reflections would generate more useful data on the extent to which faculty are meeting intended learning outcomes for development offerings. Further, rigorous research practices like conducting focus groups or individual interviews, administering pre/post measures of participants' knowledge, and reviewing course evaluations could produce generalizable findings about faculty development format and content.

Again, the results suggest accountability to community partners as an area in need of attention. Only 10% of respondents reported using product delivery or goal achievement for community partners as an assessment outcome. This lack of systematic assessment of community impact mirrors what the investigators found in the conceptual literature review: a dearth of literature in the field that connects faculty development to community outcomes.

Table 7. Impact and Outcome Measures

Survey Question: Which (if any) of the following are used to assess the impact/outcomes of faculty development? (Mark all appropriate.)

Assessment activity	Responses (*n* = 81)	Percent
Participant evaluation/survey	51	62.96%
Debrief with individual participants	37	45.68%
Syllabus analysis/review	31	38.27%
Course development and approval	29	35.80%
Community partner survey/feedback	27	33.33%
Personal reflection (written or oral)	26	32.10%
Focus group/debrief discussion with group	24	29.63%
Pre/post measure of participants' knowledge	19	23.46%
Course evaluations	17	20.99%
Product/goal achievement of community partner	8	9.88%
None	7	8.64%
Other (please specify)	6	7.41%

Discussion

The following is a discussion of the results of the conceptual review and survey in the context of the research questions posed above.

Theoretical Frameworks

The results of both the conceptual review of literature and the survey revealed that most faculty development programs did not employ theoretical frameworks or models. It is unclear whether theoretical constructs were intuitively, implicitly, or unconsciously embedded into the programs or whether incorporating them was simply not considered. Furthermore, it does not appear that a developmental scope and sequence approach as described by Hoyt *(2011)* or Van Note Chism et al. *(2013)* is generally incorporated. Instead, these results from both the literature review and survey suggest that a vast majority of faculty development sessions are "static" one-time presentations on a given topic rather than a series of scaffolded workshop sessions. However, the results of the literature review suggest a trend toward the development and use of competency-based models that inform the assimilation of knowledge and skills, reflecting process models of theory characterized by Nilsen *(2015)*. These competency-based models appear to incorporate a developmental scope and sequence as described by Hoyt *(2011)* and Van Note Chism et al. *(2013)*. This approach seems to provide a robust and comprehensive chronological framework for assimilating specific knowledge and skills that build upon each other.

Professional Literature

Most of the recent articles in refereed journals are descriptions of professional development programs rather than empirical studies on their efficacy or impact. The descriptive articles either do not report any measures of impact or outcomes or are limited to participant satisfaction evaluations of the training sessions or course development as a product. Even more apparent is the lack of community partner input or assessment of the engaged teaching and scholarship that was the basis of the faculty development activities. For example, to what extent do community partners assess faculty's cultural competency and/or critical consciousness when working with diverse populations in authentic settings off campus—assuming that these topics were included over the course of faculty development. The results of the literature review and survey also

suggest there is limited empirical evidence regarding the impact or outcomes of faculty development designed to advance community engagement. Thus, we do not have an adequate sense that faculty development is, in fact, effective or whether the knowledge and skill sets are actually implemented or done so effectively. An analogy may be in order in which we consider the fact that novice drivers may successfully complete drivers' education courses, but the extent to which they effectively apply and follow the rules of the road are assumed and generally unknown until actuaries of insurance companies collect and analyze data.

These results lead to two key and related recommendations. First, the professional literature is in need of articles that go beyond description of faculty development to articulate how these programs were assessed in terms of outcomes and impact. This includes not only assessing the extent to which faculty successfully assimilated and applied knowledge and skills in developing a course proposal or syllabus, but assessing the impact these efforts had on students and community partners as discussed in more detail below. Second, continued research employing qualitative and quantitative methods is needed to provide empirical evidence on the efficacy of faculty development programs.

Formats of Faculty Development

The conceptual review of the literature and the survey results reveal that faculty development generally includes tenure-track instructors but is also accessible to adjunct/clinical faculty. Therefore, faculty development staff must be cognizant of, and address, the tensions and demands confronting various faculty groups. This includes adjunct instructors' agency to create and teach community-engaged courses and the expectations of tenure-track faculty to publish and present and to prepare for promotion/tenure review.

Most of the articles reviewed did not provide specific details in terms of duration and length of development sessions or workshops. The survey indicated that the most widely used faculty development interventions are one-on-one consultations and workshops, with the most common workshop format being a series of 1–2 hour sessions. Additionally, slightly over one third of institutions implement more robust faculty development cohort or fellows models, though the duration of these programs ranged from 5 hours to over 20 hours. Faculty development programming is happening in a variety of forms, but notably most institutions that

responded to the survey neither integrate a theoretical framework for adult learning nor utilize direct assessment strategies to measure the impact of faculty development interventions.

