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From the Editor...

Shannon O. Brooks



If hindsight is truly 2020, then it seems looking back in gratitude and celebration is a fitting way of introducing the last issue of the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement (JHEOE)* in 2020. In general, journals depend on routine, tight schedules, and a diligent attention to the process of scholarly publication. In this most momentous and difficult year when anything resembling routine has been upended, a heartfelt thank you is necessary for the hard work of our associate editors, managing editors, reviewers, and especially authors who have persisted throughout and made it possible to continue publishing three issues of *JHEOE* this year.

As we look ahead to 2021 when we will begin the 25th year of *JHEOE's* operation—which has been continuously supported and published by the University of Georgia during this time—I am excited about the scholarship I see in our publication pipeline and what it means for the journal's future. Trends to applaud include the increasing number of international voices we are privilege to publish; the contributions of many emerging scholars and first time authors who add a fresh perspective to our pages; and the depth of ideas from long-time contributors and thought leaders who continue to drive the field of outreach and engagement.

In this current issue, I hope you will be energized by the range of scholarship and practice represented, and be reminded of the pivotal and impactful work that is going on literally across the globe. This diversity of work and thought can clearly be seen in *JHEOE's* research articles section. Leading off, Dahan notably presents the first empirical study examining the effect of national policy on community social capital. This study focuses on the now defunct Learn and Serve and America (an influential federal program in the U.S. that once supported and promoted service-learning and civic engagement at higher education institutions), and how it may have contrib-

uted to the development of social capital in communities, particularly those also hosting Campus Compact member institutions.

Turning from the U.S. to an international perspective, "Empowering Higher Education Extension Works for Community Engagement" foregrounds a study conducted at universities in the Philippines. Abenir, Abelard, and Moreno's study fills a gap in the community engagement faculty development literature, which, as they rightly point out, is primarily grounded in programs and best practices in the Global North. Their study provides insightful lessons that can be emulated and adapted by institutions in other global contexts.

Fundraising and philanthropy throughout the COVID-19 pandemic has been a critical issue in many communities, so Nikzad-Terhune and Taylor's study of the impact of a project that helps social work students better understand the complexity of philanthropy is timely. This study explores the positive effects of an experiential student philanthropy approach on student learning outcomes related to course and community engagement and presents a unique partnership between Northern Kentucky University and local businesses that provide seed funding for this program.

Using a novel approach to a commonly researched topic of precollege STEM outreach programs, Zhou's study examines multiple variables that may influence precollege participants, including demographic variables as well as external factors such as participant satisfaction with the program experience. Findings indicate that the quality and design of the experiences in precollege outreach programs may have an outsized positive impact on program effectiveness that may counteract the negative effects of some key demographic variables.

Our second article featuring international scholarship by Areesophonpichet, Glass, and Wongtrirat presents a non-Western per-

spective of an international partnership focused on developing Thai and U.S. graduate students as engaged scholars through the Global Citizenship and Civic Engagement (GCCE) initiative. This is followed by our last project with promise article authored by McCollough, who analyzed the development and impact of a unique cultural and folk art home that became the center for an economic development and tourism partnership for Columbus State University, and the outcomes from service-learning courses connected to this cultural resource. Reading this fascinating article and learning of the contributions of St. EOM's, makes me eager to see more articles examining the importance of the arts and cultural centers in community engagement approaches in *JHEOE's* pages in the future.

The reflective essay section is designed to feature provocative and timely thought pieces that examine critical trends, movements, or emerging issues in community engagement. In "Campus Classification, Identity, and Change: The Elective Carnegie Classification for Community Engagement," John Saltmarsh and Mathew Johnson, both current and former leaders of the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification, present a theory of change for campus transformation. Based on the evolution of the Carnegie elective classification process—perhaps one of the most influential movements of the last decade to advance community engagement across higher education institutions—their perspectives, both as engaged scholars and as administrators guiding the application process, provide a unique lens for understanding the impact of this classification and the campus cultural changes that have occurred as a result.

Our next essay is evidence of this campus change and cultural shift. "Resourcing Community Partnerships Through Academic Libraries," introduces the concept of a "research sprint," an intensive, short-term research team collaboration with a library, as an illustration of why libraries can and should function as centers for community partnerships and engagement. Using a case study approach with a research team comprised of university scholars and community collaborators, Wiggins, Derickson, and Jenkins provide a thought-provoking and original argument for the importance of libraries as key players in the engagement enterprise.

It seems fitting that our final reflective essay of 2020 should examine the "messiness" of community engagement work. Kuban, Purcell, and Jones are joined by other engaged scholars from various institutions in critical reflection on an underresearched and underresourced area of scholarship and professional development for community-engaged scholars—"failure" in CES work. Through a series of reflective vignettes, the authors also explore implications for addressing failure in CES through professional development, revisiting and revising best practices for improvement, and raising awareness of the importance of making spaces for reflection and improvement.

Concluding the issue is a book review by Alexander H. Jones of Boyte's 2018 monograph, *Awakening Democracy Through Public Work: Pedagogies of Empowerment* that looks at the political dimensions of community engagement work in higher education and how this can generate a sort of praxis centered on citizens engaged in public work.

Finally, as we close out this momentous and challenging year, thank you for being part of the *JHEOE* community. I invite you to once again join us as scholars, practitioners, and readers in 2021 when we begin another quarter century of commitment to the theory and practice of all forms of engagement between campuses and communities.



Did Federal Policy on Postsecondary Service-Learning Support Community Social Capital?

Thomas A. Dahan

Abstract

Community social capital is an important mechanism for collective efficacy and civic engagement to address problems of public concern. Using panel data from four periods spanning nearly 20 years, this study investigated the effects of a federal policy supporting service-learning in higher education on community social capital as measured by an index adapted from multiple indicators. Membership in Campus Compact, a national organization of college and university presidents who have committed their institutions to public and community service, served as a proxy for grantees of the service-learning policy and for comparing variation related to institutional members of Campus Compact and other postsecondary institutions in these communities. Results point to positive contributions of the engaged institutions consistent with a policy feedback mechanism followed by a modest decline in community social capital related to the elimination of federal funding for service-learning through Learn and Serve America Higher Education in 2011.

Keywords: community impact, service-learning, social capital, higher education



Public programs are rarely terminated (Daniels, 2015). In the wake of the Simpson-Bowles Commission, the 112th Congress took steps to reduce the federal deficit by making large spending cuts across numerous government agencies (Kogan, 2012; Washington Post Editors, 2011). One program that was eliminated from the budget that year was a relatively small domestic program that funded K-12 and higher education service-learning programs: the Corporation for National and Community Service's Learn and Serve America program.

Service-learning, as implemented in higher education over the last several decades, demonstrates small but positive effects on student participants (Astin & Sax, 1998; Celio et al., 2011; Eyler & Giles, 1999). Far less is known about how service-learning impacts the communities where programs take place (Cruz & Giles, 2000; Stoecker et

al., 2010). In this article I attempt to address the gap in the service-learning literature by investigating changes in social capital over time in communities that host institutional members of Campus Compact, a national organization that supports service-learning and civic engagement in higher education. This organization and its members received most of the funding provided by the federal service-learning policy, and the membership offers a meaningful proxy for the policy's grantees.¹

Campus Compact was founded in 1985 by the university presidents of Georgetown, Brown, and Stanford and has since catalyzed a movement in higher education for service-learning and civic engagement (Battistoni, 1997; Hartley, 2011; Hollander & Hartley, 2000; Saltmarsh & Hartley, 2011). The organization grew rapidly with the implementation of the Learn and Serve America Higher Education (LSAHE) program in 1994, from fewer than 200 members in

1989 to nearly 700 in 2000 (Heffernan, 2001; Morton & Troppe, 1996). Hartley (2011) stated that “the very fact of governmental support lent credibility to the [service-learning] effort on campuses” (p. 36). By the year 2009 when the Edward M. Kennedy Serve America Act passed and reauthorized the LSAHE program, more than 1,000 institutions were members of Campus Compact. In 2011, a mere 2 years after the authorizing legislation for the LSAHE program was renewed under the Edward M. Kennedy Serve America Act, LSAHE was permanently defunded. As a result, Campus Compact saw a small decline in institutional members domestically by 2014. Campus Compact membership includes central offices for state systems of higher education, international institutions, and members that exclusively serve graduate students. This study was intentionally confined to those Title IV postsecondary institutions that offer undergraduate degrees.

Using a fixed effects analysis of the variation in the number of institutions per capita in commuting zones and the exogenous break in the time series when funding was retrenched, I have produced plausibly causal estimates of the effects of postsecondary service-learning on community social capital. In this study, I define “social capital” as a community-level characteristic that reflects norms of reciprocity and trust, making it an important mechanism for collective action. I operationalize the concept using an index composed of multiple factors associated with this definition (J. S. Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1995; Rupasingha et al., 2006).

I pose the following questions: Did federal policies supporting higher education service-learning contribute to community social capital through the density of higher education institutions in communities? Did elimination of the LSAHE funding affect community social capital through the density of colleges in a given community? Were these effects related to the density of a subset of institutions that made commitments to public and community service or the density of any other institutions of higher education?

Results point to positive effects followed by a modest decline in social capital in communities hosting Campus Compact institutions following this federal program’s elimination, consistent with a policy feedback mechanism (Mettler, 2002, 2005; Mettler &

SoRelle, 2014; Mettler & Soss, 2004). The variation in other colleges and universities in these same communities does not produce the same effect either before or after retrenchment, suggesting that the policy or its elimination did not influence communities through these institutions in the same way. This study adds to our understanding of the impact of federal policy changes, demonstrates the contribution of institutions of higher education to their communities, and combines disparate data sources in ways that may aid future investigations of the impact of service-learning.

This article is laid out as follows: It explores the theoretical antecedents that explain how federal policies can contribute to civic engagement, discusses social capital as a kind of civic engagement outcome, and draws service-learning into that discussion as a potential contributor to that outcome. This theoretical discussion is followed by an outline of the methods used to answer my research questions. I present results demonstrating the structural break related to the policy termination and conclude with a discussion of the relevance of these findings from a policy feedback perspective and propose directions for new research to further enhance our understanding of the effects of service-learning on community social capital.

Theoretical Framework

This section reviews relevant literature to present the theoretical framework for understanding how service-learning in higher education produces social capital in communities but also why changes in federal policy may have influenced the effectiveness of the practice to promote that outcome. First, I introduce policy feedback theory, which explains how federal policies promoting service-learning may affect civic engagement and social capital. I present information about social capital theory, including how civic engagement and social capital are related, as well as how service-learning may influence civic engagement and social capital. I conclude the section with a discussion of how social capital is operationalized in the literature.

Policy Feedback Theory

Policy feedback theory has a long theoretical and empirical history in the field of political science (Campbell, 2012). This theory sug-

gests that past policy has effects on future policy decisions. Classic studies such as Pierson (1993) point to Social Security as an example of a social policy whose historical design had implications for how political groups and actors would participate in the policy process over time.

Mettler and SoRelle (2014) pointed to four streams of inquiry within policy feedback theory: the meaning of citizenship, form of governance, the power of groups, and the political agenda and definition of policy problems. The power of groups in political processes explains how policies are preserved: Citizens served by public policies will act in their interests to maintain or expand the benefits accrued. In cases where benefits are diffuse, policies may be terminated because no group coalesces around their maintenance, although this outcome is exceedingly rare (Bardach, 1976; Daniels, 2015).

Mettler and SoRelle (2014) also delineated the kinds of effects that policy feedback mechanisms may have on mass politics as resource effects and interpretive effects. Resource effects influence civic capacity and civic dispositions, whereas interpretive effects may influence only civic predispositions. Resource effects may be seen through a lagged policy effect as in Mettler (2005) or as a driver of civic action for the self-interested (Campbell, 2002). Interpretive effects, such as the increased educational attainment resulting from policy feedback from the G.I. Bill uncovered by Mettler (2002), can promote civic engagement by providing policy beneficiaries the required civic disposition to participate in civic life. As a policy example, LSAHE may exhibit both resource and interpretive effects: as a resource for institutions to enact service-learning programs and partnerships and as interpretive effects for preparing students for future civic participation.

Most political scientists employing this theory are historical institutionalists relying primarily on case study methods (Campbell, 2012; Mettler & SoRelle, 2014). Mettler and SoRelle (2014) recommended improved methods that address critics of the research and its perceived endogeneity problems. They also recommended increased attention to the following question: "What impact does policy have on collective action?" (Mettler & SoRelle, 2014, p. 175). If policies have potential effects on collective action, the retrenchment of policy is

expected to have deleterious effects. Policies like LSAHE are often designed with civic engagement outcomes in mind, and we might expect changes in the social capital and civic engagement in places be affected by changes in policy through mechanisms like the institutions funded by the LSAHE policy.

Civic Engagement and Social Capital

The concept of social capital emerged with Bourdieu (1986), who described it as a network of institutionalized relationships, or group memberships, providing members with what he termed the credential of access to collective capital. J. S. Coleman (1988) presented a different take on the theory, suggesting that social capital is a resource characterized by relations among individuals for the purpose of collective action. These relations are marked by the mutual trust between actors and the norm of reciprocity. He observed these kinds of relations within voluntary associations.

Identifying the decline in civic engagement among Americans, Putnam (1995, 2001) pointed to declines of participation in voluntary associations as a primary driver. Putnam drew from his earlier work (Putnam et al., 1993) in Italy, where he noticed strong traditions of associationalism correlated with better economic and social conditions. Examining this idea in the United States, he characterized Americans today as "bowling alone" rather than in bowling leagues. The decline of social capital is reflected in a decline in participation in organizations ranging from mutual help organizations to athletic clubs. Using the predecessor to the North American Industrial Classification System (NAICS) code, Putnam examined patterns in civic engagement with the density of voluntary associations in communities across the country as a proxy for participation in these organizations. He linked these declines in participation to erosion of generalized trust. His primary recommendation for further research was to investigate the types of organizations and networks that most effectively generate social capital "in the sense of mutual reciprocity, the resolution of dilemmas of collective action, and the broadening of social identities" (Putnam, 1995, p. 76). In the policy arena, he pointed to ways in which policy may affect the production of social capital, arguing for investments in civics education.

Sampson (1999) argued that communities

high in social capital are “better able to realize common values and maintain effective social controls” (p. 333) primarily because of their collective efficacy (Sampson et al., 1997). DeFilippis (2001, 2004) critiqued social capital and referred to this pattern as part of the communitarian trend in neoliberal community development. Acknowledging that collective action is embedded in the neoliberal replacement of state provision of goods and services with those by voluntary means, Saegert (2006) pointed to social capital as an important resource in community development because it builds the collective action necessary to address problems that may be associated with retrenchment of welfare and state service provision. Although service-learning is viewed as one mechanism to promote collective action to address public problems, grant programs like Learn and Serve America provided vital resources for institutions of higher education to implement service-learning programs in response to the elimination of direct government service provision (Crenson & Ginsberg, 2006).

Social Capital and Service-Learning

Morton (1995) theorized that service-learning is based on the “continuums of service” and its aim is to “bring about change, quite often assessed as the redistribution of resources or social capital” (p. 20). Marullo and Edwards (2000) also discussed the potential for higher education to build social capital through partnerships with communities but cautioned that service-learning programs and their partnerships must be oriented toward social justice. Seifer (2010) warned that service-learning is an effective strategy for social capital production only if work is long-term and sustained.

A handful of works substantiate the claims that are posed in Morton (1995). Investigating community outcomes from rural service-learning, Miller (1997) identified social capital production as a primary outcome of university-community engagement. Miller presented vignettes about service-learning experiences in three rural communities to describe how following a multistep process focused on community development led to social capital production. Gelmon et al. (1998) presented ways in which collaborations between health care providers and universities produced “serendipitous opportunity to network with other community organizations,” pointing to the

university as convener.

Ferman (2006) discussed the role of her own service-learning project for youth in Philadelphia and argued that the university plays an important role of broker in social networks and sponsor of the youth participants’ entry into networks. She wrote, “As a sponsor, the university can span age, class, cultural, and racial divides that all too often operate as barriers” (p. 88) to low-income student success. In contrast, Patterson (2006) shared the critical stance of James DeFilippis (2001) on the limits of social capital to produce community development. She discussed the role of the West Philadelphia Improvement Corps, an early service-learning initiative of the University of Pennsylvania that aimed to create community schools with the assistance of the university faculty and students, concluding that those initiatives are laudable but cannot overcome structural barriers to improvement of distressed neighborhoods.

More recently, D’Agostino (2010) explored social capital as an individual outcome for student participants in service-learning and found small correlations with the outcome among student participants. Through a case study of a forestry resource management program, K. Coleman and Danks (2016) presented evidence for service-learning as a mechanism to produce durable social capital ties between the university and community partners.

Current Study

The purpose of this study is to examine social capital as an outcome from service-learning in higher education. In particular, I hypothesize that in the presence of federal policy funding for service-learning in higher education, positive effects on social capital will be present in communities hosting more of those institutions relative to that community’s population. Further, I hypothesize that the retrenchment of the policy and its funding will influence the magnitude of the potential effect of this mechanism. To explore these theories, I pose the following questions:

1. Did federal policies supporting higher education service-learning contribute to community social capital through the density of higher education institutions in communities?
2. Did elimination of the LSAHE funding

affect community social capital through the density of colleges in a given community?

3. Were these effects related to the density of a subset of institutions that made commitments to public and community service or the density of any other institutions of higher education?

Methods

This section presents the current study's methodology, including the discussion of the data sources used as well as the research design that enabled the fixed effects estimation of the impact of service-learning institutions on the community.

Data

The unit of analysis for this study is the commuting zone: areas developed by the USDA Economic Research Service using contiguous counties tied to an economic core via commuting patterns measured in the U.S. Census (Tolbert & Sizer, 1996). Definitions of these areas for this study are from the 2000 census. I selected this unit to represent the community because it can be thought of as a hierarchical structure, with individual towns and neighborhoods nested within counties nested within commuting zones. This strategy is often employed in urban and regional econometrics to overcome spillover effects (Baum-Snow & Ferreira, 2015). Commuting zones include densely populated urban areas and expansive rural areas, making them an ideal unit to examine service-learning practices that occur in both urban centers and rural areas (Stoecker & Schmidt, 2017).

The estimation sample uses an unbalanced panel of 320 commuting zones measured in roughly three occasions each, for a total sample size of 950. The sample is limited to communities hosting a Campus Compact institution during one or more of the four periods under investigation (see subsequent discussion of the independent variables). Descriptive statistics for the estimation sample are presented in Table 1. Statistical power analyses conducted in advance of this study suggested a minimum detectable effect of Cohen's $f^2 = .014$ for a joint test of significance of the addition of Campus Compact-related variables for the proposed models at an alpha level of $p = 0.05$ and 80% power (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, this study

has sufficient statistical power to detect even a trivial effect, should one be present.

Dependent Variable

In this study, the dependent variable is an index constructed to represent the stocks of social capital in communities developed via principal components analysis, reducing multiple, correlated variables into a single component score representing the greatest shared variation (Rupasingha et al., 2006). The variables in the original index include (1) the associational density of organizations whose NAICS code indicate the organization is voluntary in nature, including civic and religious organizations, athletic clubs (such as bowling centers and golf clubs), political and labor organizations, and business and professional associations (Putnam, 1995); (2) the number of nonprofit agencies per 10,000 population (National Center for Charitable Statistics, n.d.); (3) the voter turnout rate in the most recent presidential election (Alesina & La Ferrara, 2000); and (4) the response rate to the nearest decennial census (Knack, 2002). Rupasingha and his colleagues provided data available in the years 1997, 2005, 2009, and 2014. For this study, I exclude the census return rate from my calculation because data is reused across the structural break I intend to test.

The first principal component extracted from each time period is the social capital index used in this study. This component explains between 54% and 63% of the total variance across the three variables. Each of these variables is measured at the county level, so a population-weighted mean of the index and the individual components is calculated at the commuting zone level, giving greater weight to more populous areas in the commuting zone when determining the area's mean (Baum-Snow & Ferreira, 2015).

Covariates

I controlled for a set of theoretically relevant variables that have been shown to be related to social capital in previous research (Putnam, 2001; Rupasingha et al., 2006). For percentage of bachelor's degrees, percentage African American, median age, and percentage in the same residence, I linearly interpolated or extrapolated the data to generate the time series observations for 1997 and 2005, consistent with other research (Weden et al., 2015). These inter/extrapolations use the 2000 census, along with the 2005-2009 and the 2010-2014

Table 1. Estimation Sample Characteristics

Variable	Mean	SD (within)	N	Min	Max
Dependent Variables					
Census response	.438	.689 (.240)	950	-2.331	2.270
Associational density	-.373	.606 (.082)	950	-2.362	2.319
Nonprofits per 10,000 population	-.349	.546 (.091)	950	-1.545	3.275
Voter turnout rate	.599	.085 (.055)	950	.274	.858
Revised social capital index	-.299	.743 (.173)	950	-.882	.362
Independent Variables					
% with bachelor's degree or higher	23.340	6.714 (1.710)	950	9.682	49.447
% African American	9.617	10.924 (.475)	950	.046	67.512
Median age	36.921	3.945 (1.040)	950	23.2	53.5
% in same residence	73.437	15.057 (13.398)	950	28.232	91.175
% in poverty	14.839	4.399 (1.436)	950	6.516	40.694
% unemployed	6.556	2.486 (1.907)	950	2.120	15.585
Compact institutions per capita	.0067	.0062 (.0021)	950	.0003	.0774
Non-Compact institutions per capita	.0112	.0066 (.0024)	950	.0006	.0774
% of CZ with Compact institutions	59.287	49.139 (25.198)	2832	0	100
<p><i>Note.</i> Unit of observation is commuting zone. The Compact and non-Compact variables are log-transformed for analysis. The census response rate, associational density, and nonprofits per capita variables were standardized for the entire sample ($n = 709$, $t = 4$) with means of 0 and unit standard deviations for each time period. % bachelor's, % African American, median age, % same residence are inter/extrapolated from the data source using 2000, 2009, and 2014 data. The values for institutions per capita are the original untransformed values.</p>					

American Community Survey estimates. Estimates for poverty and unemployment came from the Department of Labor's local area unemployment statistics and the small area income and poverty estimates, which are available yearly. Each variable was observed at the county level and aggregated to the commuting zone using a population-weighted mean.