Knowledge and Skill Sets

This study was also designed to determine the types of information included in faculty development designed to advance community engagement through engaged teaching and scholarship in higher education that exist in the professional literature. Six core topics and skill sets consistently emerged in the literature and survey results: reflection, course development, principles of community engagement, syllabus development, assessing student learning/impact, and establishing/maintaining community partnerships. This cluster of topics appears to reflect approximately half of the topical areas and skill sets articulated by Axtell *(2012)* and only three of 14 proposed by Blanchard et al. *(2009)*. The topics and skill sets evident in the results of this investigation appear to be at an introductory level and focused on basic development of courses and logistics. But as the conceptual review and theoretical frameworks suggest, professional development (as the term implies) is, indeed, a developmental scope and sequence cognitive process in which the professional progresses from assimilating entry-level knowledge and skills to sustained and advanced areas of practice. As reported above, the works by Axtell *(2012)*, Blanchard et al. *(2009)*, and Jordan et al. *(2012)* identified in the conceptual review of the literature provide a developmental hierarchy of competencies that faculty move through that can serve as a framework for designing, implementing, and assessing faculty development.

The literature and survey results also reveal what is generally missing in terms of knowledge and skill sets. It would appear that faculty development programs must also include other important topical areas, such as promotion and tenure preparation, dissemination of research related to engaged teaching and scholarship, enhancing community capacity, grant writing, and understanding cultural and systemic dynamics, as well as cultural competency and critical consciousness that impact communities. Finally, approaches described by Blanchard et al. *(2012)* serve as exemplars by incorporating a competency-based model coupled with a professional learning community that integrates comprehensive assessment strategies.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this investigation. Kennedy *(2007)* acknowledges the challenges and anomalies of literature reviews noting, "Each reviewer must decide which specific studies to include or exclude from a review and why" *(p. 139)*. Only one database search engine was employed, and the use of additional databases might have revealed additional articles or, conversely, might have revealed redundant sources. The choice of using ERIC as the single database was based on the prior use and experience of both authors with that particular tool. The literature review was limited to articles in peer-reviewed journals and did not include conference presentations, doctoral dissertations, books, or book chapters. The rationale for this decision was twofold: to provide a consistent source and format of information, and for efficiency. Similarly, the review was limited to critiquing articles from the past 15 years with the intent of identifying relatively recent sources. Finally, other keyword descriptors might have been more effective in identifying relevant articles.

With regard to the survey, results are based on respondents' self-reports, and so the authors were unable to authenticate responses. The response rate was disappointing, despite follow-up efforts, but it aligns with Sheehan's *(2001)* findings that response rates for electronically distributed surveys have trended downward over the years. Sheehan speculates that this decline may reflect a general feeling of survey fatigue due to higher volumes of electronic surveys being disseminated to individuals for research and marketing purposes. Further, Drew et al. *(1996)* acknowledge the challenge and frustration regarding survey returns, observing that there are no set guidelines or wide consensus among researchers as to what constitutes an acceptable response rate. In hindsight, a longer response window might have been warranted, along with more follow-up e-mails prompting recipients to complete the survey. Indeed, Sheehan *(2001)* found that multiple follow-up emails were more effective than one at increasing the number of responses. Given the survey limitations, it is not scientifically accurate to generalize these responses to the broader field, but the results do provide a brushstroke of practice that serves as a starting point for continued research and implementation.

Future Direction

Perhaps most importantly, the final research question of this investigation asked, what new directions should the field pursue

to support and enhance faculty development that advances service-learning and community engagement within higher education? These results raise a number of questions that can serve as the basis for future research and guided practice. Why are robust approaches such as faculty learning communities and cohorts not utilized more? Is it due to limited time and resources? Are faculty development staff unaware of these approaches? Or are faculty challenged to make the necessary significant time commitments to this type of professional development? Why is assessment limited to participant satisfaction surveys and interviews? Do faculty development staff have the knowledge, skills, time, and resources to conduct comprehensive and multifaceted assessment? How can impact be assessed more directly and robustly to include students and community partners?

Clearly, there are theoretical frames and competency-based approaches to advancing community engagement that appear to be promising, but the results of this investigation suggest they are underutilized. It is unclear why this is the case. The investigators surmise that staff at campus community engagement centers are generally unaware of and unfamiliar with these frames and approaches. If this is the case, it appears that the field should prioritize professional development for "professional developers," which appears to be a growing role and responsibility for community engagement professionals and center staff. Efforts are currently under way through Campus Compact to develop and disseminate competency-based skill sets through curriculum and professional development institutes that may address this issue.