Independent Variables

Campus Compact represents a meaningful indicator of the presence of service-learning and of schools receiving LSAHE funding (Heffernan, 2001; Morton & Troppe, 1996). Over time, the increases in membership have corresponded with funding rounds from the LSAHE program. The 1997 membership list was published in the Compact's annual *Service Counts* monograph of their survey of members (Kobrin, 1997). For the periods 2005, 2009, and 2014, information about Campus Compact membership was

gleaned from the Internet Archive (<https://archive.org>) snapshots of the Compact's website. The lists of members were matched by hand to the IPEDS and Carnegie Classification records for the corresponding year for characteristics of the members.

The Campus Compact membership consists of a range of institutional types (roughly 23% community colleges, 31% public 4-year institutions, 44% private 4-year institutions, 2% other) and sizes (undergraduate enrollment interquartile range spans 1,802 to 9,264). Roughly half of the private institutions in Campus Compact are religiously affiliated, and most are selective or more selective (Indiana University Center for Postsecondary Research, n.d.). More than half of the institutions are public, and most are open access or selective. Roughly 27% achieved the Carnegie Classification for Community Engagement by 2015.

Using this information, I calculated the in-

stitutions per thousand population (based on the 2000 census) in each commuting zone. For context, in commuting zones with Compact institutions in 2009, there were an average of 3.5 institutions per place, with the Los Angeles commuting zone containing the maximum at 46 institutions. I present the geographic dispersion of Campus Compact members per capita in Figure 1, representing the change in the members per capita between 2009 and 2014. Although nearly half of commuting zones did not have a Compact institution in either time period, those with compact institutions are home to 80% of the population of the United States. Roughly 70% of places with Compact institutions saw declines in Campus Compact members per capita between 2009 and 2014, even as the total membership of the Campus Compact only declined by about 100 institutions.

To rule out alternative explanations for the outcomes observed in these communities and address my research questions, I also tested a variable capturing all other colleges per capita (referred to as non-Compacts)

to see if the same effects were present. It is plausible that having any college locally generates some variation in the social capital variable observed in this study. Campus Compact members and non-Compacts share many characteristics as institutions of higher education, with one primary difference: Compact members make explicit public commitments to community service and service-learning activities. To attribute changes in the outcome to these institutional commitments to service-learning, I expect that no effect will be present over the exogenous break in the time series for colleges that were not part of Campus Compact, as it is reasonable to expect they were not impacted by the policy change.

In this study, I use the natural log transformation of both institutions per capita variables to represent the density of these institutions in a given community. Natural log transformation achieves three goals: (1) it produces a more symmetrical distribution and makes the relationship between the dependent and independent variables homoscedastic; (2) it permits discussion

Changes in Campus Compact Members Per Capita 2009-2014

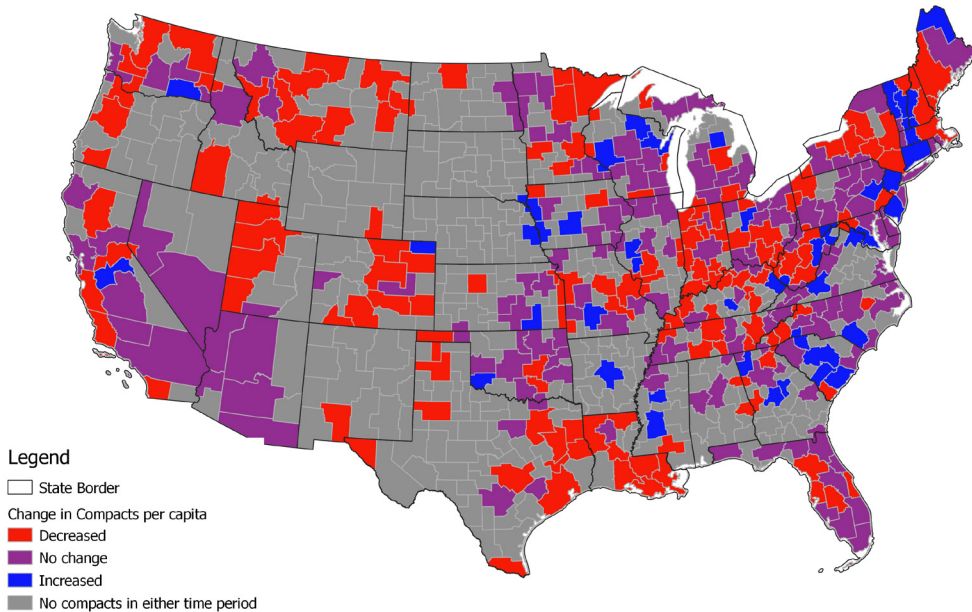


Figure 1. Changes in Campus Compact Members per Capita, 2009–2014

of results in relative terms, because a unit increase for the untransformed per capita variables is deceptive ($\ln(x)$ in this study is negative, calculated from fractions between 0 and 1); and (3) the derivative of y with respect to x is β/x , so for a 1% change in the untransformed x (an extremely small change; at the mean of x , a percentage change is roughly .00004), we can interpret the effect as $\beta/100$ (Wooldridge, 2010). However, in cases where there are no Campus Compact institutions in the commuting zone (see Table 1), the log of the variable is undefined, and therefore we cannot estimate an effect of the Compact institutions. Given the centrality of this characteristic to this study, commuting zones that did not host any Compact institutions during any given period are not analyzed in this study.

Analytic Procedures

This study provides an unbiased estimate of the effects for the density of institutions on communities hosting Campus Compact members. Using fixed effect estimation, I control for unobserved heterogeneity and present the causal estimate of my variable of interest on the outcome of community social capital. This study uses the *within transformation* to analyze the data in this study, removing the unobserved heterogeneity within places to produce an unbiased estimate of the effect of my variables of interest (Allison, 2009; Wooldridge, 2010). In addition, I tested a dummy indicating the period for 2014, along with an interaction term for the institutions per capita variables, consistent with the hypothesis that the retrenchment of funding from the LSAHE program affected community social capital through higher education institutions. This structural break was tested via a Wald test, demonstrating that the pooling of all observations of the variable of interest across time does not fit the data as well as a comparison of the funding regime against the unfunded regime (Gujarati & Porter, 2009). I present graphical interpretations of the average partial effect using the derivative ($\partial y/\partial x$), comparing the reference category (i.e., the LSAHE funding regime) against the postretrenchment regime. This contrast produces an interpretable statistic (with a confidence interval) comparing the effect across the theorized structural break that summarizes the differences of the average instantaneous rates of change across all levels of the logged compact variable.

To adjust the predictions for spatial autocorrelation and provide improved inference, all estimates' standard errors are clustered at the state level. This clustering is also theoretically justified because some states are supported by state-level Compact offices and others are not, so some states received different levels of support, resulting in what econometricians call heterogeneity of the treatment effects (Abadie et al., 2017). By clustering the effects at the state level, the standard errors are inflated to a degree, thus increasing confidence against Type I errors. I also implemented falsification tests to ensure temporal order by testing the lead of the variables of interest by one period, as future values of the Compact or non-Compact variable should have no effect on the dependent variable (Mills & Patterson, 2009).

Results

This section reviews the results of the empirical testing of the covariates against the revised social capital index discussed above and the results of the contrasted average marginal effects for both versions of the Compact variables.

Base Model

The first model presented in Table 2 is a base model that includes only the theoretically relevant covariates. The covariate model does not find that any of the relevant controls are statistically significant. A possible reason that the theoretically relevant covariates do not appear to have significant contribution to the social capital index is the lack of variation within the commuting zones across time (see Table 1). To that end, the parameter estimates produced for these variables are somewhat imprecise (Wooldridge, 2010). These variables are statistically significant contributors in the random effects framework, as found in previous work using that method (Rupasingha et al., 2006). However, diagnostic tests (omitted for space considerations) reject the random effects models, suggesting their coefficients may be systematically biased, whereas the fixed effects models produce consistent estimation with an associated loss of efficiency (Wooldridge, 2010). Furthermore, because I am primarily interested in the within-unit variation for the outcome and its relationship to the higher education variables, the covariates are included to adjust the estimation to avoid

Table 2. Fixed Effects Estimates for Revised Social Capital Index and Compact Institutions per Capita

	(1) Model 1: Covariates	(2) Model 2: compactpc	(3) Model 3: After LSA	(4) Model 4: Interaction	(5) Model 5: Full
% Bach. deg.	0.003 (0.017)				-0.004 (0.020)
% Black	0.027 (0.035)				0.016 (0.030)
Median age	-0.004 (0.016)				0.002 (0.019)
% Same res.	-0.001 (0.002)				-0.002 (0.003)
% Poverty	0.004 (0.014)				-0.000 (0.012)
% Unemployed	0.008 (0.007)				0.012 (0.007)
Compact institutions per capita		0.062 (0.040)	0.063 (0.039)	0.076* (0.035)	0.100* (0.039)
Non-Compact institutions per capita		0.051 (0.050)	0.051 (0.050)	0.040 (0.046)	0.059 (0.045)
LSAHE defunded			-0.002 (0.044)	-0.996** (0.312)	-0.971** (0.312)
LSAHE defunded # Compact inst. per capita				-0.142*** (0.036)	-0.145*** (0.040)
LSAHE defunded # non-Compact inst. per capita				-0.052 (0.058)	-0.052 (0.057)
Constant	-0.511 (0.544)	0.272 (0.389)	0.273 (0.385)	0.294 (0.339)	0.449 (0.809)
CZ fixed effects?	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
N	950.000	950.000	950.000	950.000	950.000
N_clust	51.000	51.000	51.000	51.000	51.000
r2	0.011	0.012	0.012	0.094	0.107
F	0.527	1.225	0.875	6.433	4.957

Note. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$. Cluster-robust standard errors reported in parentheses are based on standard errors clustered at the state level. R^2 reported is the within variation explained by the model's parameters.

confounding and as a check on the robustness of any findings that do not control for these covariates (Allison, 2009).

Institutions per Capita

A model that tested the two logged institutions per capita variables found that these variables were not significant for either the Compact variable or non-Compact institutions across the four periods. This model explains only 1.2% of the total variance. Introducing the 2014 period indicator does not substantially improve the variance explained, and none of these variables achieved statistical significance. A model interacting the 2014 indicator for the post-funding regime with the Compact and non-Compact variables produced theoretically relevant differences; see Table 2.

These differences persist in the full model that reintroduces the covariates. In the full model, a Wald test for the structural break for the Compact institutions is statistically significant ($F(3,50) = 7.11, p = 0.0005$); however, a test comparing the Compact and non-Compact coefficients fails to reject that the coefficients are systematically different from each other ($F(1,50) = 0.87, p = .357$). Compared to the base covariates model, the

full model improves the overall fit of the model substantially ($LRX^2(5) = 96.84, p < 0.001$) and the effect size of this model is $f^2 = 0.107$, indicating a small to moderate improvement (Cohen, 1988).

On average, the size of the difference is about -0.145 across all levels of the Compacts per capita variable (see Figure 2), which is small by conventional standards (Cohen, 1988). However, as stressed by Mummolo and Peterson (2018), analysts should compare the relative variation within units to better interpret their results. This change is substantial in terms of the overall observed variation in the outcome within communities because the standard deviation within units in the outcome is 0.173 (see Table 1), so an average change of -0.14 is roughly 84% of a standard deviation within the unit, and this effect size is slightly larger than the moderate change in the model's Cohen's f^2 . The same pattern is not present for the non-Compact institutions, suggesting these institutions are not affected by the structural break in the same way.

These findings reject the null hypotheses undergirding two of the three research questions and partially reject the third: (1) during the funding regime, Campus

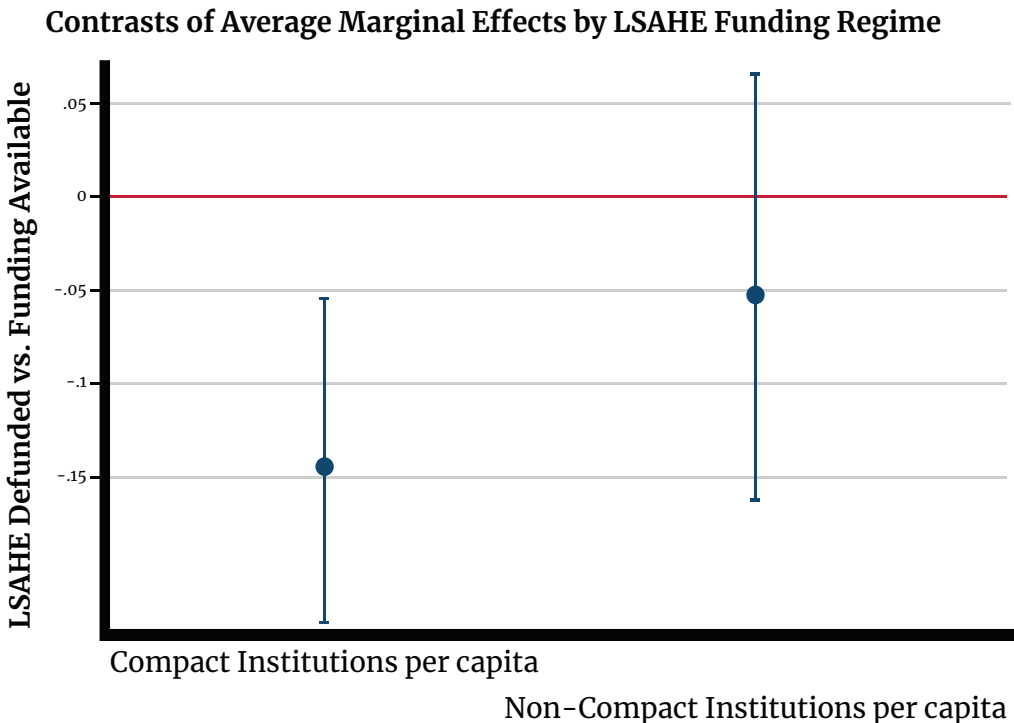


Figure 2. Contrasts of Average Marginal Effects by LSAHE Funding

Compact institutions are positively contributing to their communities; (2) the structural break associated with defunding the program reverses the effects for Compact institutions; (3) there is not a statistically significant difference between Compact and non-Compact institutions; however, I cannot reject the hypothesis that non-Compacts systematically contribute to their community's social capital in the same ways that Campus Compact institutions do.

Discussion

This article offers one of the first nationally representative empirical estimates of the impact of higher education service-learning on community social capital. Furthermore, it examines the impact of national policy on service-learning and offers evidence that federal support for service-learning promotes community social capital and the absence of federal support results in a decline of that outcome.

Community social capital is an important mediator of community well-being (Sampson, 1999; Sampson et al., 2002). It has also been shown to be an important contributor to lower rates of poverty in communities (Rupasingha & Goetz, 2007) and a positive contributor to rates of per capita income growth (Rupasingha et al., 2000). Previous research has examined education as an important contributor to community social capital (J. S. Coleman, 1988; Putnam, 1995, 2001; Rupasingha et al., 2006), but the role of institutions of higher education is absent from that conversation. Additionally, literature in the service-learning field has discussed social capital as a potential outcome (K. Coleman & Danks, 2016; Ferman, 2006; Gelmon et al., 1998; Morton, 1995; Patterson, 2006; Seifer, 2010), but it lacks quantitative evidence supporting these claims. The primary reason we might expect service-learning and community engagement to affect community social capital is that the focus of these activities is relational and reciprocal, thus promoting networks of social cohesion.

This study demonstrates contributions of service-learning to community social capital during the periods the federal government offered support for the practice, especially in areas where the density of Campus Compact institutions was higher. This study finds a structural break resulting from the retrenchment in LSAHE in 2011,

resulting in shifts in both the intercept for the 2014 period and changes in slope when the variable is interacted. These effects are not present when the main effect of the period is not interacted, suggesting that this relationship is associated with the policy change and not independent of it. The decline resulting from the structural break masks the positive effects prior to the break, which only emerge through the fully interacted model. The model itself performs moderately well in explaining the overall variance, suggesting the policy change had important implications for community social capital.

The variation in social capital was not strongly associated with the other colleges in these same communities, so it can be concluded that effects of the federal policy occurred primarily through Campus Compact membership. As suggested by the previous literature (Hartley, 2011; Hartley & Saltmarsh, 2016; Hollander & Hartley, 2000), membership in Campus Compact may have been a signal to the grantmakers that the university was committed to service-learning. It is also reasonable that national and state Compact offices would subgrant only to members, providing additional incentives for joining the organization when funding was available. A major funding strategy discussed in the LSAHE evaluation was to leverage both matching and in-kind funds from grantees and subgrantees (Gray et al., 1999), which also helps explain why a relatively small grant program can have such a seemingly outside impact on social capital.

This pattern is consistent with a policy feedback mechanism described by Mettler and SoRelle (2014), with the presence of the policy having resource and interpretive effects in promoting civic participation. Mettler and SoRelle (2014) stated that “[policy feedback theory] brings political considerations to bear on policy analysis, assessing how policies affect crucial aspects of governance, such as whether they promote civic engagement or deter it” (p. 152). The original purposes of the LSAHE program included “engage students in meeting the unmet needs of communities” and “enhance students’ academic learning, their sense of social responsibility, and their civic skills through service-learning” (Gray et al., 1999, p. 7). This study finds that during the period when funding was available, members of Campus Compact ful-

filled that policy goal. Similar to the policy feedback framework described by Mettler in her study of the G.I. Bill's effects on beneficiaries' belief in their own contributions to the polity, the social construction of service-learners as capable of meeting unmet needs and building civic skills translates into greater civic engagement in their communities (Mettler, 2002, 2005; Mettler & Soss, 2004).

The period following the retrenchment has opposite effects, eliminating the contributions toward social capital. The defunding of LSAHE played a role in a decline in social capital in communities hosting Campus Compact institutions, presumably because efforts were no longer being made at the same intensity as when funding was available. The observed decline in Campus Compact membership and numbers of institutions reporting service-learning to Campus Compact between 2005 and 2014 signals that members no longer could sustain their programs in the absence of funding (Campus Compact, 2005, 2014), while others who remained in the network may have seen budgets shrink without external support (Ryan, 2012). Similar patterns of the decision to eliminate service-learning programs at universities is documented in Orphan's (2018) study of public regional comprehensive institutions. A clear recommendation from this work is for a renewed discussion of the role of our federal and state governments in supporting service-learning and civic engagement to promote community vitality and social capital stocks.

One possible explanation for the program's elimination were the relatively small positive effects prior to termination, which indicated that the policy's benefits were diffuse. In these situations, policies may lack a natural constituency. Other policy feedback research demonstrates that college students tend to lack the organizing capacity for policy changes that affect them and their education (Mettler, 2014). The LSAHE program lacked a powerful enough interest group to advocate for the policy to remain funded, consistent with policy feedback theory (Jordan & Matt, 2014; Mettler, 2014; Mettler & SoRelle, 2014) and discussions of policy termination (Daniels, 2015). The structure of the LSAHE program also expressly prohibited "partisan political" acts by its grantees, and it is possible that grantees (including Campus Compact) did not want to lobby for the policy and find themselves in violation of the law, con-

sistent with how the nonprofit sector approaches political activity (Hartley, 2011; Taliaferro & Ruggiano, 2013).

Surprisingly little has been written about the landscape of postsecondary service-learning in the wake of the defunded LSAHE, but future research might examine how the retrenchment of federal funding influenced service-learning programming in various sectors of higher education. An additional line of inquiry might investigate whether community organizations observed declines in engagement from colleges and universities, particularly in areas where colleges and universities no longer participate in Campus Compact. The work associated with this article in identifying and coding the membership of Campus Compact over the last 2 decades can help facilitate these future investigations.

Limitations

Without direct measures of service-learning, the variable used in this study only approximates actual impacts of service-learning and unfortunately offers little in terms of implications for the practice of service-learning. Recent advancements such as the Carnegie Elective Classification for Community Engagement (Giles et al., 2010; Sandmann et al., 2009) and the new National Inventory of Institutional Infrastructure of Community Engagement (Brown University, 2018; Welch & Saltmarsh, 2013) may provide future longitudinal researchers with additional characteristics regarding the forms of service-learning and community engagement that are more effective in promoting social capital or other community outcomes.

Another limitation of this study is the choice of commuting zone as the unit of analysis. Previous authors (Bloomgarden, 2017; Cruz & Giles, 2000) argued for the community partnership rather than the broader community as the unit of analysis, given difficulties in defining "community" and the participatory nature of service-learning. This study's use of the commuting zone reflects how the outcome is measured; captures potential spillover effects that may be present in the larger labor market (Baum-Snow & Ferreira, 2015); and also permitted analysis of both urban and rural areas, addressing other critiques of the emphases of service-learning research on urban universities (Stoecker & Schmidt, 2017). This study's national scope provides baseline es-

timates for researchers to compare the possible measured effects of service-learning among their local community partners.

However, another limitation is that these results cannot be generalized to communities without Compact institutions and must be interpreted as changes observed in communities where these institutions were located. Although these places with Compact institutions are only 56% of the commuting zones, they contain roughly 80% of the population of the United States. Finally, although fixed effects regression methods are a workhorse for social sciences causal inference (Allison, 2009), I acknowledge that interpretation of these estimates as a causal assumes that any time-varying unobserved heterogeneity is not also correlated with the increases or decreases of the membership in Campus Compact. However, my inclusion of the non-Compacts in these regressions serves as a robustness check, because any of the endogenous variation that would be correlated with one class of colleges would likely also be present among the other class as well.

In conclusion, this work addresses a long-standing gap in empirical measurement of the impacts of service-learning on communities (Cruz & Giles, 2000; Stoecker et al., 2010) and addresses previous calls for research on the topic of social capital (Putnam, 1995). Furthermore, it tests relevant policy theories that explain the patterns observed (Mettler & SoRelle, 2014). These contributions build the theory base of how institutions influence social capital while connecting higher education service-learning to broader theoretical relevance. Although the proxies for service-learning used in this study do not enable direct measurement of the effect, these findings can guide future work on measuring impacts and serve as bases for other exploratory analysis of service-learning's impacts in communities. By using panel data to explore the outcome of social capital, this study presents credible findings pointing toward the effectiveness of service-learning to produce positive effects in communities as well as identifying a pattern of decline consistent with the retrenchment of federal funding for service-learning programs.



Note

¹ In January 2017, the author initiated a FOIA request of the Corporation for National and Community Service for grantee records from the Learn and Serve America program. The results from their database included only the direct grantees, with no information about subgrants. Nearly all of the grants were directed to national or state-affiliate Campus Compact offices or had a primary fiscal agent that was a Compact institution.

About the Author

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Empowering Higher Education Extension Workers for Community Engagement: The Case of a Certificate Course Offered by a Comprehensive University in Manila

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Abstract

Even though community engagement is an important function of higher educational institutions (HEIs), many HEI personnel across the world are in need of training in this area. In the extant literature, trainings for community engagement in an HEI context are well studied in countries of the Global North. However, there seems to be a dearth of literature about this field in the Philippines. Our research addresses this gap by delving into the certificate course on community engagement and organizing offered by the University of Santo Tomas (UST) in Manila. Specifically, this study describes the content and conduct of the course, presents the satisfaction evaluation results of course participants, and examines their learnings and insights. This study contributes to the literature by documenting efforts made by HEIs in the Philippines in mainstreaming community engagement in the fabric of academic life.

Keywords: community engagement, public service, engaged scholarship, extension service, Phillipines



The term “community engagement,” in the context of higher educational institutions (HEIs), refers to the collaboration between higher education institutions and their larger communities (local, regional/state, national, global) for the mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources in a context of partnership and reciprocity (Driscoll, 2009). Usually it comes in three forms: (1) public service and outreach (focuses on the service domain where faculty members, students, and academic institutions lend their expertise to address community-based issues); (2) service-learning (S-L; focuses on the teaching domain and involves a commitment to working with a community in ways that benefit the community, the faculty member, and students’ learning); and (3) engaged scholarship (encompasses the research domain whereby faculty members

and students incorporate a community orientation in their research agenda; Moore & Ward, 2010, p. 44). Among the three forms of community engagement, S-L is further subdivided into four service types: (1) direct service (person-to-person, face-to-face service projects in which the students’ service directly impacts individuals who receive the service), (2) indirect service (students are tasked with achieving some deliverable for the target community but do not necessarily engage with the service recipients directly), (3) advocacy service (students educate others about topics of public interest, aiming to create awareness and action on some issue that impacts the community), and (4) research-based service (students engage in some sort of research project aimed at meeting the research needs of the community partner; University of Central Arkansas, 2020).

However, when it comes to implementation

and valuing of community engagement in HEIs, appreciation varies because faculty members' understanding of community engagement differs across disciplines due to the different "cultural" identities of the faculty and their respective range of disciplines, which can include the social sciences, health professions, business and accounting, science and technology, arts and humanities, and vocational/technology programs (Buzinski et al., 2013). Conflicts among faculty members in such varied fields usually stem from disagreements on how to carry out tasks and often lead to complicated executions of their engagement in the community (Selmer et al., 2013). In addition, most faculty members remain unaware of the nuances of the different forms of community engagement, such as the difference between public service and outreach, service-learning, and engaged scholarship (Holland, 2016). Thus faculty members often are unable to appreciate the essence of performing community engagement, especially when there is no institutional support, no faculty development program, and a lack of promotion/recognition for performing community engagement work (Abes et al., 2002; Lunsford & Omae, 2011).

In overcoming the mentioned challenges, Moore and Ward (2010) suggested that faculty members should be trained in community engagement that is aligned to their HEI's vision and mission so that they are able to expand their scholarly work and reconceptualize their contributions as educators to the surrounding or partner communities of their HEIs. Studies have shown that when faculty members are well trained in community engagement, they become more sensitive to social issues and develop passion in addressing social problems (Vogel & Seifer, 2011), and, at the same time, they are able to advance their engaged scholarship as it systematizes their way of conceptualizing, documenting, and communicating with communities (Doberneck et al., 2010; O'Meara & Jaeger, 2016; Sherman, 2013).

Studies abound in the Global North addressing faculty development for advancing community engagement in higher education, as evidenced by the systematic review of 28 journal articles by Welch and Plaxton-Moore (2017). Tools have also been developed to measure the competency of faculty members under this area, famous among which is Blanchard et al.'s (2009) compe-

tencies required for successful practice of community-engaged teaching and scholarship. However, few if any researchers have explored this topic in the Philippines, where mostly the focus of faculty development is on helping faculty members acquire higher academic degrees (Somera, 2009; Tindugan, 2013) and increase their competencies in the areas of teaching (Bongalos et al., 2006; Gallos et al., 2005) and research (Dela Cruz, 2013; Gutierrez & Kim, 2017). Even though community engagement is considered a third pillar in Philippine higher education, it is often seen only as a sporadic endeavor, the most common forms of which are emergency services to communities struck by calamities and other community outreach activities like coastal clean-up, blood donation, and tree planting (Mojares, 2015). The community engagement function is thus not well infused into the intentional educational formation of students and the professional development of faculty members in most Philippine HEIs (Lero, 2010). One of the reasons for this seeming absence of faculty development programs for community engagement in the Philippines is the predominant view that community engagement is extension service, that is, mere dissemination of the fruits of scientific knowledge and best practices for the benefit of the public (Lero, 2010). Thus, it is only seen as a by-product of teaching and research, and the only requirement needed is compassion, that is, a heart that is willing to give and serve. But as Eby (1998) argued, when service is performed without appropriate training, orientation, and reflection, it can support ineffective and sometimes even harmful kinds of service.

The aforementioned lack of interest in professionalizing community engagement in Philippine HEIs, and the resulting absence of published studies about it, gave the authors of this study an impetus to address this knowledge gap by looking into the effectiveness of a faculty development program for community engagement offered by the University of Santo Tomas (UST) in Manila during School Year 2018–2019. This faculty development program is a 64-hour certificate course on community engagement and organizing offered by the UST Simbahayan Community Development Office (UST SIMBAHAYAN), in partnership with the UST Center for Continuing Professional Education and Development (CCPED). The course is considered the first and only certification program in the

Philippines funded by the Commission on Higher Education (CHED). As its description indicates, the certificate course aims to train faculty extension workers (i.e., faculty members involved in HEI community engagement programs) to turn their HEIs' extension service recipients into true partners for development. Thus, in addition to learning how to effectively institutionalize community engagement in their respective academic institutions, participants also learn about the basics of community organizing. By this we mean equipping faculty extension workers to build powerful and well coordinated community partners that can sustain and own externally initiated development projects, initiate their own development interventions, and become not only receivers but also producers of knowledge and resources that enrich their respective HEI partners.

Given the general aim of this study, this research delves into the effectiveness of the certificate course by (1) describing its content and explaining how it was conducted, (2) presenting the satisfaction evaluation results of the course participants, and (3) extracting learnings and insights gained by the course participants in relation to their community engagement work in their respective HEIs. We hope to enrich the literature by sharing this study about efforts in Philippine HEIs to mainstream community engagement into the fabric of academic life through building the capabilities of faculty members in this area.

Theoretical Considerations for Faculty Development in Community Engagement

The certificate course on community engagement and organizing used three theoretical frameworks for effective learning. The first one is on outcomes-based education (OBE), an educational theory that focuses and organizes everything in an educational system around goals or what is essential for learners to be able to do successfully at the end of their learning experiences (Spady, 1994). This requires starting with a clear picture of what is important for learners to be able to do, then organizing the curriculum, instruction, and assessment to reflect the achievement of higher order learning and mastery rather than the accumulation of course inputs or credits (Limon & Castillo Vallente, 2016; Spady, 1988). In

the certificate course, OBE was used when course participants were tasked to (1) make use of their sociological imagination in order to connect their personal history with that of the community engagement mission of their academic institution and the thrust of community engagement toward mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources between HEIs and their community partners, (2) assess the level of community engagement institutionalization of their respective academic institutions based on evidence, (3) make use of participatory tools and processes to analyze social structures in urban and rural communities, (4) design a leadership and organizational development program to facilitate the self-reliance and empowerment of their partner communities, and (5) create their own academic perspective infused with the knowledge base and objectives of the course and apply it to their fieldwork immersion experience. The successful performance of these tasks served as the basis to measure participants' proficiency in achieving the intended learning outcomes of the course.

The second theory used in the certificate course was the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm. According to Oliver (1981), this theory states that if a product performance or service exceeds expectations, users will be positively disconfirmed, whereas if a product performance or service fails to meet expectations, consumers will be negatively disconfirmed. Positive disconfirmation leads to increased satisfaction, and negative disconfirmation has the opposite effect. Zero disconfirmation, on the other hand, occurs when performance matches expectations (no effect on satisfaction). Applying this theory, the certificate course is seen as a product subject to participant satisfaction evaluation in which participants determine if their experience in the certificate course is better than expected, within expectations, or below expectations. Their expectations are formed on the basis of their experiences of previous training sessions in other areas coupled with statements made by friends, associates, or others about the course. Thus, guided by the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm, each session delivered in the certificate course is evaluated by the course participants in the areas of quality of resource persons, learning environment, courseware, learning effectiveness, job impact, business results, and return on investment.

Finally, the third and last theory used in informing the design of the course is Kolb's (2015) experiential learning cycle. This theory states that learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the cyclical transformation of experience that occurs in four stages (Kolb, 2015): (1) concrete experience (the learner actively experiences an activity such as fieldwork), (2) reflective observation (the learner consciously reflects back on the concrete experience), (3) abstract conceptualization (the learner attempts to conceptualize a theory or model based on the reflective observation), and (4) active experimentation (the learner tries to think of ways to apply the model or theory brought about by the abstract conceptualization in a forthcoming experience). Applying this theory, the certificate course made use of experiential learning where the course participants underwent a 24-hour (excluding rest and sleep time) community fieldwork and immersion experience in one of the partner communities of UST. In this activity, course participants were tasked with applying theories and concepts they learned in the course and, at the same time, validating and improving upon them using Kolb's (2015) experiential learning cycle.

Methods

This research is a mixed-methods case study of participants from the certificate course on community engagement and organizing offered by the University of Santo Tomas during the first and second semester of School Year 2018–2019. This study included a total of 60 course participants representing 28 HEIs included in this study, with 24 participants (representing 13 HEIs) in cohorts from the first semester and the remaining 36 participants (representing 15 HEIs) in cohorts from the second semester. The course participants received a competitive CHED scholarship with financial assistance for travel, board, and lodging, which enabled them to participate in the 64-hour certificate course for free. They got information about the course and its scholarship opportunities through the marketing efforts of UST SIMBAHAYAN and CCPED, which sent invitation letters and brochures, both through email and couriers, to the offices of campus presidents and heads of community engagement offices (when existing) of public and private HEIs all over the Philippines. To be accepted for the course, participants had to

meet the following criteria: (1) they were current academic or administrative staff involved in the program management and/or implementation of the community engagement program of their school for the past 2 years, (2) they were favorably endorsed by their respective school president or immediate superior, (3) they signed a commitment to finish and fulfill the requirements of the course (with the approval of their respective school president), and (4) they consented to serve as research respondents for the research part of the course, which was embedded in the course requirements. This study complies with the ethical guidelines of the UST Office of the Vice Rector for Research and Innovation, through its Research Center for Social Sciences and Education, and course participants were asked for their written informed consent. Data-gathering methods used in this study were process documentation, satisfaction evaluation surveys, and guided reflection papers using Gibbs's (1988) reflective cycle. Qualitative data drawn from this study were subjected to process analysis (for process documentation) and thematic analysis (for reflection papers) using the Text Analysis Markup System (TAMS) Analyzer. On the other hand, quantitative data drawn from the evaluation surveys were subjected to descriptive analysis and independent samples *t*-test using SPSS. In order to protect the privacy of the course participants, their identity has been anonymized in the presentation of findings.

Results

Table 1 shows the sociodemographic profile of the course participants. Females (52%) slightly outnumbered males (48%), almost three fourths (72%) were 31–50 years old, and a little more than half (53%) had a master's degree. The top three academic disciplines represented were (1) teacher education (23%), (2) applied sciences such as social work, agriculture, and engineering (22%), and (3) social sciences (20%). Most of the course participants were working in private HEIs (92%), and many were from sectarian schools (88%) owned by religious organizations. Finally, 80% were heads or directors of their community engagement departments or offices, and 77% formed part of the teaching staff of their respective HEIs.

Table 1. Sociodemographic Profile of Course Participants

Indicators		N	%	Indicators		N	%
Sex				School Type			
	Male	29	48		Private	55	92
	Female	31	52		Public	5	8
	Total	60	100		Total	60	100
Age Group				School Orientation			
	22–30 years old	10	17		Sectarian	53	88
	31–50 years old	43	72		Secular	7	12
	51–65 years old	7	11		Total	60	100
	Total	60	100				
Education Level				Job Position			
	College	17	28		Head/Director	48	80
	Master	32	53		Support staff	12	20
	Doctor	11	19		Total	60	100
	Total	60	100				
Academic Discipline				Nature of Work			
	Arts and humanities	10	17		Academic staff (teaching)	46	77
	Social sciences	12	20		Administrative staff (nonteaching)	14	23
	Natural sciences	2	3		Total	60	100
	Formal sciences	2	3				
	Health sciences	7	12	Study Cohort (Program Cycle)			
	Applied sciences	13	22		1st Semester/Cycle	24	40
	Teacher education	14	23		2nd Semester/Cycle	36	60
	Total	60	100		Total	60	100

Content and Conduct of the Certificate Course

The certificate course consists of four modules and requires attendance in 40 hours of classroom-based activities held in UST and 24 hours of fieldwork immersion in a partner community of UST. The four modules are on (1) the foundations and principles of community engagement, (2) analyzing social structures in communities, (3) processes and procedures in community organizing, and (4) designing a community engagement model. Table 2 presents the topics covered, number of hours, intended learning outcomes, and expected output from course participants for each module in the course.

The first three modules for the first pro-

gram cycle of the certificate course used an intensive schedule, that is, class sessions were facilitated over five Saturdays (October 6, 13, 20, 27, and November 10, 2018). Then, the fourth module (fieldwork immersion) was held within 3 days and 2 nights (November 16–18, 2018) at a rural barangay in Nueva Ecija. In the second program cycle, the first three modules were facilitated in three consecutive days (March 29–31, 2019) and then another two consecutive days (April 6–7, 2019). The fourth module was held within 4 days and 3 nights (April 12–15, 2019) at a rural barangay in Laguna. The second program cycle had a compressed schedule to lessen the travel expenses of the course participants coming from very long-distance areas, such as Northern and Southern Luzon and Visayas regions.

Table 2. Course Design of the Certificate Course on Community Engagement and Organizing

Modules	No. of Hours	Topics	Intended Learning Outcomes	Expected Output
1. Foundations and Principles of Community Engagement	12	a. Overview of Philippine history and Philippine communities	Make use of sociological imagination in connecting one's personal history with that of the community engagement mission of one's academic institution and the thrust of community engagement toward mutual beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources between HEIs and their community partners	Narrative essay of one's personal history and involvement in the community engagement program of one's academic institution
		b. History of community engagement in Philippine higher education		
		c. The basics of community engagement		
		d. Levels and modalities of community engagement		
		e. Principles of community engagement		
2. Analyzing Social Structures in Communities	16	a. Preliminary investigation	Make use of participatory tools and processes to analyze social structures in urban and rural communities	Book review of <i>PARILES: The UST-CCMF Tondo Youth Community Development Program Participatory Action Research Experience</i> by Abenir et al. (2009)
		b. Community situational analysis		
		c. Participatory research methods		
		d. Rapid appraisal methods		
Community profile of a partner community of UST using participatory rapid appraisal methods				

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Table 2. Course Design of the Certificate Course on Community Engagement and Organizing (cont'd)

Modules	No. of Hours	Topics	Intended Learning Outcomes	Expected Output
3. Processes and Procedures in Community Organizing	16	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Community entry and immersion b. Community conscientization and mobilization c. Core group building & leadership development d. Organizational development 	Design a leadership and organizational development program to facilitate the self-reliance and empowerment of one's partner communities	One-year community organizing operational plan consisting of community leadership and organizational development
4. Designing a Community Engagement Model	24	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Community fieldwork immersion b. Community fieldwork synthesis and action reflection 	Provide research-based service to the community	Present updated community profile to members of the community where the fieldwork immersion is held
			Create one's own academic perspective infused with the knowledge base and objectives of the course and apply it to the fieldwork immersion experience	Filled-out guided reflection essay using Gibbs's (1988) reflective cycle

Classroom-based sessions for the first three modules were conducted through interactive lectures and discussions, group sharing and discussion of reading and viewing materials, dramatizations, and group presentations of assigned reports. Retrieval learning methods used in the modules were think-pair-shares, brain dumps, summarizing of previous topics, and collective mapping-out of key lessons and comparing them to other groups. The fieldwork immersion, which falls under Module 4, was composed of a series of data-gathering activities using participatory research and rapid appraisal techniques, consolidation of reports, group discussions and reflections, and group presentations. Each of the course participants was housed in a particular home in the community so they could live with the people and better understand the community's way of life and culture. A culminating activity was held for each program cycle, commencing on January 19, 2019, and June 1, 2019, respectively. The culminating activity enabled course participants to synthesize their reflective learning about their entire experience of the course and served as an avenue to show them the quantitative results of their evaluation of the course, have them provide feedback on how the course could be further improved, and give them their course grade based on the submission of their course expected outputs, which were assessed using rubrics.

All the course participants from the first and second program cycles were able to comply with the required 88% classroom-based attendance and 100% fieldwork immersion participation. Following the grading system of the UST Graduate School, since the certificate course is under its Center for Continuing Professional Education and Development (CCPED), the highest grade given was 1.00, which is equivalent to an

excellent rating, while the lowest grade given was 2.00, which is equivalent to a novice rating. Table 3 shows the combined final grade profile of the course participants from the first and second program cycles. It can be seen in Table 3 that more than half (59%) of the course participants gained an excellent rating, with the apprentice rating and novice rating each applying to only one student. The rest, about 37%, fell into either highly or fairly proficient level of mastery. This means that almost all of the course participants (96%) were able to have an average to high mastery level in fulfilling the intended learning outcomes of the course. Such a level of mastery is indicated in one of the reflections provided by the course participants:

This course was like entering a new phase in my life, there were many things I did not know. Yet its teaching strategies and learning processes has helped me cope, and I felt more empowered after every session. (Course Participant 9)

However, it should be noted that 4% of the course participants ($n = 2$) were only able to achieve a low level of mastery. These course participants faced extraordinary difficulties in their family life at the time they were taking the course. Their loved ones were suffering from a critical health condition that greatly divided their time and attention, a situation that negatively affected their performance in accomplishing their course requirements. We believe that, given more favorable circumstances, they would have acquired a higher mastery level in the course.

Table 3. Final Grade Profile of Course Participants

Final Grade		N	%
Numeric Equivalence	Mastery Equivalence		
1	Excellent	35	59
1.25	Highly proficient	14	22
1.5	Fairly proficient	9	15
1.75	Apprentice	1	2
2	Novice	1	2
Total		60	100

Course Participant Satisfaction Evaluation Results

Table 4 shows the satisfaction evaluation results of course participants from the first and second cycles for Modules 1 to 3 of the certificate course. As shown in Table 4, the course participants gave Modules 1 to 3 an overall outstanding satisfaction rating ($\bar{x} = 3.88$), covering the dimensions of resource persons, learning environment, courseware, learning effectiveness, job impact, business results, and return on investment. They also reported that Modules 1 to 3 gave them an 84% significant increase in knowledge and skills, and they also claimed that 85–86% of what they learned was very critical and very applicable to their community engagement work in their respective academic institutions. However, results of the independent samples *t*-test for Modules 1 to 3 show that the total average of mean scores of those trained under the first program cycle ($M = 3.90$, $SD = 0.05$), when compared to the second ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 0.03$), indicated significantly higher satisfaction evaluation results, $t(32) = 2.64$, $p = .01$. Further, Cohen's effect size value ($d = .83$) suggests a large significant difference.

On the other hand, Table 5 shows the satisfaction evaluation results of course participants from the first and second program cycles for Module 4 of the certificate course. As shown in Table 5, the course participants gave Module 4 an overall outstanding satisfaction rating ($\bar{x} = 3.82$), covering the dimensions of fieldwork facilitators, fieldwork area, courseware, learning effectiveness, and impact to community engagement practice. They also reported that Module 4 gave them an 86% significant increase in knowledge and skills, and they also claimed that 86–87% of what they learned was very critical and very applicable to their community engagement work in their respective academic institutions. However, results of the independent samples *t*-test for Module 4 show that the total average of mean scores of those trained under the second program cycle ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 0.08$), when compared to the first ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 0.20$), indicated significantly higher satisfaction evaluation results, $t(42) = 3.04$, $p = .00$. Further, Cohen's effect size value ($d = .84$) suggests a large significant difference.