A competency-based approach also seems promising, as it provides a structured scope and sequence of knowledge and skill sets that go beyond basic entry-level content. Similarly, this approach may be useful in extending the duration of these learning opportunities beyond the apparent trend of workshops limited to 1–2 hours, which may not be sufficient time to assimilate new knowledge and skill sets. This method tends to incorporate specific demonstrable objectives that can be used to assess the impact of professional development. Infusing these types of benchmarks affords both a measure of assimilation and a form of ethical and professional accountability in practice. This is readily applicable to assessing direct impact of the professional development on individual participating faculty members.

In response to the challenges revealed in this study, the investigators propose that a broader, comprehensive perspective is in order by including a meta-model incorporating a scope and sequence

framework of specific competencies that include assessing impact of faculty development on students and community partners *(Welch & Plaxton-Moore, in press)*. Such a framework would incorporate a "train the trainer" model that entails community engagement professionals providing professional education to faculty through direct and indirect means across a complex web of interrelated domains for an array of stakeholders (e.g., students, community partners) in a variety of settings (e.g., classroom, community settings) and contexts (e.g., academic, civic, professional, career). This includes creating educational impact within subcontexts for faculty composed of their own professional and scholarly trajectory, discipline, and their home institution as described by Axtell *(2012)*. Professional development has the potential to indirectly serve students by empowering faculty and community partners to create, implement, and assess robust engaged teaching and learning experiences going beyond traditional course-based academic objectives to include broader outcomes for professional development *(Schnaubelt, Welch, Lobo, & Robinson, 2015)*, civic responsibility *(Adler & Goggin, 2005)*, critical consciousness *(Pitner & Sakamoto, 2005)*, cultural competency *(Ross, 2010)*, and even spiritual development *(Astin, Astin, & Lindholm, 2011)*. Community engagement extends beyond the four walls of the classroom to various settings and constituencies.

A holistic framework for professional educational development for faculty and/or community engagement professionals must explicitly name the elements and contexts that should sustain the intended changes, so that interventions can be built to effectively stimulate these desired changes. This would manifest itself by helping faculty learn how to work with community partners to identify their goals and objectives for service-learning, community-based research, and other forms of engaged scholarship that can be measured and observed as an indirect assessment of faculty development impact. Such an approach would address a critical element of community partner involvement and impact that appears to be missing in both the literature and survey.

Conclusion

Faculty development continues to be a common and viable approach to empowering faculty to develop, implement, and assess engaged teaching, learning, and scholarship to advance community engagement in higher education. This conceptual review and survey presented current trends and promising practice. These results can, hopefully, provide community engagement profes-

sionals ideas and information that can be used to develop and implement faculty development programs on their own campus. This investigation also provided descriptive data that addressed the research questions.

Generally speaking, theoretical frameworks are not typically incorporated into the design and delivery of faculty development. Programs appear to typically consist of short, 1–2 hour static, standalone on-campus "workshops" on specific topics, attended by five to 10 instructors, most often tenure-track faculty. A cluster of topics and skills common for initial entry into engaged teaching and scholarship include the "nuts and bolts" of course and syllabus development, reflection, and establishing community partnerships. However, sustained and continued professional education for more complex and advanced practice does not appear to be included in the examples of professional development programs reviewed in this investigation. Consequently, a scope and sequence of other important topics and skills need to be included in ongoing faculty development. Assessing impact of faculty development continues to be an area of needed growth and focus. This study also suggests that limited empirical research has been conducted to study the impact and outcomes of current faculty development programs. One-on-one technical support coupled with a series of 1–2 hour workshops is the most prominent form of faculty development but appears to be limited in scope. Competency-based approaches and faculty cohort models are emerging as promising practice. At the same time, there is much more that can be done and learned, and one area in need of attention is empowering community engagement professionals with these models and methods.

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About the Authors

Marshall Welch is an independent scholar living and working in the Portland, Oregon area. His research interests include service-learning, reflection, the institutionalization of community engagement, and the spirituality of service-learning. He completed his Doctor of Ministry from San Francisco Theological Seminary.

Star Plaxton-Moore is the director of community-engaged learning at the Leo T. McCarthy Center for Public Service and the Common Good at University of San Francisco (USF). She also directs the McCarthy Center's Public Service and Community Engagement Minor. Her research interests include faculty development for community-engaged scholarship, institutional culture and policies related to community engagement, student preparation for community-engaged learning, and assessment of student learning in community-engaged courses and programs. Star received her M.Ed. from the George Washington University and is completing her doctorate in multicultural education at USF.