Combining the satisfaction evaluation results for the four modules, it can be surmised that the course participants from both

program cycles found the entire certificate course outstanding. To be more descriptive about why they rated the course outstanding, one of the participants has written this in the culminating activity of the course:

All my expectations were met, even more. It was a re-education for me, re-learning, a refresher course, and a re-awakening of my sleeping consciousness. I was reminded that I had a lot of things to do. I did my best to do my part and contribute to the best of my knowledge and ability. I guess everybody is doing well and contributes a lot. Even the course facilitators are very successful in rekindling the overwhelming initiative, camaraderie, and voluntary effort of each participant. (Course Participant 7)

Course participants also reported that they learned a lot about the topics covered in the course, which they found to be very critical and very applicable in improving their job performance regarding the management of the community engagement program of their respective academic institutions. In the comments section of the satisfaction evaluation survey, more than half of the course participants ($n = 34$) even claimed that the course had helped them reawaken their passion and zeal for community engagement, after so many years of feeling numb already because of the seemingly monotonous task of doing community engagement for the purpose of just meeting accreditation requirements. As one course participant commented in the satisfaction survey:

This course has blessed me a lot. I was already "woke" before but eventually learned to close my eyes. But because of this, my eyes have been opened again! Now that I have been re-awakened; it will now be a sin to ever close my eyes again! (Course Participant 30)

Learnings and Insights of Course Participants

Thematic analysis of learnings and insights gained by participants in their experience about the course yields four themes: (1) academic (knowledge, critical thinking, and reflective practice developed by learners), (2) personal (self-awareness and individual

Table 4. Satisfaction Evaluation Results of Course Participants for Modules 1 to 3

Evaluation Dimensions	Total Mean Score of Modules 1 to 3 (Classroom-based)			Interpretation
	1st Cycle (n = 24)	2nd Cycle (n = 36)	Combined (N = 60)	
Resource Persons				
1. The resource person was knowledgeable about the subject.	3.97	3.92	3.95	Outstanding
2. The resource person was prepared and organized for the module.	3.96	3.88	3.92	Outstanding
3. The resource person was responsive to the participant's needs and questions.	3.94	3.91	3.93	Outstanding
4. Participants were encouraged to take part in module discussions.	3.97	3.91	3.94	Outstanding
5. The resource person's energy and enthusiasm kept the participants actively engaged.	3.96	3.78	3.87	Outstanding
6. On-the-job application of each objective was discussed during the module.	3.90	3.88	3.89	Outstanding
Subtotal	3.95	3.88	3.92	Outstanding
Environment				
1. The physical environment was conducive to learning.	3.83	3.88	3.86	Outstanding
2. The refreshments and food served were of good quality.	3.89	3.91	3.90	Outstanding
Subtotal	3.86	3.89	3.88	Outstanding

Table continued on next page

Table 4. Satisfaction Evaluation Results of Course Participants for Modules 1 to 3 (cont'd)

Evaluation Dimensions	Total Mean Score of Modules 1 to 3 (Classroom-based)			Interpretation
	1st Cycle (n = 24)	2nd Cycle (n = 36)	Combined (N = 60)	
Courseware				
1. The scope of the materials was appropriate to meet my need.	3.89	3.86	3.88	Outstanding
2. The materials were organized logically.	3.89	3.83	3.86	Outstanding
3. The examples presented helped me understand the content.	3.89	3.86	3.88	Outstanding
4. The participant materials (manual, presentation handouts, etc.) will be useful on the job.	4.00	3.82	3.91	Outstanding
	3.94	3.84	3.89	Outstanding
Learning Effectiveness				
1. I have learned new knowledge/skills from this module.	3.91	3.86	3.89	Outstanding
2. Rate your INCREASE in skill level or knowledge of this content before versus after the module: 0% is NO INCREASE and a 100% is EXTREMELY SIGNIFICANT INCREASE.	84%	84%	84%	Very significant increase
Job Impact				
1. I will be able to apply the knowledge and skills learned in this module to my job.	3.82	3.81	3.82	Outstanding
2. On scale of 0% (NOT AT ALL) to 100% (EXTREMELY CRITICAL), how critical is applying the content of this module to your job success?	87%	83%	85%	Very critical
3. What percentage of new knowledge and skills did you learn from this module you think you can directly apply to your job?	87%	85%	86%	Very applicable

Table continued on next page

Table 4. Satisfaction Evaluation Results of Course Participants for Modules 1 to 3 (cont'd)

Evaluation Dimensions	Total Mean Score of Modules 1 to 3 (Classroom-based)			Interpretation
	1st Cycle (n = 24)	2nd Cycle (n = 36)	Combined (N = 60)	
Business Results				
1. This module will improve my job and productivity.	3.90	3.85	3.88	Outstanding
Return on Investment				
1. This module was a worthwhile investment in my career development.	3.85	3.91	3.88	Outstanding
2. This module was a worthwhile investment for my employer.	3.87	3.86	3.87	Outstanding
Subtotal	3.86	3.88	3.87	Outstanding
Overall Total	3.90	3.86	3.88	Outstanding

Table 5. Satisfaction Evaluation Results of Course Participants for Module 4

Evaluation Dimensions	Total Mean Score for Module 4 (Fieldwork Immersion)			Interpretation
	1st Cycle (n = 24)	2nd Cycle (n = 36)	Combined (N = 60)	
Fieldwork Facilitators				
1. The fieldwork facilitators were knowledgeable about fieldwork.	3.94	3.89	3.92	Outstanding
2. The fieldwork facilitators were prepared and organized.	3.94	3.74	3.84	Outstanding
3. Participants were encouraged to take part in the fieldwork activities.	3.88	3.91	3.90	Outstanding
4. The fieldwork facilitators were responsive to the participants' needs and questions.	3.94	3.79	3.87	Outstanding
5. The fieldwork facilitators' energy and enthusiasm kept the participants actively engaged.	3.65	3.80	3.73	Outstanding
6. The expectations of the participants from the fieldwork facilitators were met.	3.82	3.86	3.84	Outstanding
Subtotal	3.86	3.83	3.85	Outstanding
Fieldwork Area				
1. The fieldwork area was conducive to learning.	3.88	3.91	3.90	Outstanding
2. The community members were receptive, cooperative, hospitable, and instrumental to make learning possible.	4.00	3.97	3.99	Outstanding
3. The expectations of the participants from the fieldwork area were met.	3.94	3.86	3.90	Outstanding
Subtotal	3.94	3.91	3.93	Outstanding

Table continued on next page

Table 5. Satisfaction Evaluation Results of Course Participants for Module 4 (cont'd)

Evaluation Dimensions	Total Mean Score for Module 4 (Fieldwork Immersion)			Interpretation
	1st Cycle (n = 24)	2nd Cycle (n = 36)	Combined (N = 60)	
Courseware				
1. The materials provided were appropriate to meet my needs.	3.82	3.83	3.83	Outstanding
2. The resources provided for food were sufficient and appropriate.	3.71	3.97	3.84	Outstanding
Subtotal	3.77	3.90	3.84	Outstanding
Learning Effectiveness				
1. The fieldwork orientation provided prepared me well for the actual fieldwork immersion.	3.35	3.79	3.57	Outstanding
2. I learned how to conduct rapid rural appraisal (RRA):				
A. Preparation of a research plan/RRA Plan	3.59	3.82	3.71	Outstanding
B. Data-gathering method	3.59	3.94	3.77	Outstanding
C. Processing of data/preparation of research results	3.35	3.76	3.56	Outstanding
D. Presentation of research results	3.65	3.82	3.74	Outstanding
E. Formulation and finalization of RRA report	3.35	3.68	3.52	Outstanding
F. Working with a group	3.71	3.94	3.83	Outstanding
3. I learned new knowledge/skills from this fieldwork.	3.47	3.97	3.72	Outstanding
4. Rate the improvement in your skill or knowledge because of your fieldwork experience. A 0% is NO IMPROVEMENT and a 100% is an EXTREMELY SIGNIFICANT IMPROVEMENT.	86%	86%	86%	Very significant
Subtotal	3.51	3.84	3.66	Outstanding

Table continued on next page

Table 5. Satisfaction Evaluation Results of Course Participants for Module 4 (cont'd)

Evaluation Dimensions	Total Mean Score for Module 4 (Fieldwork Immersion)			Interpretation
	1st Cycle (n = 24)	2nd Cycle (n = 36)	Combined (N = 60)	
Impact to Community Engagement Practice				
1. I will be able to apply the knowledge and skills learned in this fieldwork immersion to my community engagement practice.	3.71	3.88	3.80	Outstanding
2. On scale of 0% (NOT AT ALL) to 100% (EXTREMELY CRITICAL), how critical is content application of this fieldwork to your engagement practice?	89%	83%	86%	Very critical
3. Whats is your estimate in percentage of new knowledge and skills you learned from this fieldwork which you will directly apply to your community engagement practice?	87%	87%	87%	Very applicable
4. This fieldwork will improve my community engagement practice and productivity.	3.76	3.88	3.82	Outstanding
5. This fieldwork was a worthwhile resource for the institution I am working for.	3.76	3.91	3.84	Outstanding
Subtotal	3.75	3.89	3.82	Outstanding
Overall Total	3.72	3.86	3.82	Outstanding

abilities developed by learners), (3) social (people skills developed by learners), and (4) civic outcomes (citizenship and socio-political skills developed by learners).

First, regarding academic outcomes, course participants were unanimous in saying that the community fieldwork and immersion was the most effective experiential learning they had. Around 90% claimed it was their first time to have a learning experience that helped them better understand, apply, and practice topics discussed during class sessions. As one course participant claimed:

My fieldwork experience is great and it was my first time. I learned a lot because I was able to connect it with the concepts I learned in the course. Because of this I can say that the people in the community have the potential and capabilities when they are allowed to participate through collective action. This fieldwork experience has shown me that community development is about promoting people's wellbeing and the welfare of everybody. (Course Participant 36)

Course participants also emphasized that their fieldwork experience gave them the opportunity to demonstrate what they had learned in terms of the foundations and principles of community engagement, the processes involved in community organizing for community development, and participatory research through the use of rapid rural appraisal (RRA). Some even realized that because of what they had learned in the course, they were able to understand why their development interventions in their partner communities seemed ineffective and the corrective actions that they needed to take. As one course participant wrote in his reflection paper:

I came to realize the reason why projects in our partner community did/do not prosper. Why after all of those livelihood projects we have implemented in our partner community, their living condition is still the same. Now I know that we have to start with the people. We have to organize the community first and involve them in diagnosing their own community, assessing their present condition and planning for the upliftment of their

living conditions. They should be the one to start thinking of what they need because they know better for themselves. We will just guide them and help them implement and achieve the goals of the community and the College as well. (Course Participant 53)

Second, for personal outcomes, the majority of the course participants expressed that the course helped them further develop their self-esteem, personal efficacy, and personal identity in the context of community engagement. They felt more confident about their role as managers, coordinators, or officers of the community engagement program of their school. They also claimed to have realized that they now had an intensified role to play in their respective institutions and the bigger society, where they feel a need to share and act upon what they had learned from the course. As one course participant expressed:

I started my work as a community development officer, and I felt that I am not qualified because I had no confidence that I can do the job well. Prior to the course, there were times that I was losing faith in myself and thinking that I am not an efficient or effective in what I do. However, completing the course excited me. I am now willing to learn more about community development and willing to improve myself further to help my institution and our community partners. (Course Participant 42)

In addition to the development of their self-esteem, personal efficacy, and a much clearer personal identity in the context of community engagement, the course participants also highlighted that their moral and spiritual values were formed in the course. This means that they not only experienced an increase in knowledge and skills, they also learned about the heart and spirit of community engagement. As one course participant explained in her reflection paper:

I learned that acceptance, respect, and love are the key ingredients of a successful community engagement—Accept the differences of every person, respect their ideas and insights, and love working with them and in executing the role

given to you. (Course Participant 38)

Third, in terms of social outcomes, course participants claimed that the course has allowed them to extensively make use of their interpersonal and collaboration skills in order to solve problems, overcome challenges, and accomplish tasks. The majority of them stated that their interpersonal skills were improved, they found it essential to be a team player, and they highly appreciated how working in a transdisciplinary team could accomplish a lot and provide complementary perspectives. As two of the course participants reflected on their experience in producing a community profile during their fieldwork immersion:

My classmates' performance was likewise admirable. We come from different institutions with different disciplinary cultures and backgrounds, yet we managed to become one as a team to help one another, and at the same time assist the community through our gathered data and presentation of results and analysis. In this way, we were able to show the purity of our intentions to be of help to others. (Course Participant 25)

The things that transpired to me in the course was that I was able to learn the importance of group work, that two heads are better than one. As we work together to do our job, we need to professionally come up with one whole and connected pictures of ideas. (Course Participant 29)

Aside from being able to further develop their interpersonal and collaboration skills, course participants also claimed that they were able to practice empathy and provide encouragement to boost each other's morale. They found this very useful since it made the course much lighter and more enjoyable, considering that they found the course requirements quite challenging. As one respondent mentioned:

I served as facilitator during workshops and of course, the solidarity night from which I actively joined the games, group presentation and community dance. Also, giving a chance for others to report during

plenary was very fulfilling. Being able to motivate groupmates to speak on behalf of the group was something to be proud of. And I am truly happy that one even communicated by thanking me for giving her the opportunity to represent our group during the sessions. It is very important to realize how each one can contribute and can help in the development and improvement of one another. (Course Participant 48)

Finally, regarding civic outcomes, course participants realized that community engagement requires them to elicit the participation of people in their partner communities for all phases of development initiatives. They must also have the voices of their community partners heard in decision making for development programs. Furthermore, many realized that messianic and charity-based approaches will not result in a genuine development of their community partners but will only lead to the development of a dole-out mentality. As one course participant explained:

Before taking this course, I have the attitude and/or practice of serving the community in a wrong way. I just realized that I was so manipulative before. I taught the community in becoming so dependent on what we can do, and what we can give to them. Now I have learned the importance of inculcating in their minds the importance of participation and ownership in all projects and programs we have for them. (Course Participant 6)

Moreover, participants also highlighted that the course has inspired them or has reawakened their desire to be an active member of society and active citizen of the country. However, they are aware that they cannot do this alone, hence they emphasize the need to influence others, especially their students, colleagues, and community partners. As one course participant wrote:

It is about time to rekindle the passion and involvement of students in community engagement. It should start with an in-depth discussion with the department chairperson, coordinators, and student-leaders about their future plans with our

community partners. We need to fully exhaust our capacity in community building. We need to tap community members who are able and interested in their own development, for these people would play a key role in community development. We need to do this not only because of its promising contributions in the community, but for the country as well. (Course Participant 17)

Discussion

On the Results of the Sociodemographic Profile of Course Participants

The sociodemographic profile of the course participants indicates that the number of female participants ($n = 31$) exceeds the number of males ($n = 29$) by 4%. If such difference is to be considered relevant, then this might mirror the observation of other studies that women are found more likely to be involved or assigned in the community engagement programs of their schools (Demb & Wade, 2012). This likelihood reflects traditional gender roles where caring and service work are more often than not assigned to women (Hochschild, 2003; Nussbaum, 1997). However, if the small difference is interpreted as an almost equal representation, this may reflect the same level of involvement of males and females in the field of community engagement in Philippine HEIs, signaling that there is no gender divide. Interestingly, a further look at the power dynamics between male and female course participants reveals something else. Out of the 48 who served as heads or directors of community engagement programs of their respective HEIs, only 42% are females ($n = 20$) and 58% are males ($n = 28$). This difference might reflect the observation that gender inequality still persists in leadership positions, with males favored over females (Gipson et al., 2017).

When it comes to age, findings reveal that 72% of the course participants were 31–50 years old. Further analysis of their age shows that their mean age is 39 years old, and 72% of those aged 31–50 years old ($n = 31$) are heads or directors of their respective community engagement departments. This means that the course participants are considered to be at their prime age and, at their age, are expected to handle

middle to senior managerial tasks (Oude Mulders et al., 2017; von Bonsdorff et al., 2018). Also worth mentioning is that 72% of the course participants have postgraduate degrees beyond the bachelor's ($n = 43$), which may suggest their compliance with the CHED Memorandum Order (CMO) No. 40, s. 2008. This CMO requires all faculty members in HEIs to have at least a master's degree. It can also be noticed that 77% of the course participants ($n = 46$) were faculty members, whereas the remaining 23% were nonteaching or administrative staff ($n = 23$). This conveys that the responsibility for community engagement is not automatically the domain of faculty members. However, since the majority of participants were faculty members, this may indicate that community engagement is indeed a function expected of them, aside from teaching and research.

Also, findings reveal that 65% of the course participants ($n = 39$) come from the fields of teacher education ($n = 14$), applied sciences ($n = 13$), and the social sciences ($n = 12$). This finding reflects the findings of Demb and Wade (2012) that individuals in such disciplines, which are often community-centered and require community or field exposure (e.g., education, the health professions, social sciences, social work, agriculture), are the most likely to participate in community service or engagement. Also, a majority of the course participants came from private HEIs (92%) that were sectarian or owned by religious organizations (88%). This could reflect three things. First, it is a function of demographics since out of the total of 2,353 HEIs in the country, 89% (2,094) are privately owned, whereas only 11% (259) are publicly owned (CHED, 2018). Second, faculty members in Catholic or religious HEIs are known to have higher levels of community engagement participation compared to those at public and secular universities (Demb & Wade, 2012). Third, through the culminating feedback activity held at the end of the course, course participants from public HEIs informed trainers that the lack of representation from state-owned universities and colleges in the course may be a function of their unfamiliarity with the term “community engagement.” Public HEIs officially and normatively use the term “community extension services,” making “community engagement” not a regular part of their vocabulary. The marketing strategies of UST SIMBAHAYAN and UST CCPED failed

to mention community extension services in their letters of invitation and course brochures, which might have resulted in the poor participation rate of public HEIs.

On the Results of the Content and Conduct of the Certificate Course

The certificate course offers unique topics sensitive to the needs of community engagement personnel in Philippine HEIs. These topics are the overview of Philippine history and Philippine communities, and the history of community engagement in Philippine higher education. These topics help course participants contextualize their work toward the goal of building a mutually beneficial exchange of knowledge and resources between HEIs and their community partners and, at the same time, help them understand the unique position and contribution of HEIs in achieving the said goal. Aside from these, the course also has topics in common with other faculty development programs for community engagement in other countries in the Global North. Using the study of Welch and Plaxton-Moore (2017) as a basis for reference, topics shared by or resembling those of other faculty development programs for community engagement are (1) the foundations and principles of community engagement; (2) establishing and maintaining partnerships; (3) community-based research, which includes conducting community assessments and participatory research; (4) community organizing steps and processes; and (5) field immersion. The topics covered in the course are thus in keeping with those practiced in other HEIs abroad that take community engagement seriously. However, Welch and Plaxton-Moore (2017) also pointed out that the most widely used faculty development interventions for community engagement are 1–2 hour sessions of one-on-one consultations and workshops. They also emphasized that only a few HEIs implement more robust faculty development cohort or fellows models, and the duration of these programs ranged from 5 hours to over 20 hours. Given this current practice, the certificate course on community engagement and organizing offered by the University of Santo Tomas stands as unique in its own right since it requires a duration of 64 hours to complete the course using OBE and experiential learning at the core of its pedagogy. This ensures that course participants are better prepared and trained in the area of community engagement in the context of

HEIs as reflected in their satisfaction evaluation results.

On the Results of the Satisfaction Evaluation Survey

Findings reveal, based on the satisfaction evaluation results, that the entire conduct of the certificate course, from Module 1 to Module 4, was rated outstanding by the course participants from both program cycles. They also reported that the certificate course provided them with knowledge and skills that they found to be very critical and very applicable in improving their job performance in community engagement work at their respective academic institutions. Many even claimed that the course has helped them reawaken their passion and zeal for community engagement. Such outstanding rating for the certificate course by the participants may reflect their fulfilled need for a comprehensive and thorough training in community engagement. As noted earlier, faculty development programs in Philippine HEIs are mostly focused on helping faculty members acquire higher academic degrees (Somera, 2009; Tindugan, 2013) or increase their competencies in teaching (Bongalos et al., 2006; Gallos et al., 2005) and in research (Dela Cruz, 2013; Gutierrez & Kim, 2017). But O'Meara and Jaeger (2016) and Moore and Ward (2010) claimed that faculty members often want to engage in work that has a positive impact on the broader society and work that has personal significance for them. However, they found that epistemologies and frameworks around the process, products, and locations of scholarship development programs in HEIs are focused on producing specialized researchers or even teachers who are not aware of the importance of connecting their disciplinary work to public purposes. Thus, they claim that the design of these programs leaves many academic and administrative personnel working in HEIs at a disadvantage regarding community engagement. This certificate course may have offered a breath of fresh air for course participants because it rekindled their desire to engage in work that has a positive impact on a broader society. At the same time, the course gave them the opportunity to acquire knowledge and skills that are very critical and very applicable in their present job assignments.

In addition, individual sample t-tests also revealed that for Modules 1 to 3, which use

learning sessions in the classroom, the first program cycle participants significantly and largely gave a higher satisfaction rating of the course than those under the second program cycle. The reverse occurred under Module 4, the fieldwork immersion, where the second program cycle participants significantly and largely gave a higher rating of the course than those under the first program cycle. These differences in satisfaction rating probably reflect the different classroom schedules for the two program cycles. For the first program cycle, classroom-based learning was equally spaced into five 8-hour learning sessions with a 1-week break between sessions to allow ample time for performing class assignments. On the other hand, second program cycle course participants experienced a compressed schedule, where the first three sessions of their classroom-based learning occurred in three successive days, after which they had only a 1-week break before they completed the last two sessions in two successive days. This schedule also obliged them to rush in completing their class assignments. It can be surmised that the course participants who were not rushed in their learning and had ample time to rest and complete their assignments had a more enjoyable experience. This result is supported by studies concerning spacing effect where, for a given amount of study time, well-spaced presentations and intensive class schedules (classes held only once or twice a week) yield substantially better learning and more satisfactory learning experiences among learners than do massed presentations and compressed class schedules (Dempster, 1988; Rayburn & Rayburn, 1999; Trout, 2018). On the other hand, the difference in satisfaction results for the fieldwork immersion may reflect the travel time and amount of actual time spent in the field. The first program cycle participants had to spend a total of 12–14 hours going to and from the designated fieldwork area in Nueva Ecija, which took time away from their 24-hour field immersion experience that amounted to a total of 3 days and 2 nights' stay in the community. On the other hand, the second program cycle course participants had to experience only a total of 6–8 hours of going to and from their designated fieldwork area in Laguna. Also, learning from the first program cycle experience, the course facilitators excluded the travel time from the 24-hour field immersion experience, which resulted in a total of 4 days and 3 nights' stay in the com-

munity. The second program cycle course participants thus spent more time in the field. The authors conjecture that that lesser travel time and longer time spent in actual field immersion contributed to a higher satisfaction rating by the course participants. This finding is supported by the study of Harper (2018), who found that well-planned travels for field immersions and emphasis on ample time spent in the field by learners contributed to a deeper understanding of place and more time to engage meaningfully with the local population.

On the Results of the Learnings and Insights of Course Participants

Research findings show that the course participants achieved four learning outcomes after completing the course. These learning outcomes are classified into academic, personal, social, and civic. For academic outcomes, they were able to successfully gain knowledge, skills, and abilities in terms of the foundations and principles of community engagement, the processes involved in community organizing for community development, and participatory research through the use of rapid rural appraisal (RRA). For personal outcomes, they were able to develop their self-esteem, personal efficacy, and personal identity, and deepen their moral and spiritual values in relation to community engagement. For social outcomes, they were able to practice and hone their interpersonal and collaboration skills within the context of transdisciplinary teamwork. Also, they were able to further develop their ability to empathize and to encourage people. Finally, for civic outcomes, course participants were able to strengthen their commitment to the value of community participation and ownership in development programs and projects. They also appreciated that the course inspired them to become active citizens who should consciously influence others to work toward community development and building of a robust democratic society. These learnings and insights gained by the course participants indicate that the course has really been successful in reawakening or even transforming their desire to effect positive change in their lives, in the academic institutions they work for, in the communities they partner with, and in the larger society.

The rich learnings and insights gained by the course participants were made possible through the effective use of the educational

theories of OBE and experiential learning. Studies on OBE show that students feel empowered and experience deep learning in this approach since they are being evaluated on their ability to perform and accomplish tasks rather than their ability to pass traditional pencil-and-paper exams (Kaliannan & Chandran, 2012; Tshai et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2011). These benefits may account for course participants' claims that their expectations were met and that they felt empowered after every session since they were able to accomplish tasks that deepened their learning about the topics covered in the course. Also, experiential learning proved to be very powerful. All course participants pointed out that their community fieldwork experience was a game changer, since it helped them directly apply what they learned in the course in a real-world setting. A majority of participants reported that it was their first time to undergo experiential learning for community engagement. Studies have shown that experiential learning helps students acquire needed technical skills related to the course they are taking, provides deeper learning, enhances personal growth, and helps develop social skills when performed in a group setting (Hill, 2017; Mu et al., 2016; Szeto et al., 2016). In addition, since the community fieldwork immersion included a service component in which results of participatory RRA were presented to community members, course participants developed a social change orientation wherein they wanted to be of better service to their community partners and to influence their colleagues and students to contribute to the community, larger society, and the country as a whole. The kind of service the course participants rendered to their fieldwork site can be considered a form of research-based service-learning (S-L). Thus, the civic outcome developed by course participants confirms studies indicating that S-L is an effective strategy to help students develop their civic consciousness through a commitment to social action, active citizenship, and democratic decision-making (Celio et al., 2011; Moely & Ilustre, 2014; Weiler et al., 2013). Such outcomes can also be expected since, as Deans (1999) claimed, the experiential learning that students undergo through S-L closely follows the hallmarks of Paulo Freire's critical pedagogy or liberation education. The centrality of experience and systematic reflection afforded in S-L thus often results in the abiding hope for social change among learners that propels them to

commit to community action (Deans, 1999).

Conclusion

This research explored how the certificate course on community engagement and organizing offered by UST impacted 60 teaching and nonteaching extension workers of 28 higher educational institutions in the Philippines. Based on the evaluation results, the course exceeded the participants' expectations as they appraised several dimensions, including resource persons, learning effectiveness, job impact, and return on investment, among others. Course participants also reported that they gained significant knowledge and skills that they found to be very critical and very applicable to their present job assignments. Aside from undergoing a 64-hour course, the use of OBE and the community fieldwork immersion proved to be the most effective teaching and learning strategies for course participants. Through these strategies, they felt empowered by their new knowledge and skills, and most of them were able to have a firsthand experience of deeply engaging in a partner community. This experience was very meaningful even though most participants were in charge of the community engagement programs in their respective schools. However, it must be noted that course participants who experienced an intensive schedule (once a week classroom-based learning) and had more ample time spent on their field immersion and lesser travel time to and from their fieldwork area were the ones who gave the course a higher satisfaction rating. Recognizing the source of this higher level of satisfaction can inform improved class scheduling, travel time planning, and actual time spent in field immersion in the future program cycles of the certificate course.

Further, participants' learnings and insights about the topics covered in the course and their community fieldwork immersion experience led them to achieve four important learning outcomes, reflecting their academic, personal, social, and civic development in relation to community engagement. In the end, the course led the participants to become more conscious about relating with their communities as coequals and partners for development, in addition to gaining a heightened sense of social change orientation and an enhanced need to influence others toward community development and building of a robust democratic society.

Although the entire course was evaluated as outstanding by the participants, other topics can still be developed as a basis for offering advanced courses on community engagement and organizing in the future. Course participants have mentioned in their course evaluation that they want to learn more about community leadership development, participatory project management, cultural and emotional sensitivity to marginalized sectors, social advocacy work, teaching through service-learning, and participatory research and documentation. Also, since participants who greatly benefited from the course mainly came from Luzon with a few from Visayas (unfortunately none from Mindanao), it would be helpful to make it more accessible to others so a greater number of HEI community engagement workers can benefit. Such wider benefits may be achieved through any or a combination of the following: online distance learning, blended learning, offering the course as a regular semestral certificate course with scholarship grants in the UST Graduate School, or directly conducting the course in the different academic regional hubs in the Philippines, including Mindanao. Also,

marketing strategies for the course should include the term “community extension services” in order to attract more eligible participants from public HEIs. The overall goal of all of these strategies is to make faculty/extension workers’ development programs for community engagement/community extension service a regular staple in the country.

In the future, following Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick’s (2007) training evaluation model, the certificate course should be investigated in terms of impact on behavior and results. Here “behavior” means how well the course participants applied what they learned in their actual community engagement work and “results” reflect the impact of the training on the community engagement institutionalization of the course participants’ respective HEIs and empowerment of their respective community partners. This investigation can be performed at least a year and a maximum of 3 years after completion of the certificate course.



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Supporting Community Connections: Experiential Student Philanthropy and Engaged Learning in Social Work

Katherina Nikzad-Terhune and Jessica Averitt Taylor

Abstract

Community engagement and philanthropic learning have gained traction in university settings as a method to help prepare students for both workplace competency and citizenship. Experiential student philanthropy is a learning method that offers students an opportunity to examine community and social issues and nonprofit organizations while providing them with the unique opportunity to invest funding in nonprofit organizations. This study examined the impact of an experiential student philanthropy project in a graduate-level social work course at Northern Kentucky University (NKU) through the use of a pretest and posttest administered to involved students. The results indicate that incorporation of the Mayerson Student Philanthropy Project (MSPP) with this class ultimately strengthened learning outcomes as related to both course engagement and community engagement.

Keywords: community, community engagement, student philanthropy, engaged learning, social work



Higher education is committed to producing competent individuals who are prepared to enter the workforce with proficiency, critical thinking, and a desire to improve their communities. In this context, community engagement and philanthropic learning have gained traction in university settings over the years to help prepare students for both workplace competency and citizenship. Indeed, university campuses and the surrounding communities have a shared purpose in the support of human discourse and development of civic-minded culture that addresses societal needs (Boyer, 1996; Votruba, 1996). These aligned principles connect traditional classroom learning with experiential learning to help instill in students an understanding of their role and responsibility in the community. This study examined the impact of the Mayerson Student Philanthropy Project (MSPP) in a graduate-level social work course at Northern Kentucky University (NKU) through the use of pretest and post-

test survey data among involved students. In total, 46 students were included in a pretest and posttest survey, with the results indicating that incorporation of the MSPP with this class ultimately strengthened learning outcomes as related to both course engagement and community engagement.

Review of the Literature

Experiential Student Philanthropy

Experiential student philanthropy is a learning method that offers students an opportunity to examine community and social issues and nonprofit organizations while providing them with the unique opportunity to invest funding in nonprofit organizations (Campbell, 2014). This teaching strategy allows students to become actively engaged in their classroom curriculum by experiencing firsthand the role of nonprofit organizations in their community while developing civic-minded perspectives and

experiencing the grant proposal process (Bloch, 2018; Olberding, 2009). Experiential student philanthropy has expanded over the past 15 years and has strengthened partnerships between universities and community affiliates (Millisor & Olberding, 2009).

There are currently two models of experiential student philanthropy: the direct giving approach and the indirect giving approach (Olberding, 2009). The direct giving approach provides classes with an amount of funding, typically donated by local corporations. Students then have the opportunity to invest these funds in a nonprofit organization through a process of researching appropriate organizations, inviting identified nonprofits to apply for the funds, and directly deciding which organization will receive the funds (Olberding et al., 2010). The indirect giving model (developed at NKU in 2007) involves students partnering with a local business to help review grant proposals submitted by nonprofit organizations. Although students who participate in the indirect giving model do not directly give funds to the nonprofit organization, they provide recommendations to the local corporation regarding which proposals should be funded. Both models provide students with a valuable opportunity to obtain a more thorough understanding of community needs and the structure of nonprofit organizations (Olberding et al., 2010). In addition, both models empower students to serve as evaluators of small grant proposals. The indirect giving model that originated at NKU has since served as a foundation for other universities across the country.

In reviews of the literature on experiential student philanthropy and service-learning, we identified the following goals of student philanthropy:

Enhance awareness of social problems and nonprofit organizations in the community; increase knowledge of philanthropic processes, particularly grant seeking and grant making; influence attitudes, interests, intentions, and behaviors related to civic engagement and social responsibility; enhance understanding of the academic content of the course by integrating theory and practice; and improve critical thinking, communication, leadership, and other work-life skills. (Olberding, 2009, p. 465; see

also Dicke et al., 2004; Markus et al., 1993; Reinke, 2003).

In relation to these goals, infusing experiential student philanthropy and community engagement within the classroom has yielded various academic benefits for students across disciplines. Ahmed and Olberding (2007) were among the first to extensively assess the goals of student philanthropy through analyzing quantitative data from 1,000 students who participated in the MSPP over a 5-year period. Results indicated that students reported an increased awareness of both social problems (89.6%) and nonprofit organizations (94.9%) and an intent to donate money to charity (83.7%) and do volunteer work (82.6%; Ahmed & Olberding, 2007). Subsequent research on experiential student philanthropy indicates increases in students' awareness of community needs and problems; increased student awareness of area nonprofit organizations; increased student intentions of participating in future philanthropic activities; enhanced budget and resource management skills; and greater personal interest in community involvement (Bloch, 2018; Larson, 2017; McClendon et al., 2016; McDonald & Olberding, 2012; Taylor et al., 2015). Additionally, experiential student philanthropy is directly linked to an increased understanding of the grant proposal process (Bloch, 2018). Olberding (2012) was among the first to explore the long-term impact of student philanthropy, finding that the majority of alumni (queried at intervals ranging from 1 to 10 years following their student philanthropy experience) reported that their experience had a positive impact on both their awareness of community needs/problems and nonprofit organizations, thus supporting the long-term influence of student philanthropy beyond higher education.

Northern Kentucky University

Northern Kentucky University is a regional teaching university, located in the Greater Cincinnati metropolitan area and the tristate region of Kentucky, Ohio, and Indiana. The university hosts a campus population of over 14,000 students from rural, metropolitan, and suburban backgrounds (Institutional Research, 2017). The majority (55%) of undergraduate students commute to campus, and approximately 65% of degree-seeking undergraduate students require financial assistance in order to attend (Institutional

Research, 2017). Community engagement and regional progress are prioritized at NKU, through both formal inclusion in the university strategic plan and through integration of service projects with the curriculum (Langley-Turnbaugh & Neikirk, 2018; Northern Kentucky University, 2013). Through directed projects such as the one discussed in this article, the university has involved over 4,000 students in philanthropy-integrated learning (Northern Kentucky University, 2017).

NKU MSW Program

The NKU Master of Social Work (MSW) program offers two tracks: a 1-year advanced-standing option for students who possess a recent BSW, and a 3-year option for students who do not possess a recent BSW. The MSW program offers a wide concentration on children and families, with specific focus areas that include food justice, violence prevention, aging, and immigration. The first class graduated in May 2013, and the program currently admits 60–80 new MSW students each year. Community engagement is an integral component of the social work profession and this program, and students experience an integrated approach to community connections and support (Gaitskill, 2015; Herald et al., 2014). This case study involved 46 MSW students (25 of whom participated in the MSPP) enrolled in a graduate-level social work course titled Social Work Practice With Groups.

The Mayerson Student Philanthropy Project

Northern Kentucky University is an institution with widely recognized expertise on student philanthropy, and multiple campuses have modeled programs on the MSPP. After nearly two decades, over 4,100 students from 41 academic disciplines have participated in the MSPP, and over 1.5 million dollars has been contributed to nonprofit organizations (Northern Kentucky University, 2017).

The MSPP was initiated in 2000 at NKU as a way to educate students about philanthropy, nonprofit institutions, and community stewardship. This “learn by giving” model was created with the goal of helping NKU students become lifelong community stewards. University courses that participate in MSPP are given a sum of money (up to \$2,000 per class) and are asked to select and

evaluate local nonprofit organizations in the community, with the intent of investing in an organization deemed to make the most effective use of the funds. Faculty members structure the MSPP course to clearly highlight the nexus between course content and philanthropic elements (see Table 1).

A series of core procedures are embedded in MSPP courses. (1) Students divide themselves into small groups referred to as “community boards” and are instructed to identify and research needs and the nonprofits in the area that address these needs. (2) Students conduct a site visit to their chosen nonprofit or, in some instances, complete 20 hours of volunteer work with the organization. (3) Chosen nonprofit organizations are invited to submit a Request for Proposal (RFP) form summarizing their mission and intended use of funds if awarded. (4) Community boards create a presentation for the class summarizing their observations of their chosen nonprofit, in which they aim to persuade the class that their chosen organization deserves the \$2,000 grant. (5) The class discusses and then votes at the end of the presentations to select the grant recipient. At the end of the semester, the philanthropy funds are awarded to the nonprofits, and the professors, students, and nonprofit representatives reflect upon and celebrate the MSPP experience. This MSPP selection process is presented below in Figure 1.

Course Structure

Although outcomes of experiential philanthropy programs have been examined in various fields of study (e.g., accounting, public administration), there is noticeably less literature that examines their impact within social work education (Maccio, 2011; McClendon et al., 2016). Furthermore, social work students have opportunities for experiential learning through required field practicums that provide invaluable exposure to community needs and agency infrastructures; however, opportunities for experiential student philanthropy are not always available to students in higher education (McClendon et al., 2016). This Institutional Review Board (IRB)-approved study examines the impact of the MSPP on MSW students at NKU who participated in a graduate-level practice course, Social Work Practice With Groups.

Survey data were collected from four different course sections; two sections par-

Table 1. Student Outcomes in Social Work Practice With Groups	
Student Learning Outcomes	Philanthropic Outcomes
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Demonstrate knowledge of group design, facilitation, and evaluation. <i>This links to philanthropic outcomes 1 and 3.</i> 2. Identify techniques for effective group facilitation. <i>This links to philanthropic outcomes 1 and 3.</i> 3. Compare and contrast various theories and approaches to group work. <i>This links to philanthropic outcomes 1 and 3.</i> 4. Apply critical thinking skills and a critical perspective to group work. <i>This links to philanthropic outcomes 1, 2, and 3.</i> 5. Identify, discuss, and analyze how research, ethics, and social work values inform and define the best practices in group work. <i>This links to philanthropic outcomes 1 and 2.</i> 6. Explain how diversity issues manifest themselves in group work. <i>This links to philanthropic outcomes 1 and 2.</i> 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Learn more about civic engagement and gain awareness of social problems and nonprofit organizations in the region. <i>This links to learning outcomes 1–6.</i> 2. Increase knowledge of philanthropic processes, particularly grant seeking and grant making. <i>This links to learning outcomes 3–6.</i> 3. Build upon critical thinking, communication, leadership, and other work–life skills. <i>This links to learning outcomes 1–4.</i>

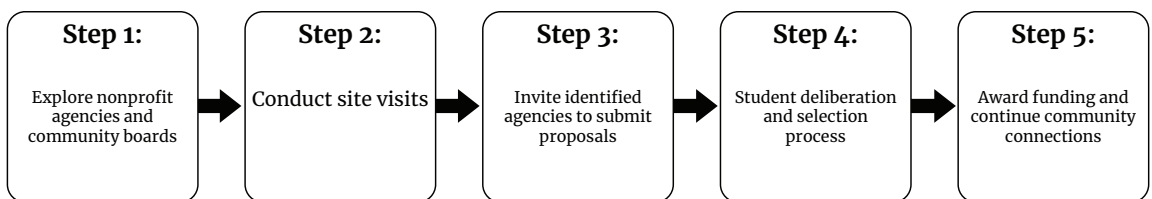


Figure 1. MSPP Selection Process

ticipated in a direct giving student philanthropy project, and two sections did not participate in it. Pretest data were gathered from surveys distributed to a total of 45 students at the beginning of the semester, and completed posttest data was gathered from a total of 31 students at the end of the semester. The MSPP utilizes a survey to measure student perceptions of community engagement and philanthropy. The majority of the students who completed both the pretest and the posttest were participants in the MSPP, and these data therefore largely reflect that experience. Because of this, we refer to the groups as “MSPP group” and “non-MSPP group” as opposed to “experimental” and “control” groups (see Figure 2).

In total, 46 students were enrolled in all sections of the course. During course registration that occurred in the previous semester, students were unaware that their course section would participate in the student philanthropy project. Once the semester began, students who participated in the MSPP course were made aware of the project. Students in all course sections were given the same readings, assignments, lectures, and exams that pertained directly to the course. Students in the MSPP course were provided with additional course materials pertaining to experiential student philanthropy and community engagement. Students in the MSPP course were informed of the class integration with the MSPP on the first day of class.

This course, Social Work Practice With Groups, focuses on the development of

groups, the use of relationships in group work, and group membership skills in working in groups with children and families. This course emphasizes a “real-life” approach to learning that provides students an opportunity to observe a group in the community and explores the interaction of groups and systems with their external environment. The MSPP was embedded in two sections of this course and included four major elements, as follows. First, course readings and lectures were infused with the traditional course material, and students were frequently challenged to reflect and identify links between the course content and supplemental materials regarding community engagement and philanthropy.

Second, students participating in the MSPP course formed two teams, with each team identifying which nonprofit organizations they wanted to further research. Students were encouraged to identify nonprofit organizations that provided group services to the community (as this was directly related to the course content). However, it was not a requirement for students to select organizations with a group focus. Students were able to identify organizations based on their personal interests. Once each team narrowed down their choices, they contacted the nonprofit organizations to arrange a site visit. The student teams collaborated with the nonprofit organizations throughout this process in order to create the strongest possible proposal. The nonprofit organizations have the choice to be as involved as they want to be, and in many instances, they provide supplementary information to the

Social Work Practice with Groups

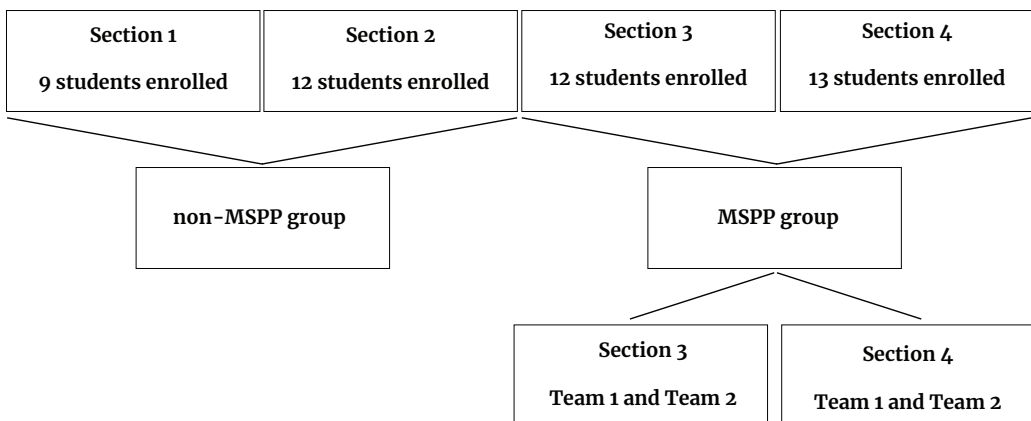


Figure 2. Social Work Practice With Groups Course Structure

students (e.g., compelling stories, photos, agency statistics, marketing materials). Third, the selected nonprofit organizations were invited to submit a grant proposal using a Request for Proposal (RFP) form provided by NKU's Scripps Howard Center for Civic Engagement. This RFP included information such as mission, targeted population, and a description of the intended use of funds if awarded. Finally, each team developed class presentations that synthesized information from their site visits. Presentations were designed to persuade the class why the organization was deserving of the funds. All students had an opportunity to review each grant proposal and any additional information provided by the agencies (e.g., brochures). Copies of these materials were provided for the students by the course instructor.

Following class presentations and grant proposal reviews, each team voted on which agency to award the grant funding of \$2,000. Students decided during the first week of class that the total of \$2,000 would be awarded to one agency rather than dividing the funds between two selected agencies. The voting process was challenging, as each group felt strongly about the mission and importance of their agency. Once the winning agency was determined, they were notified about being selected as the recipient of the funding and were invited to participate in an awards banquet with faculty and students at the end of the semester.

Evaluation of Experiential Student Philanthropy

During the second week of the class (to account for students who may have dropped the course after the first week of class), a representative from the Scripps Howard Center for Civic Engagement administered pretest surveys to the students during regularly scheduled class time. The pretest survey included the same questions for both the MSPP and non-MSPP groups. Consent form language for the pretest surveys differed slightly for the two groups, as the MSPP group discussed the MSPP in detail, whereas the pretest consent form for the non-MSPP group discussed teaching methods in a generic manner in order to best address the design of each particular section (non-MSPP courses received a consent form for data collection purposes). The posttest surveys for both groups were the same for Questions 1–43. For the MSPP group, Survey

Questions 44–46 and 50 directly assessed the MSPP project and were not included in the posttest survey for the non-MSPP group. Questions 47–49 on the posttest survey for the MSPP group were similar to questions 44–46 on the posttest survey for the non-MSPP group, with the direct reference to the MSPP project omitted for the non-MSPP group. For this evaluation, findings significant at the .05 level will be reported.

Results and Discussion

In Tables 2–5, we present the preliminary findings from data collected before implementation of the MSPP and after completion of the MSPP. This descriptive data includes responses from 45 students who completed the pretest and 31 students who completed the posttest. The 45 students who completed all or part of the pretest included 24 enrolled in the MSPP section and 21 in the non-MSPP section. The 31 students who completed all or part of the posttest included 25 who were enrolled in the MSPP section and six who were not enrolled in the MSPP section. We excluded both pretest and posttest surveys from participants who completed only the demographic portions of the survey (such as section number) and did not also complete the substantive questions related to experiences. Only paired responses were included in the analysis, so this article presents the results of 28 or 29 matched surveys, depending on the particular question. Although both parts of the survey were administered to all students enrolled in the course, the posttest garnered a low response rate among students from the course sections that did not participate in the MSPP component.

The response categories for each question included a Likert-type scale with five possible options: 1 indicated a *very negative effect*, 2 indicated a *negative effect*, 3 indicated *no effect*, 4 indicated a *positive effect*, and 5 indicated a *very positive effect*. For one question, a single respondent did not provide a response category on the pretest and posttest. For this reason, most of the data analysis includes 29 questions, with the exception of Question Pair 9 (“I have a personal responsibility to the community in which I live”). Our preliminary findings indicate that incorporation of the MSPP with this class ultimately strengthened learning outcomes as related to course and community engagement.

Table 2. Description of the Data

		Mean	N	Standard Deviation
Pair 1	Pretest	4.10	29	1.205
<i>I am aware of the needs and problems of people living in Northern Kentucky and Greater Cincinnati.</i>	Posttest	4.34	29	.614
Pair 2	Pretest	4.07	29	1.252
<i>I am aware of nonprofit organizations in Northern Kentucky and Greater Cincinnati.</i>	Posttest	4.41	29	.568
Pair 3	Pretest	3.69	29	1.312
<i>I am interested in this course.</i>	Posttest	4.14	29	.833
Pair 4	Pretest	3.93	29	1.193
<i>I am interested in student philanthropy or service learning.</i>	Posttest	3.93	29	.923
Pair 5	Pretest	4.34	29	1.396
<i>I want to stay in college or complete my degree.</i>	Posttest	4.38	29	.820
Pair 6	Pretest	3.86	28	1.113
<i>I am interested in belonging to and participating actively in a group or association.</i>	Posttest	4.21	28	.738
Pair 7	Pretest	3.29	29	1.295
<i>I plan to work with someone or some group to solve problems in my community.</i>	Posttest	4.28	29	.702
Pair 8	Pretest	4.28	29	1.222
<i>I have a responsibility to help others in need.</i>	Posttest	4.48	29	.634
Pair 9	Pretest	4.29	28	1.084
<i>I have a personal responsibility to the community in which I live.</i>	Posttest	4.36	28	.621
Pair 10	Pretest	4.17	29	1.197
<i>I believe that I can make a difference in the world.</i>	Posttest	4.48	29	.634
Pair 11	Pretest	4.21	29	1.207
<i>I intend to volunteer in the future.</i>	Posttest	4.28	29	.591
Pair 12	Pretest	3.97	29	1.322
<i>I plan to seek a career in nonprofit organization.</i>	Posttest	4.28	29	.841
Pair 13	Pretest	3.62	29	1.237
<i>I will personally walk, run, or bicycle for a charitable cause.</i>	Posttest	3.83	29	1.104
Pair 14	Pretest	3.62	29	1.237
<i>I plan to help raise money for a charitable cause</i>	Posttest	4.14	29	.833
Pair 15	Pretest	3.66	29	1.261
<i>I intend to donate money to charity in the future.</i>	Posttest	4.24	29	.636

Description of Data

Once the data was matched, we included all of the pretest and posttest responses to examine each item. The results demonstrate a tendency for respondents to indicate interest in or engagement with philanthropy and facets of nonprofit work. Many of the respondents intended to stay in college to complete a degree, which is perhaps more expected given that this project only included graduate students. In addition, there was a high level of agreement that each respondent felt a responsibility to help others in need, even on the pretest survey (mean = 4.28). This descriptive data is shown in further detail in Table 2.

Comparative Responses

Table 3 presents a paired samples *t*-test. This was utilized to examine the response differences in pretest questions as compared to posttest questions. Although the mean response did improve for most of the questions from pretest to posttest, it is notable that Pair 4 (interest in philanthropy) did not change from pretest to posttest. This might be related to the overall course and composition of the student body, as students might perceive experiential philanthropy differently based on demographic factors such as major and gender. For instance, perceptions of experiential student philanthropy may differ slightly among graduate students as compared to undergraduate students. This is perhaps related to increased focus in the particular subject matter, as graduate students are more likely to be enrolled in courses that specifically relate to their identified goals and interests (McDougle et al., 2017).

Given the small sample size, statistical significance among the paired samples is difficult to determine. However, the posttest results indicate possibly significant change on two particular measures: pair 14, with “I plan to help raise money for a charitable cause” ($p = .029$); and pair 15, with “I intend to donate money to charity in the future” ($p = .030$). In addition, level of interest in the course (pair 3) indicated positive change from pretest to posttest ($p = .062$). This is also shown in further detail in Table 3.

Table 4 presents an overview of several variables that were measured only in the posttest. These measures included 29 total participants, and the response categories

included the same Likert-type scale as with the previous questions provided in the pretest and posttest. For these two measures, participants were asked to reflect on the effect of their participation in the MSPP on their own charitable giving and volunteer time. It is clear that, for the majority of participants, participation in the MSPP positively impacted both measures.

Most of the students reported a positive experience as related to participation in the MSPP. As shown in Table 5, students did perceive that the goals of the overall class aligned with the MSPP (mean = 4.41). In addition, the students were mostly satisfied with the class decisions regarding allocation of the MSPP grant money for nonprofit organizations (mean = 4.31).

Conclusion

Experiential student philanthropy yields various benefits for students in higher education and offers a unique approach to helping students better understand civic responsibilities. Responses of students who participated in this project signify that incorporating the MSPP into their course ultimately strengthened student learning outcomes (outlined in Table 1) as they pertain to course and community engagement. The results of the current study support findings from prior studies on experiential student philanthropy, and also provide potential practical implications to be considered in social work higher education.

There was a high level of agreement that students felt a responsibility to help others in need, even on the pretest survey. Although this may not seem surprising from graduate-level social work students, it is interesting to note that responses also indicated that student interest in philanthropy did not change from pretest to posttest. Two potential explanations may shed light on this particular finding. First, students who pursue graduate social work education may be more likely than the general student population to enter with an established interest in philanthropy, thus accounting for the lack of change in interest. Alternatively, this finding could be attributed to the concept of philanthropy often being conceptualized only as monetary contributions by individuals or organizations. Perhaps this traditional concept of philanthropy is not aligned with the current goals and priorities of graduate students. This finding

Table 3. Pretest and Posttest Comparisons

		Mean	N	Standard Deviation	Significance
Pair 1 <i>I am aware of the needs and problems of people living in Northern Kentucky and Greater Cincinnati.</i>	Pretest	4.10	29	1.205	.354
	Posttest	4.34	29	.614	
Pair 2 <i>I am aware of nonprofit organizations in Northern Kentucky and Greater Cincinnati.</i>	Pretest	4.07	29	1.252	.210
	Posttest	4.41	29	.568	
Pair 3 <i>I am interested in this course.</i>	Pretest	3.69	29	1.312	.062
	Posttest	4.14	29	.833	
Pair 4 <i>I am interested in student philanthropy or service learning.</i>	Pretest	3.93	29	1.193	1.00
	Posttest	3.93	29	.923	
Pair 5 <i>I want to stay in college or complete my degree.</i>	Pretest	4.34	29	1.396	.907
	Posttest	4.38	29	.820	
Pair 6 <i>I am interested in belonging to and participating actively in a group or association.</i>	Pretest	3.86	28	1.113	.077
	Posttest	4.21	28	.738	
Pair 7 <i>I plan to work with someone or some group to solve problems in my community.</i>	Pretest	3.29	29	1.295	.240
	Posttest	4.28	29	.702	
Pair 8 <i>I have a responsibility to help others in need.</i>	Pretest	4.28	29	1.222	.386
	Posttest	4.48	29	.634	
Pair 9 <i>I have a personal responsibility to the community in which I live.</i>	Pretest	4.29	28	1.084	.769
	Posttest	4.36	28	.621	
Pair 10 <i>I believe that I can make a difference in the world.</i>	Pretest	4.17	29	1.197	.240
	Posttest	4.48	29	.634	
Pair 11 <i>I intend to volunteer in the future.</i>	Pretest	4.21	29	1.207	.783
	Posttest	4.28	29	.591	
Pair 12 <i>I plan to seek a career in nonprofit organization</i>	Pretest	3.97	29	1.322	.222
	Posttest	4.28	29	.841	
Pair 13 <i>I will personally walk, run, or bicycle for a charitable cause</i>	Pretest	3.62	29	1.237	.326
	Posttest	3.83	29	1.104	
Pair 14 <i>I plan to help raise money for a charitable cause</i>	Pretest	3.62	29	1.237	.029
	Posttest	4.14	29	.833	
Pair 15 <i>I intend to donate money to charity in the future.</i>	Pretest	3.66	29	1.261	.030
	Posttest	4.24	29	.636	

Table 4. Effects of Participation in the MSPP

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
<i>The actual amount of funds that you currently donate to charitable organizations.</i>	29	3.72	.996
<i>The actual amount of time that you currently volunteer.</i>	29	4.00	.802

Table 5. Evaluation of MSPP Experience

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
<i>Overall quality of the proposals submitted by nonprofit organizations for your consideration.</i>	29	4.17	.928
<i>[Satisfaction with] Group decisions by your class for monetary award(s) to nonprofit organizations.</i>	29	4.31	.891
<i>The fit between the MSPP and the goals and outcomes of your class.</i>	29	4.41	.867

could compel course instructors to expand the conceptualization of philanthropy to include additional elements of social responsibility (McClendon et al., 2016) and examples of philanthropic giving through time and talent in addition to monetary giving. Expanding students' understanding of philanthropy can help them recognize their potential and opportunity to become philanthropists even while obtaining higher education.

Posttest results indicated significant change in student interest in belonging to or actively participating in a group or association. As the current course was a social work practice with groups course, the natural elements of the course (e.g., readings, lecture materials, assignments), coupled with the MSPP, may have contributed to students developing a greater interest in group participation. Higher education courses, particularly social work courses, with a preexisting groups component may serve as a fitting platform for infusing student philanthropy teaching methods.

Lending support for the MSPP, students who participated reported positive impacts on their charitable giving and volunteer time. Furthermore, the majority of students reported a positive experience participating in the MSPP, and perceived that the goals of the overall class aligned with the MSPP. Additionally, students were mostly satisfied with the class decisions regarding allocation of the MSPP grant funds for nonprofit organizations. These positive findings offer

valuable insights for instructors in higher education who are considering the utilization of experiential student philanthropy as a teaching method. These findings also align with the growing mission of universities to strengthen engagement with the community and generate professionals who become strong community stewards (Saltmarsh et al., 2014). Furthermore, graduate social work students who subsequently become employed in nonprofit organizations, where they may one day hold leadership and/or development roles, could benefit from projects such as the MSPP, where they are provided with a foundation of what is required to be successful with active community engagement, seeking and applying for funding, and other philanthropic endeavors. Nonprofit organizations also simultaneously benefit from experiential student philanthropy projects by building connections with students who may become future employees and enhancing their connections with surrounding universities.

Social work students engage in fieldwork through practicum requirements, but it is important to note the distinctions between required fieldwork and experiential student philanthropy. Both provide students with important learning elements and exposure to community issues, yet both offer distinct experiential opportunities, with student philanthropy providing specific civic-minded components in addition to the professional skills gained through field experience (Maccio, 2011). Instructors in higher education may consider the infusion

of experiential student philanthropy to augment traditional social work field education to help enrich the experiences of students.

Limitations of the current study include a relatively small sample size of four sections of a social work groups course at one university, with students self-selecting their courses prior to the beginning of the semester. A larger randomized sample would

help make the findings more generalizable. Nonetheless, findings partially support student philanthropy as being an important and effective teaching method in social work education that offers students an opportunity to develop skills and perspectives that can positively impact their experiences beyond the classroom and influence the communities they will ultimately serve.



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Effectiveness of a Precollege STEM Outreach Program

Bin (Brenda) Zhou

Abstract

Workforce shortages in the field of science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) have led to an increasing need for STEM outreach programs for high school students. This article presents an integrated approach to such efforts; government agencies, the host university, and local professional associations play meaningful roles in program design and implementation. This article also evaluates program effectiveness in increasing high school students' likelihood of studying STEM in college. Opening and end-of-program surveys, coupled with demographic data, provided rich information on participants' backgrounds and their responses to STEM exposure and intervention. A discrete choice model discovered participants' differential valuation of program effectiveness and quantified the factors that influenced participants' pursuit of STEM college education due to program participation. In addition to demographics and family culture, overall program experience is critical to the perceived benefits of STEM exposure. Findings can help educators and outreach program directors develop appealing STEM outreach curriculum.

Keywords: STEM, precollege, high school students, discrete choice model, program evaluation



A well-educated STEM workforce is critical to maintaining U.S. competitiveness in today's global economy (National Academy of Sciences et al., 2007, 2010). Many precollege outreach programs have been developed and implemented nationwide to attract high school students to the STEM pipeline. This evidence-based practice article presents an integrated approach to this effort and evaluates the effectiveness of a 1-week, nonresidential summer program using various statistical analysis techniques.

The National Summer Transportation Institute (NSTI) program is one of the Federal Highway Administration's (FHWA) educational initiatives. It is "designed to introduce secondary school students to all modes of transportation careers and encourage them to pursue transportation-related courses of study at the college and/or university level" (FHWA, 2016). The

NSTI program presented in this article is fully funded by FHWA and is implemented with remarkable contributions from the state Department of Transportation (DOT), professional associations, and faculty at the host university. The host university is a regional, comprehensive public university, and has a tradition of serving a diverse student body. It conducts the NSTI program under the leadership of a project director who implements the day-to-day activities and ensures compliance with rules and regulations. Local chapters of the Women's Transportation Seminar and the National Society of Black Engineers are invited to deliver presentations, talk about real-life projects, and share insightful perspectives with young program participants. State DOT manages the program and offers field trip planning and coordination. This practice demonstrates an integrated approach to promoting STEM educational and career opportunities among high school students.

Precollege outreach activities promoting STEM disciplines among K-12 students are abundant. Jeffers et al. (2004) summarized over 50 engineering outreach programs with various scopes and diverse target groups. More recently, the effectiveness of precollege outreach programs in attracting high school students to the STEM pipeline has been measured and documented.

STEM outreach programs generally have positive impacts on participants' understanding of STEM and/or attitude toward STEM disciplines. For example, based on responses from about 250 high school students over several years, Crittenden et al. (2011) concluded that the "Launching Into Engineering" program helped over 75% of participants decide to pursue a STEM degree in college. Goonatilake and Bachnak (2012) found that participants in the "Engineering Summer Program" performed remarkably well on posttests compared to on the same pretests. A histogram showed that the majority of participants either strongly agreed or agreed that the program had encouraged them to go to college and/or to become an engineer. Boynton and Hossain (2010) also used pretests and posttests to show that a hands-on engineering class at a rural high school had a positive impact on students' understanding of the subject matter and the importance of STEM. In addition, a control class was used to demonstrate the effectiveness of a hands-on engineering curriculum. Christie (2012) used a percentage distribution and showed participants' improved understanding of what engineers do from 11 years of "Science and Engineering Community Outreach Program." Constan and Spicer (2015) also used percentage distributions to report participants' increased interest in science and influenced career plans or future course selections after attending the "Physics of Atomic Nuclei" program. Applying similar statistical analysis techniques, Kuhl et al. (2015) presented positive influence of both in-lab and online "Relevant Education in Math and Science" activities on participants' understanding of engineering and interest in math and science courses. Some studies took a further step and examined parental knowledge of engineering and/or attitudes, since parents play an important role in their children's education and career path decisions (Christie, 2012; Goodman & Cunningham, 2002; Klein-Gardner, 2014).

In terms of attitude shift, Nadelson and

Callahan (2011) examined two engineering outreach programs for adolescents and applied a paired samples t-test using a repeated measure (e.g., pre- to postprogram) of participants' engineering perceptions and attitudes as well as their college attitudes. They discovered a significant change in engineering perceptions and attitudes but a marginally nonsignificant change in attitudes toward college education. Applying a similar analysis technique, Huang et al. (2015) found a moderate positive impact of STEM outreach activity on participants' attitudes toward STEM disciplines.

Many prior studies revealed positive impacts of precollege outreach programs in attracting high school students to the STEM pipeline, but very few analyzed multiple factors in young people's pursuit of STEM higher education. One notable study conducted by Constan and Spicer (2015) utilized a propensity-score matching technique to evaluate the effectiveness of outreach programs. Program participants were matched to students from the National Center for Education Statistics 2002 Educational Longitudinal Study. A logistic regression model suggested that the likelihood of program participants' pursuing STEM college education was nearly nine times greater than that of the comparison group (i.e., nonparticipants). However, only one explanatory variable, program participation, was included; other relevant variables were used in the propensity-score matching technique and therefore can't provide any insights on how they affected program participants' likelihood of studying STEM in college. Zhou et al. (2017) analyzed perceptions and preferences of high school students in STEM and used an ordered probit model to study likelihood of pursuing college education in STEM. They focused on probabilities of studying STEM in college among all program participants but didn't examine the impact of their outreach program on participants' pursuit of STEM college education or, in other words, the change in participants' probabilities of studying STEM in college due to program participation.

This article fills in this knowledge gap by examining multiple factors affecting a precollege outreach program's effectiveness at promoting STEM college education among participants. Opening and end-of-program surveys in two consecutive years of the NSTI program, as well as an alumni survey,

Table 1. Sample NSTI Program Schedule

Time	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
8:00–8:30	Welcome & Survey	SAT Preparation	SAT Preparation	Admissions & Career Services	Helicopter Simulation
8:30–9:00					
9:00–9:30	Professional Organizations	Aircraft Operations	Spot Speed Study	Bridge Design & Lab	
9:30–10:00					
10:00–10:30	Team Building & Exercise	Aircraft Design & Wind Tunnel Test	Traffic Simulation & Operation		Field Trip
10:30–11:00					
11:00–11:30	Guest Speakers				
11:30–Noon					
Noon–12:30	Orientation Luncheon	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch	Lunch
12:30–1:00					
1:00–1:30	Livable Communities		River Systems in the U.S.	Steel & Tensile Test Lab	DOT Visit & Graduation Ceremony
1:30–2:00					
2:00–2:30	Federal Aviation Admin.	State Pier & Airport Field Trips	Lock and Dam System		
2:30–3:00	Transportation Safety				
3:00–3:30	Campus & Lab Tour			Intelligent Transportation Systems	
3:30–4:00					

provided the primary data source. Discrete choice modeling and statistical analyses tools were used to discover and quantify the impacts of multiple influencing factors in program participants' pursuit of STEM higher education.

Program Summary

The NSTI program is a 1-week, nonresidential program for high school students (rising 9–12 graders). Program details undergo refinements and improvements each year, but the basic curriculum remains the same, including lectures led by professors, hands-on laboratory exercises tailored to engage teenagers, presentations by transportation practitioners, and field trips to state landmark projects. Three educational modules are designated as land, water, and air transportation modes, and are enriched by hands-on laboratory exercises. Depending

on schedules, the NSTI program may include concrete and steel material labs, a spot speed study, an engineering surveying exercise, public speaking and presentations, and entrepreneurship. In addition, field trips, SAT preparation, and team-building exercises are vital components of the program. Table 1 shows a sample program schedule.

The NSTI program is well supported by government agencies, the host university, and local professional associations. Different entities play special and meaningful roles, presenting an integrated approach to stimulating high school students' interest in STEM. Notable features of the program are the orientation luncheon and the graduation ceremony. During the orientation luncheon, students mingle with established professionals who have a vested interest in the students' educational and career aspirations. Students officially "graduate"

from the NSTI program at a graduation ceremony hosted at state Department of Transportation (DOT) headquarters. These two events have been well received by the students and their guests at the graduation ceremony.

A website dedicated to this NSTI program serves as a powerful tool in program marketing and student recruitment efforts. Pictures from previous years, as well as the current year's tentative schedule, program flyer, and application form, are posted on this website to showcase this fun and worthwhile program. Program participants are selected primarily based on teacher letters of recommendation and student essays. However, this NSTI program focuses on attracting historically underrepresented groups. Different strategies are utilized to ensure success in recruiting a group of high school students with diverse demographic backgrounds, such as seeking assistance from other educational programs that have similar missions.

This NSTI program has two surveys: an opening survey on the first day and an end-of-program survey on the last day. Coupled with demographic information collected at the student recruitment stage, these two surveys provide rich information on participants' perceptions and preferences in STEM college education. Findings from the surveys can help educators and summer program directors develop curriculum activities that match the preferences and learning styles of high school students, thus stimulating greater interest in STEM.

Data Description

The primary data sources for this study are the opening and end-of-program surveys conducted in two consecutive years. Survey instruments were developed based on assessment requirements and research hypotheses, and were tested 1 year before the data used in this article were collected. In these two surveys, students were asked to self-report their academic and family backgrounds, evaluate their STEM knowledge improvements, assess program educational instruments, and provide written comments.

A total of 41 high school students participated in this NSTI program over 2 years. In general, the program participants represent historically underrepresented groups, such

as female, minority, and/or low-income households. For example, 31.7% of the students (13 out of 41) were female, and 65.8% (27 out of 41) reported themselves as not being Caucasian, with 36.6% self-reporting as African American and 7.3% as Hispanic. In addition, 24.4% of students (10 out of 41) reported their annual household income as less than \$30,000.

In the following discussions, sample size is reduced from 41 to 35 because six students did not fully complete either the opening survey or the end-of-program survey. Among these six students, two voluntarily opted out of both surveys, one didn't complete the opening survey, and three missed the graduation ceremony when the end-of-program survey took place. The sample size is relatively small, but is believed to be sufficient for the distribution analyses in program assessment. A small sample size in discrete choice modeling, presented in the Methodology and Results section, normally reduces the number of significant explanatory variables in empirical studies. However, this effect is not detrimental here because the final model identifies proper influencing factors with expected effects and the results are meaningful to educators in the precollege outreach program community.

Educational and occupational information about participants' parents and relatives (e.g., siblings, grandparents, uncles, aunts) revealed the family culture of program participants. A remarkably high percentage of participants' parents graduated from college: 61.0% of the mothers graduated from college, as compared to a national average of 32.7% for females age 25 and over who have at least a bachelor's degree, and 58.5% of the fathers graduated from college, as compared to a national average of 32.3% (Ryan & Bauman, 2016). In addition, many participants were exposed to STEM in their early years because their parents or relatives worked in a STEM-related field. Of the 35 participants, 17.1% had mothers who worked in a STEM-related field; 42.9% had fathers in STEM-related fields; and 48.6% had relatives working in a STEM-related job. These numbers are significantly higher than the 6% figure provided by the U.S. Census Bureau for participation in STEM fields in the total civilian workforce aged 25 to 64 (Landivar, 2013). It is obvious that family culture played a critical role in these high school students' interest in STEM; parents' college attainment and early exposure to

STEM significantly increased high school students' participation in STEM outreach programs that could improve their readiness for a relatively challenging but rewarding STEM college education and career path. Table 2 summarizes the demographics and family background of program participants.

Overall, this NSTI program was well received and deemed helpful by program participants. Of the participants, 51% (18 out of 35) rated their satisfaction level with their overall experience as "highly satisfied," 46% (16 out of 35) responded that they were "satisfied," none were "partially satisfied," and 3% (1 out of 35) were "not satisfied." When asked whether they agreed that this program improved their knowledge of STEM, 66% (23 out of 35) responded that they "strongly agree," 31% (11 out of 35) said they "agree," one student (3%) chose "partially agree," and none of the participants selected "not agree." The single unsatisfied student in the overall experience "partially agreed" that this program improved the student's knowledge of STEM, indicating that the NSTI program has positive impacts on high school students even when they have already decided not to study

STEM in the future. A close examination of participant written comments reveals the single unsatisfied student focused on the transportation theme of this program when reporting dissatisfaction; this student wrote, "I do think there were some aspects to this program that I did take away from but honestly, I wasn't completely drawn towards taking transportation engineering as a major in the future." Table 3 summarizes the assessment results.

Methodology and Results

One NSTI program goal set by FHWA is to encourage participants to "pursue transportation-related courses of study at the college and/or university level" (FHWA 2016). The end-of-program survey shows that 46% of the participants (16 out of 35) "strongly agree," 34% (12 out of 35) "agree," 17% (6 out of 35) "partially agree," and 3% (1 out of 35) do "not agree" that this NSTI program made them more likely to choose a STEM major in college. A key research objective is to discover and quantify the factors that influence participants' pursuit of college education in STEM as a result of program

Table 2: Demographics and Background of Program Participants

	Percentage
Female	32.0
African American	36.6
Hispanic	7.3
Mother graduated from college	61.0
Father graduated from college	58.5
Mother works in a STEM field	17.1
Father works in a STEM field	42.9
Relatives work in a STEM field	48.6

Table 3: Percentage Distributions of Program Participants' Responses

How would you rate your overall experience with this NSTI program?	Highly Satisfied	Satisfied	Partially Satisfied	Not Satisfied
	51%	46%	0%	3%
Do you agree that this NSTI program improved your knowledge of STEM?	Strongly Agree	Agree	Partially Agree	Not Agree
	66%	31%	3%	0%
Number of observations	35			

participation. Understanding these factors can help us evaluate the effectiveness of such interventions and design outreach activities to stimulate greater interest in STEM college education.

The responses to this survey question are offered in an ordered fashion. More specifically, when asked whether they agree that this NSTI program made them more likely to pursue college education in STEM, participants could choose from four ordered alternatives: “not agree,” “partially agree,” “agree,” and “strongly agree.” Because the data is based on rank ordering, an ordered probit model was selected to determine the influencing factors and to quantify their effects on the effectiveness of this precollege outreach program.

An ordered probit model is a member of a large family of discrete choice models that have been widely applied in economics, marketing, transportation planning, and similar fields. The model is built based on a random utility maximization framework and utility function for an individual U_i , defined as

$$U_i = x_i \beta + \epsilon_i$$

where x_i is a row vector of explanatory variables for an individual i , β is a column vector of parameters to be estimated, and ϵ_i is the random component of individual i 's utility function. The error term ϵ_i is assumed to follow a normal distribution with zero mean and unit variance. Utility is unobserved, but based on the choice individual i made (assuming four ordinal alternatives, categorized into 1, 2, 3, and 4), the following can be derived:

- Chosen alternative = 1 if $U_i < \mu_1$
- Chosen alternative = 2 if $\mu_1 < U_i < \mu_2$
- Chosen alternative = 3 if $\mu_2 < U_i < \mu_3$
- Chosen alternative = 4 if $U_i > \mu_3$

where μ_1 , μ_2 , and μ_3 are unknown threshold values to be estimated. Because the error term (ϵ_i) is normally distributed, the probability of choosing each alternative can be represented as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Probability (Chosen alternative = 1)} &= \Phi(\mu_1 - x_i \beta) \\ \text{Probability (Chosen alternative = 2)} &= \Phi(\mu_2 - x_i \beta) - \Phi(\mu_1 - x_i \beta) \\ \text{Probability (Chosen alternative = 3)} &= \Phi(\mu_3 - x_i \beta) - \Phi(\mu_2 - x_i \beta) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Probability (Chosen alternative = 4)} &= \\ &= 1 - \Phi(\mu_3 - x_i \beta) \end{aligned}$$

where $\Phi()$ is a standard normal distribution function. These probabilities enter the log form of a likelihood function, and maximization of this likelihood function gives estimates of the parameter (β) and the threshold values (μ_1 , μ_2 , and μ_3). For more details on ordered probit model specifications, readers may wish to refer to Greene's (2000) econometrics textbook.

All relevant explanatory variables, including demographics (e.g., gender, race, household annual income, household size, and number of children), family background (e.g., parent educational attainment, parent and relative occupations), past participation in STEM-oriented programs, and overall program experience, were included from the start. Explanatory variables offering p -values of more than 0.10 were removed in a stepwise fashion because their impacts were statistically insignificant or their influences were not statistically different from zero. Many explanatory variables did not meet the test of statistical significance, but a few remained. The following paragraphs discuss the estimated model results.

In the end-of-program survey, participants were asked whether they agreed that this NSTI program made them more likely to pursue college education in STEM; the four ordered alternatives were “not agree,” “partially agree,” “agree,” and “strongly agree.” As explained above, all possible influencing factors were considered from the start, and some were categorized into groups before model estimation. For example, satisfaction with the program experience was also categorized into four groups: not satisfied, partially satisfied, satisfied, and highly satisfied, with a higher value meaning a higher level of satisfaction.

Final model results are shown in Table 4. A participant whose mother graduated from college was found more likely to pursue a college education in STEM after attending this NSTI program, as shown by the positive coefficients to the “mother graduated from college” explanatory variable. The explanatory variable “African American” has a negative coefficient, indicating the negative impact of this demographic factor on participants' perceived benefits from this STEM exposure. In other words, with all other factors being the same, African American participants were found less likely to pursue

Table 4: NSTI Program's Impacts on Likelihood of Pursuing College Education in STEM

Explanatory Variables	Coefficients	t-statistics
Mother graduated from college	0.833	1.94
African American	-0.966	-2.25
Satisfaction with the program	0.964	2.73
Threshold 1	0.871	
Threshold 2	2.47	
Threshold 3	3.66	
Number of observations	35	
Pseudo R ²	0.174	

college education in STEM due to program participation.

This model also discovers one important influencing factor: the overall program experience. The coefficient to “satisfaction with the program” is positive, indicating that participants who are more satisfied with their program experience are more likely to pursue a college education in STEM due to program participation than participants who are less satisfied. More importantly, this influencing factor is “external” to program participants’ backgrounds, and therefore provides educators and outreach program directors with an opportunity to intervene. It is also worth noting that this influencing factor’s coefficient is comparable to those of the family background factors discussed previously, meaning a small change in this factor can generate a relatively big change in the effectiveness of such interventions. For example, if a participant’s program satisfaction increases by one level (e.g., from “partially satisfied” to “satisfied”), the impact on likelihood of pursuing college education in STEM is similar to that of a participant’s mother being a college graduate. This finding has a significant implication: It is imperative that such outreach programs be designed with engaging activities that help participants better understand basic principles and exciting applications. Only when participants are both excited by and satisfied with their experience can these outreach programs achieve their goal of increasing the STEM pipeline.

The estimated model results also suggest that gender is statistically insignificant

in participants’ differential valuation of program effectiveness, indicating that this program offers essentially the same impact on both boys and girls when the other three explanatory variables—“mother graduated from college,” “African American,” and “satisfaction with the program”—are the same. It is worth noting that this NSTI program enjoys significant contributions from female professionals and associations targeting underrepresented minorities, such as the Women’s Transportation Seminar. Their participation exposes underrepresented minority students to successful role models, which is believed to have positive impacts on their pursuit of STEM (Hill et al., 2010).

Like many other precollege outreach efforts, this NSTI program has limited space and therefore the sample size in this study is relatively small. Small sample sizes generally have a negative impact on significance level of explanatory variables in statistical models, meaning fewer influencing factors can be identified in empirical studies. This research includes many “potential” explanatory factors, such as demographics (e.g., gender, race, household annual income, household size, and number of children), family background (e.g., parent educational attainment, parent and relative occupations), and overall program experience. Many of these “potential” factors are eventually removed from the model specification due to low level of statistical significance. Only three factors in this study have been found statistically significant: “mother graduated from college,” “African American,” and “satisfaction with the program,” indicating that any changes to these

three variables will affect participants' likelihood of pursuing college education in STEM (or the effectiveness of this precollege outreach program).

The end-of-program survey collected written comments from participants. Consistent with the assessment results presented in the Data Description section, participant comments were remarkably positive. More significantly, these comments further support the model results discussed previously. For example, one student wrote:

I really liked this program. It helped me better understand what different fields of engineering do and opened my eyes to how important transportation engineering is. It also helped me figure out that I want to pursue a career in civil engineering, and maybe more into a transportation-oriented career.

Another participant commented: "I love that this program exposed students to a wide range of engineering fields. This has definitely opened my horizons to engineering as a possible career!"

In addition, these written comments shed light on how to increase satisfaction with the program, which could increase participants' likelihood of pursuing college education in STEM, according to the model results. Apparently, high school students enjoy hands-on activities and embrace the idea of a competition when learning STEM concepts. Supporting comments from participants included the following: "I really enjoyed all of the hands-on experiences like with the lab and the competitions. It was fun working with others and/or doing our best to win, as well to use quick-thinking for when there was pressure with time" and "Labs building the lock & dam system and building a balsa wood bridge were extremely helpful in understanding and being able to apply the concepts we learned during presentations." Moreover, contributions from the professional associations were noted by participants. One student wrote: "I liked how the speakers made interesting conversation with the students in the program. The personal advice they provided was very helpful in developing my ideas for future choices for college and profession."

College Education of Program Alumni

In addition to better understanding of STEM, improved attitude toward STEM, and self-reported increased interest in STEM, many precollege outreach programs have been reported to result in encouraging outcomes in terms of program alumni's college pursuits. For example, a follow-up survey conducted by Kaye et al. (2011) found that all program alumni who responded to the survey attended college, with a high percentage (20 out of 24) studying science. Christie (2012) contacted 165 out of 206 program participants from a 10-year time span; among them, 164 attended college and 111 chose a STEM major. Zhe et al. (2010) surveyed all 33 program alumni. Of the 21 alumni who graduated from high school, all attended college and 18 chose a STEM major.

The NSTI program alumni were invited to complete a follow-up survey 1 year or 2 years after they finished the program. This survey was designed to determine the long-term effects of this outreach program on participants' STEM readiness and their actual college education choices. All 35 NSTI alumni who completed both the opening and end-of-program surveys were contacted to take an online survey in fall 2016. A total of 23 completed the survey, resulting in a response rate of 66%. Among the 10 alumni who were in a position to make a college decision, all had chosen to attend college and nine (or 90%) chose a STEM major. This finding is consistent with the findings in prior studies.

In addition, all 13 NSTI alumni who were still in high school reported the highest likelihood of pursuing college education from among the five response alternatives: "very likely" (> 80% chance), "probably" (80–60% chance), "decent chance" (59–40% chance), "maybe" (39–20% chance), and "probably not" (< 20% chance). When asked how likely it was that they would choose a major in STEM, 11 (out of 13) chose "very likely" and two chose "decent chance." Like the actual college education data, these self-reported responses by the NSTI program alumni demonstrate encouraging college education and field of study preferences.

Conclusions

The National Summer Transportation Institute (NSTI) program presented in this article takes an integrated approach to raising participants' awareness of STEM educational and career opportunities. Government agencies, the host university, and local professional associations make significant contributions to the program development and implementation. This integrated approach is effective at convincing students that a STEM college education is feasible and rewarding by providing them with diverse perspectives.

Many prior studies have examined the impacts of precollege outreach programs, but a quantitative approach to measuring the effectiveness of such programs for participants with diverse backgrounds and different program experiences is lacking. This article fills in this knowledge gap by examining multiple factors affecting a NSTI program's effectiveness at promoting STEM college education.

Program participants had diverse demographic and academic backgrounds, but offered consistent and positive program evaluations. About 97% of the participants (34 out of 35) rated their overall satisfaction level as "highly satisfied" or "satisfied," about 97% (34 out of 35) responded that they "strongly agree" or "agree" that this NSTI program improved their knowledge of STEM, and 80% (28 out of 35) responded that they "strongly agree" or "agree" that this NSTI program made them more likely to choose a STEM major in college. These statistics show that this precollege outreach program fulfilled its mission. However, the effectiveness of this program at increasing pursuit of college education in STEM fields varies, as demonstrated by the discrete choice model that is estimated using the same data set.

This study found that the effectiveness of this outreach program differed based on demographics and satisfaction with the program. Discrete choice model results reveal that family played a critical role in participants' perceived benefits from the intervention: Participants whose mothers graduated from college were more likely to pursue college education in STEM after attending this NSTI program, and African American participants were less likely to do so. This study identified at-risk groups in STEM education, such as African American

students and high school students whose mother didn't graduate from college. Special strategies and/or techniques are warranted in order to promote STEM among these students. Exploring such strategies is beyond the scope of this study, but it is a topic that deserves more attention from educators and researchers in this field.

More importantly, this study discovered and quantified an "external" influencing factor, participant's overall satisfaction with the program, as compared to demographic factors that often take decades to change. This finding provides educators and outreach program directors an opportunity to intervene. Participants' satisfaction is estimated to have a relatively high impact on program effectiveness, which means a small change in this factor can generate a relatively big impact. This finding has an important implication: Outreach programs need to be designed with engaging curriculum activities that match high school students' preferences and learning styles. A challenging yet attractive STEM curriculum is critical to the effectiveness of a precollege outreach program. A close examination of the written comments from the participants reveals that high school students enjoy hands-on activities and embrace the idea of a competition. In addition, interactions with professionals inspire high school students and help them develop ideas for future education and career choices.

As discussed previously, this NSTI program generated a relatively small sample size in two consecutive years. Such limitation has a minimal impact on the overall program assessment using distribution analyses, but can result in a reduced number of significant explanatory variables in the discrete choice model. Even though many factors were initially considered, including demographics, family background, past participation in STEM-oriented programs, and overall program experience, only three factors remain in the final model specification. Identifying and quantifying these influencing factors has produced a meaningful result, but this study can be improved by using a larger sample size. One way to increase sample size is to collaborate with other NSTI host universities, which will require curriculum design coordination and survey questionnaire revision; another way is to cumulate more data over time, which will introduce time effects in the analyses. Both methods have advantages and disadvantages, and

should be evaluated carefully before initiating the next stage of this research.

This study analyzed two state-preference surveys: the opening survey and end-of-program survey. Respondents tend to exaggerate potential benefits in a state-preference survey, resulting in optimism bias (e.g., Fifer et al., 2014; Hensher, 2010; List & Gallet, 2001; Murphy et al., 2005). Therefore, findings of benefits of the NSTI program are subject to such inherent bias.

The alumni survey is designed to address this issue by examining alumni's actual college education and study area choices. This survey also includes questions on alumni's college education decision-making process and their long-term evaluations on the program effectiveness, which provide key data for future research efforts.



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Developing Engaged Scholars Through Glocal Learning: A Case Study of the Thailand Global Citizenship and Civic Engagement Initiative

Sornnate Areesophonpichet, Chris R. Glass, and Rachawan Wongtrirat

Abstract

With the development of Thailand 4.0, it is critical for engaged scholars to address the role of higher education in Thailand's social and economic development with an understanding of how local histories (local) and economic globalization (global) shape their work. We discuss the Thai context for community engagement, then describe the purpose and learning goals for the Global Citizenship and Civic Engagement (GCCE) initiative, as well as the methodological approach used to assess the initiative's impact and long-term sustainability. The findings highlight how glocal learning fostered Thai and U.S. graduate students' valuing local knowledge and linking economic inequality to environmental injustice. Students transformed in their understanding of the need to revitalize marginalized knowledge and include experiences of other-than-human beings. The findings contribute valuable non-Western perspectives on how international partnerships between universities prepare graduate students as engaged scholars for a sustainable world.

Keywords: graduate education, international partnerships, engaged scholarship, sustainability, global citizenship



UNESCO (2015) has promoted global citizenship education (GCED) since the launch of the UN Secretary-General's Global Education First Initiative (GEFI) in 2012, which fosters global citizenship as one of three priorities for education. GCED emphasizes worldwide political, economic, social, and cultural interconnectedness (Davies & Pike, 2009). Global citizenship recognizes the world as an increasingly complex web of connections where our choices and actions affect people and communities locally, nationally, or internationally (UNESCO, 2015). Likewise, civic engagement involves making a difference in the life of our communities and developing the combination of knowledge, skills, values, and motivation to make those differences (Ehrlich, 2000). Thus, global citizenship education and civic engagement are essential for scholars to engage in a global society that involves linkages between local and global needs (Sklad et al.,

2016). Engaged scholars must understand how local histories (local) and economic globalization (global) shape their work (Sklad et al., 2016), especially for a newly industrialized country like Thailand, which has moved from a low-income country to an upper-middle income country in less than a generation (World Bank, 2019).

We aim to contribute to research that explores how graduate students develop as engaged scholars when they step outside their national context, particularly as they become more aware of the local culture of people with identities and life situations different from their own (McCabe, 2005). "Glocal" engagement moves beyond noticing differences in other cultures and contexts to recognize the ways people and places are inextricably bound through global economic, social, and political processes (Sklad et al., 2016). Graduate students need opportunities to examine their own values and attitudes critically; value diversity and

appreciate the similarities between peoples everywhere; understand the global context of their local lives; and develop skills that will enable them to combat injustice, prejudice, and discrimination (Oberhauser & Daniels, 2017). Such knowledge, skills, and understanding enable graduate students to become engaged scholars who make informed decisions and play an active role in the global community (Austin & McDaniels, 2006; O'Meara, 2008).

This article adds valuable non-Western and international perspectives to the literature on the development of engaged scholars by exploring glocal learning in the Thai context. We organize our analysis in sections that address the conceptual, methodological, and analytical aspects of an ongoing cross-border initiative designed to prepare engaged scholars during graduate education. We adopt Holland's (2005) definition of engaged scholarship as "a specific conception of faculty work that connects the intellectual assets of the institution (i.e., faculty expertise) to public issues such as community, social, cultural, human, and economic development" (p. 11). The first section sets the context by reviewing scholarly literature on community engagement in the Thai context. The second section details the design of the ongoing Global Citizenship and Civic Engagement (GCCE) initiative in response to this context with a focus on the development of engaged scholars. The third section describes the methodological approach to our case study research to gather data about the initiative's impact. The fourth section provides an analysis of our findings and early-stage impacts. We conclude with a summary of the role of glocal learning in the preparation of engaged scholars and discuss the next steps for similar international partnerships.

Community Engagement in the Thai Context

Increasingly, Thai faculty live and work in a global landscape, where academic responsibilities involve collaborating with individuals from diverse social, historical, and cultural contexts (Rungfamai, 2017). Such collaboration necessitates respect, reciprocity, and sensitivity to one's ethical responsibilities in connecting expertise to societal needs (Austin, 2009). Thai higher education institutions are expected to produce graduates who can enter society with global awareness, civic competence, and

community engagement (Rungfamai, 2017). However, there is a significant gap in the development of graduate students as global citizens in Thai higher education because the Thai people do not use English as a formal language in daily life, and there are few international curricula in schools and universities. Thus Thai higher education's international enrollment growth rate has not kept up with that of other ASEAN universities (Lavankura, 2013). Another complicating factor is that, in the Thai context, globalization and internationalization are often understood within the framework of global tourism more than global citizenship education (Peleggi, 1996).

Furthermore, there is a demand for linking expertise to applied issues (Thailand Board of Investment, 2017). The Thai government aims to push forward on economic growth from the national to global levels, including commerce, food, and tourism with the Thailand 4.0 policy (Thailand Board of Investment, 2017). This policy promotes cooperation in doing business with foreign countries. Thailand stands to benefit from development cooperation and strengthen the political security, economic, and socio-cultural pillars of the ASEAN community, as well as implement the Master Plan on ASEAN Connectivity. Provisions for skilled labor movement within ASEAN countries principally draw on the mutual recognition agreements that permit employment outside their home country for workers in eight occupations: engineering, nursing, architecture, medicine, dentistry, tourism, surveying, and accountancy (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2017). The Thai government views higher education as the primary means to prepare global citizens who understand different cultures. Global citizenship education includes engaging more diverse people and using more engaged forms of learning than in the past (Lavankura, 2013). One of the most important outcomes for future scholars in Thai higher education includes graduate students' competency in global citizenship and civic engagement (Savatsomboon, 2015).

Currently, the Office of Thai Higher Education Commission (OHEC) has worked to expand transnational education between Thai universities and foreign universities to allow Thai graduate students to gain more international experiences as engaged scholars (Rungfamai, 2017). However, most internationalization initiatives focus on at-

tracting international students, not fostering cultural exchange that prepares Thai graduate students to understand societal diversity and intercultural relationships (British Council, 2017). Graduate students must understand how to engage in partnerships that are mutual and reciprocal (O'Meara, 2008); however, the role of universities in producing engaged scholars is one of the most critical, but underexplored, issues for Thai universities (UNESCO, 2015).

Preparing Graduate Students as Engaged Scholars

The Thailand Global Citizenship and Civic Engagement (GCCE) initiative is an ongoing international collaboration designed to prepare engaged scholars through a partnership between Phra Kiao University (PKU) [pseudonym] in Thailand and the Metropolitan University (MU) [pseudonym] in the United States. PKU is the oldest and most prestigious public research university in Thailand; MU is a metropolitan research university and a minority-serving institution in the United States. As the year 2017 marked the beginning of the second century of PKU, the strategies for 2017–2020 were formulated to raise the university to become a world-class national university that serves the nation with dignity and integrity and that generates the knowledge and innovation necessary for the creative and sustainable transformation of Thai society (Rungfamai, 2017). For PKU to be a part of the transformation of Thai society, it must develop engaged scholars. The initiative's central purpose is to provide mutually beneficial collaborative opportunities for engaged scholarship between the partner universities at low cost to the Thai university.

The GCCE initiative is similar to yet also different from commonly practiced exchange programs and international service-learning programs (e.g., Oberhauser & Daniels, 2017). The initiative is different because graduate students and faculty leaders partner in developing the planned scholarly activities designed to develop graduate students as engaged scholars. The initiative is similar to traditional study exchange programs in that participants engage in intentionally designed activities that foster an appreciation of the broader historical and cultural aspects of modern-day Thailand. It is different from these programs in that the GCCE initiative is codesigned to prepare

graduate students for the types of demands they will face in careers as engaged scholars—locally and globally. Twenty-four graduate students and two faculty members participate in cohorts each year of the GCCE initiative, which received initial funding support from the U.S. Embassy in Thailand to foster linkages between global citizenship and civic engagement (Cress & Stokamer, 2017).

We adapted a U.S.-based framework designed to prepare graduate students for community-engaged work in this initiative (O'Meara & Jaeger, 2007). Each element of the GCCE initiative was designed to develop practical skills in engaged scholarship for Thai and U.S. graduate students (O'Meara, 2008). Four learning goals were used to assess the overall effectiveness and impact of the GCCE initiative. It is critical to note that these learning goals were codesigned among a Thai faculty member, a U.S. faculty member, a Thai international educator, and two graduate students. The faculty leaders facilitated the process for the initiative's design, but the development of the program, forms of engagement, reflective assignments, and learning outcomes were all initially proposed by and fully coconstructed with Thai and U.S. graduate students who expressed a desire to design a program that connects international education (global) and civic engagement (local). The Thai and U.S. faculty members applied their expertise to refine and adapt the initiative to each university's context and local needs. The faculty members coordinating the GCCE initiative aimed to embody these practices by coconstructing knowledge about this initiative's impact, which forms the basis for this article.

Goal One: Forming Collegial Relationships

The first learning goal for the GCCE initiative emphasizes how engaged scholars *form collegial relationships with an international community of scholars and leaders*. Contextually sensitive international work involves engaging with scholarship published by scholars inside and outside the home context. International engagement also necessitates forming collegial relationships, particularly relationships with community partners in a local context. Faculty model how to form broadened sets of relationships with scholars and leaders in the international higher education community. For example, the faculty leaders

in the GCCE initiative introduce graduate students to the scholarly writings of their international colleagues and discuss linkages between the faculty leaders' research interests and relationships formed through community-engaged collaborations.

In the GCCE initiative, students participate in extensive conversations about the role of Thai higher education in the context of globalization from community engagement with leaders at Thailand's Office of Higher Education Commission (OHEC), regional community colleges, and the U.S. Embassy in Bangkok. OHEC is responsible for Thailand's development under the government policy Thailand 4.0 by supporting many programs, such as University Business Incubator, Work Integrated Learning, and helping Thailand's higher education institutions be engaged in developing the quality of and the ability to enhance the country's competitiveness, solving problems with business and industry, and meeting the demand for academic excellence. Thai and U.S. graduate students' interaction with senior-level government officials, as well as community leaders, enabled an exchange of knowledge about Thai higher education systems' development in the context of economic globalization and the government's efforts toward the Thailand 4.0 strategic plan, which is designed to help the country escape economic disparities and imbalanced development. Likewise, graduate students engage with leaders at regional community colleges in rural areas in Thailand to learn about the sufficiency economy. They also learn about the role of the community college in developing Thai people's quality of life (Intarakumnerd, 2012).

Goal Two: Reflecting on Ethical Responsibilities in Community Engagement

The second learning goal for the GCCE initiative emphasizes how engaged scholars *reflect on their ethical responsibilities in international community engagement*. Community engagement, especially in international contexts, necessitates exploring the ethical implications of community-engaged scholarly work. Graduate students learn responsibilities to community partners, including sensitivity to how knowledge and power are shared within the partnership (O'Meara, 2008). Graduate students cannot merely discuss strategies that have worked in their home context without considering

the sociocultural, historical, and economic circumstances of the local and global context. The knowledge created together is not value-free, and decisions have real-world implications for human lives and the partner institution's future. Thus, ethical partnering demands respect, reciprocity, and sensitivity to connecting expertise with particular societal needs.

In the GCCE initiative, graduate students participate in the Forum on Global Citizenship and Civic Engagement. This annual forum involves exchanges of perspectives among Thai and U.S. students using the UNESCO GCED framework that explores the socioemotional, behavioral, and cognitive dimensions of global citizenship. Participants share perspectives on global citizenship and civic engagement in their local context through lecture presentations and interactive activities. The forum explores three issues: (1) diversity, identity, and power; (2) interconnectedness and action; and (3) migration and citizenship. Graduate students explore values and social identities situated within the global, national, and local contexts with an understanding of multiple identities—and the variations within social identities—in order to develop attitudes of empathy, solidarity, and respect for differences. They also discuss how local issues manifest the effects of globalization, including the actions people might take—individually and collectively—to act effectively and responsibly at local, national, and global levels for a more peaceful and sustainable world. Finally, graduate students explore the beneficial and problematic aspects of migration from the perspectives of various social groups, including how history, geography, politics, economics, religion, technology, media, or other factors influence views of migration.

Goal Three: Drawing on Diverse Sources and Subjects Within Particular Contexts

The third learning goal for the GCCE initiative emphasizes how engaged scholars *draw on diverse sources and subjects of knowledge within particular contexts*. International collaborative work involves drawing on diverse sources and subjects of knowledge within particular contexts. Although Thai and U.S. graduate students have been trained to identify traditional high-quality academic publications, few have had the direct experience of drawing on local sources of knowledge in shaping their understanding

of issues and situations. The international collaboration heightens the importance of respecting indigenous knowledge of the local community. Two GCCE workshops, both with undergraduate and graduate students, allow participants to understand the GCED concept from different perspectives between Thai and U.S. graduate students.

In the GCCE initiative, graduate students work as engaged scholars who learn to respect local knowledge, not just expertise from peer-reviewed academic publications. Students also engage with the broader historical and cultural aspects of modern-day Thailand. Students participate in the King Rama X–initiated special Winter Festival at the Dusit Royal Plaza to express gratitude to former monarchs, such as King Rama V and King Rama IX, as well as celebrate the culture and traditions of the country from the past to the present. All students wear traditional costumes, and Thai graduate students help U.S. students understand the cultural and historical significance of the king’s death, the recent political situations in Thailand, and the relevance of all of these circumstances for how Thai students understand global citizenship and civic engagement. All students read background materials on Thailand and Thai higher education, but they are also encouraged to remain open to new information that might emerge from personal conversations and local histories in unpublished sources that can help them understand the link between real circumstances or practices and theory in terms of GCED.

Goal Four: Developing an Identity as an Engaged Scholar

The fourth learning goal for the GCCE initiative emphasizes how engaged scholars *develop an identity as an engaged scholar*. The initiative is designed to foster awareness and reflection on the relevance of graduate students’ experiences to their professional identity, goals, responsibilities, and commitments as engaged scholars. An important role of graduate education includes developing a student’s identity as a scholar and socializing graduate students as members of a particular discipline (Austin & McDaniels, 2006). This experience occurs in the middle period of Thai graduate education, where graduate students are committing to a particular set of research questions and identifying their professional goals. Thus, the experience raises critical ques-

tions at a moment when graduate students are often considering how community engagement might be woven into meaningful academic or professional careers. Faculty leaders invite graduate students to make linkages between community engagement and their professional goals by involving them in the faculty member’s own international work. Exposure to community engagement in a period when Thai graduate students are developing dissertation proposals and determining a trajectory for their careers is a formative experience in developing a scholarly identity.

The GCCE initiative heightens graduate students’ awareness of the intersections of their salient personal identities, especially their ethnic, gender, and national identities. Identity may be viewed as an evolving life story, or set of stories, that emerges from a history of social interactions with others (McAdams & McLean, 2013). Thus, intensive social interactions in an international experience often surface questions of one’s scholarly, professional, and personal identity. Interactions in the local context evoke new or unexamined questions about aspects of self-identity in relation to others; and, although the questions may vary for each individual, immersion in an international context frequently raises deeply personal questions for all participants. Therefore, not only do graduate students act as emerging scholars, but their interactions also necessitate sensitivity to their location as particular individuals with multiple and intersecting identities.

Researching Engaged Scholarship in the Thai Context

Case study methodology was used to examine the relationships, discourses, and actions of the students, faculty, universities, and local communities through a graduate student–written assessment report submitted to PKU and MU, extended postreflection dialogues among faculty leaders, and content analysis of multiperspectival essays (Gerring, 2006). Data collected from the initiative document how graduates were transformed as engaged scholars through this partnership related to the learning goals of the GCCE initiative. Case study methodology allowed us to collect multiple types of data and triangulate this data to enhance understanding of the impact of this project (see Table 1). Thai and U.S. researchers engaged in a three-part analytic process that

Table 1. Data Sources

Analytic Method	Data Sources
Content analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Partnership proposal and planning documents Partnership report to U.S. Embassy in Bangkok Graduate student assessment report submitted to PKU and MU
Constant comparative analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Five multiperspectival reflective essays per student, including uncritical, local, mutual, global, and identity gaze perspectives
Peer debriefing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Journals and research logs by faculty leaders Field notes by faculty leaders Postreflection dialogues among faculty leaders

involved content analysis, thematic coding for the student essay reflections, and peer debriefing among the Thai and U.S. faculty. Multiple interpretations were considered before presenting the interpretation put forward in this article.

First, researchers conducted a critical contextual analysis of planning documents and the final assessment report to provide context to the findings (Bowen, 2009). Researchers analyzed a graduate student-written assessment report submitted to PKU and MU, where students expressly reflected on their personal and professional identities as engaged scholars, as well as an assessment report submitted to the U.S. Embassy in Thailand. Researchers also reviewed field notes used to capture their thoughts, feelings, and reflections before, during, and immediately after site visits, as well as research logs and journals.

Second, researchers then coded participants' reflective essays using open and axial coding simultaneously to revise and adjust codes and categories (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). The GCCE initiative uses methods derived from visual sociology to encourage a multilayered and multiperspectival understanding of locality by asking students to view situations they encountered during the initiative through multiple gazes (cf. Prins & Webster, 2010). Photo essays for each of the following five gazes were assigned and analyzed:

- uncritical gaze—how “we” see “them”
- local gaze—how “they” see the “nearby”
- mutual gaze—how “they” see “us”

- global gaze—how “I” see “globalization”
- identity gaze—how “I” see “myself”

These five ways of positioning themselves throughout the GCCE initiative allowed students to become more self-aware in the context of the hierarchical power relations in engaged scholarship and explore ways their actions challenge or perpetuate these relations. Students also wrote a synthesis essay that drew on all five photo essays to reflect on the relevance of their experiences abroad to their academic identities, responsibilities, and commitments as engaged scholars. We organized the essays and identified themes and patterns discussed by each participant, paying particular attention to impacts related to the four learning goals of the GCCE initiative (Hays & Singh, 2012). Themes across participants were developed through a constant process of comparisons as key themes emerged (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). Data were used for formative feedback provided to students related to their development as engaged scholars and to assess the early stage impacts for the four learning goals outlined previously.

Finally, researchers engaged in peer debriefing, where multiple interpretations of the data were explored. The researchers utilized extended reflection among the Thai and U.S. faculty who led this program and were part of all day-to-day activities. As a Thai faculty member who researches international education and community engagement, the first author was familiar with Thailand 4.0 and the political complexities of integrating engaged scholarship in graduate education at Thai research universities. Likewise, as a faculty member with research

interests in international development, the second author understands the dynamics of reciprocity and mutuality in international partnership development. The third author is Thai and works as a full-time international educator in the United States who spans the world of research and practice, as well as Thai and U.S. culture.

Findings

The analytic process resulted in three themes: valuing local knowledge, global environmental justice, and learning with the natural world. We outline each theme below and provide examples, then discuss the early-stage impacts of the findings on the development of the GCCE initiative.

Valuing Local Knowledge

Doctoral programs at research universities like MU and PKU are often narrowly focused and highly specialized. In contrast to this narrow approach to doctoral education, one Thai student reflected on how community-engaged learning heightened the ethical aspects of learning that values local knowledge and local practice: “Engagement with the community is particularly important in the context of greater equality in higher education. . . . I now see engagement as a learning process and outcome that encompasses multiple forms, including service-learning, community-based learning, and engaged scholarship.” In the student-written assessment report submitted to the U.S. Embassy in Thailand, Thai graduate students reflected on transformations in their perspectives from participation in active learning, which is quite different from the formal, lecture-based pedagogies they had experienced in prior graduate-level work. The group report highlighted how local contexts manifest the effects of globalization and how “our choices and actions may have repercussions for people and communities locally, nationally, or internationally.”

Graduate students recognized that cross-border academic cooperation is needed to contextualize global issues in local contexts through academic partnerships:

The relationship between the students and the connection between both universities is the most important thing I gained from this academic cooperation. . . . I see myself as an engaged scholar who

seeks to understand the background and the context and apply it to understand the higher education systems of those countries for better results.

U.S. and Thai students reflected on the role of higher education institutions in the collectively-written assessment report “in terms of local community development in support of civil society, especially in a knowledge-based global economy” and the “productive interaction between the university and the wider community.” The engagement with local communities and government officials prompted U.S. students to note the need for “reciprocal partnerships with public, private and nonprofit organizations in communities (local, regional, statewide, national and global) to address critical social issues.” Thai graduate students wrote about the importance of forming “relationships between the students and the connection between both universities” as the basis for “tight and sustainable in the academic cooperation” to address global issues through engaged scholarship.

Global Environmental Justice

A common theme across the U.S. and Thai student reflections involved awareness of power and privilege, and the need to resist inequality and unfairness from the accelerating ecological crisis. Community-engaged learning about the Thai sufficiency economy led several Thai and U.S. students to link issues of economic inequality to unequal power relations in the benefits and burdens of globalization:

For me, civic engagement means resisting inequality—raising awareness of social justice as an element in both sustainable development and the improved welfare of all people. Citizen scholars recognize the impact of unequal power and access to resources; appreciate that actions have both intended and unintended consequences on people’s lives . . . their scholarship is marked by the motivation and commitment to take action to contribute to a more just world; to challenge racism and other forms of discrimination, inequality, and environmental injustice.

One graduate student reflected on engaged

scholarship and sustainability issues in higher education, linking global climate change with the need for a realignment of higher education within the global economy. They reflected on privilege for the dominant groups in the U.S. and Thailand and the mistreatment of nondominant minorities in both countries:

Engaged scholars develop a sense of awe at the variety of peoples and environments around the world and value biodiversity. They understand the impact of the environment on cultures, economies, and societies; appreciating diverse perspectives on global issues and how identities affect opinions and perspectives and understand the nature of prejudice and discrimination and how they can be challenged and combated.

A U.S. graduate student reflected on profound shifts in their understanding of “global citizenship” from an abstract academic definition to one that includes concrete realities, like sea level rise, which has uneven material effects on the home cities of MU and PKU:

Engagement, for me, recognizes how the same situations are linked—the same situations occur in different countries and regions on different sides of the world. We learned about “global citizenship” in the textbook, but in this partnership, I experienced what it means to be an engaged scholar in a local and global context simultaneously—the local is the global—they are linked—I am linked to other graduate students across the world—the relationships between the students and the connection between both universities are the most important things I have gained from this academic cooperation.

A Thai student reflected on their lack of awareness of economic inequality beyond their experience growing up in Bangkok. They reflected on how community-engaged learning helped them discover the need to construct knowledge with local people:

I feel like I, even more, understand about the difference and the diversity of the people in the difference regions. Even for Thai students, like

me, we understand more about the way of living of the farmer and the people in the rural areas outside of Bangkok. Engagement with our community partners ignited me to open my mind to accept, respect, appreciate, and learn from people’s way of living as just as valuable as the traditional academic knowledge we engage in graduate school.

Glocal learning raised critical questions about their identity or unexamined questions about their academic identities, responsibilities, and commitments as engaged scholars. The experience raised epistemological questions about the value of indigenous knowledge and economic questions about global systems of power. For a number of students, the experience prompted more than mere intellectual critiques; it also raised unexpected ontological questions that allowed them to rediscover a sense of connection with their embodied experience and affirm relationships with all human beings and living creatures.

Learning With the Natural World

Student reflections involved profound shifts from viewing learning as separate and autonomous to viewing learning as interconnected and relational—from anthropocentric and provincial to more ecological and inclusive of all living things. Students reimagined their place in the world as “engaged scholars” who see themselves as inseparable from the ecosystems they inhabit. One student wrote that their identity as an engaged scholar now reflects a system of “community networks, attachment, and capacity” they discovered through the GCCE initiative, which contrasts with a more individualistic view of the self predominant in Western cultures.

Thai and U.S. graduate students also transformed their understanding of the need to revitalize marginalized knowledge and include experiences of other-than-human beings. Multiperspectival reflections in the photo essays also suggested meaningful shifts in students’ understanding of their identities, especially related to their connection to the environment and the natural world:

The discussion [from Thai graduate students] about humans and the black panthers made me rethink

“global citizenship.” They shared how social movements in Thailand demand rights for black panthers, but the government is silent. The discussion helped me realize that citizenship is not only concerned with human rights but animal rights too, which has transformed my view of “diversity” entirely and my connection with the world.

Students described a forum that involved in-depth dialogue about the recent slaughter of a black panther in Thailand, which “made them realize that global citizenship and civic engagement is not only an abstract concept but it is absorbed in our way of living . . . and not only of concern in terms of human rights but also animal rights too.”

Impact and Future Directions

Research universities in ASEAN nations have an increasingly important role for states and societies. Faculty and graduate students at these universities experience immense pressure to narrowly focus on traditional research to build up their institutions’ prestige and enable their recognition as world-class universities (Rungfamai, 2017). The analysis exemplifies the complex and dynamic nature of the preparation of engaged scholars. Engaged scholars can address the role of higher education in social and economic development with an understanding of how local histories (local) and economic globalization (global) shape their work. The GCCE initiative identifies four learning goals to construct an analysis of how sustainable international partnerships for graduate education might be designed, as well as a framework for how such partnerships might be sustained. The design and framework developed through this international partnership apply to other emerging countries as a valuable means to prepare the next generation of engaged scholars. The initiative’s impact continues to be enhanced by extensive postreflection dialogues among faculty leaders who have developed strong, trust-based relationships that allow for honest exchange of critical and constructive feedback.

First, the analysis exemplifies how international partnerships develop graduate students’ identities as engaged scholars while heightening awareness of their complicity in harmful local and global systems of power. The findings highlighted in this

article were shared with all stakeholders in the GCCE initiative—including faculty members, community partners, and graduate students. The stakeholders identified ways for the initiative to change based on early-stage impact findings. For example, Thai and U.S. graduate student narratives were shaped by their imagined position as “host national” and “international,” which resulted in the decision for PKU and MU to take turns as the host site.

Furthermore, all stakeholders noted that the connection between humans and ecologies comprising all living creatures emerged as an unexpected theme among Thai and U.S. graduate students. The world is suffering from the tragic consequences of environmental devastation, and the home cities of PKU and MU are suffering the loss of property and security from sea level rise. The accelerating ecological crisis is heightening social inequities and requires the meaningful involvement of all people. Students felt the need to move beyond learning about the world from a distance to learning with the world as they remake it through forms of engaged scholarship experienced during the GCCE initiative. The faculty committed that future GCCE initiatives would focus on fundamentally reconfiguring the role of education to help graduate students radically reimagine their place in the world as “engaged scholars” who see themselves as inseparable from the ecosystems they inhabit.

Finally, discussions on practical steps were needed to ensure the GCCE initiative would be sustainable in terms of funding, logistics, and learning. The report to the U.S. Embassy in Bangkok outlined a long-term plan to “tie the relationship between [PKU] and [MU] to tight and sustainable in the academic cooperation.” Figure 1 outlines the different components of the long-term planning model for sustainability coconstructed among all stakeholders after reviewing the findings highlighted in this article. Faculty, students, and community partners coconstructed a sustainable glocal learning model in project, management, and learning design as a basis for long-term academic cooperation. We believe this framework applies to similar international community-engaged partnerships focused on graduate student preparation as engaged scholars.

Project design processes are critical to ensure the initiative is based on all univer-

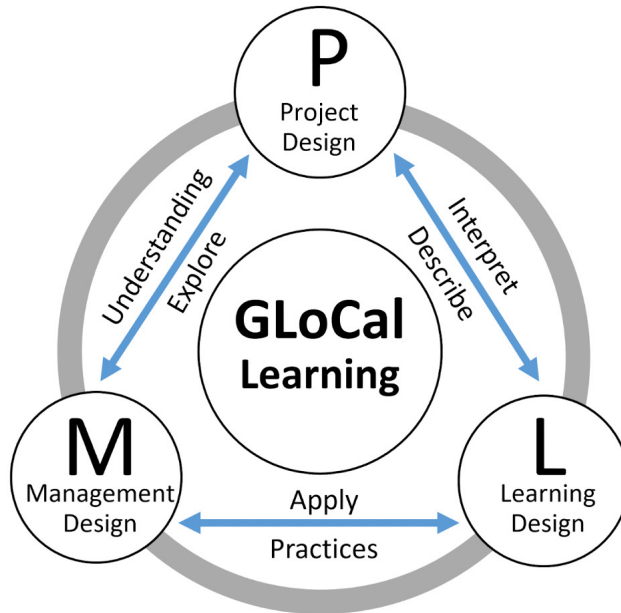


Figure 1. “3D GloCal Learning Model” for International Collaboration to Develop Graduate Students as Engaged Scholars

sity partners’ needs and mutual benefits. Learning activities need to be designed for engagement in active learning by all participants, ranging from community college leaders to government officials. The project design includes collaboration with community partners to determine mutually beneficial areas of interest, as well as how to align the initiative with graduate students’ skills, knowledge, and expertise. Management design processes are crucial to success in planning and budgeting. Both partners commit time and energy to organize the logistics of the on-site exchanges and discussions, including preparing agendas, coordinating schedules among internal stakeholders, and communicating with colleagues about opportunities to engage with graduate students. Learning design processes are developed based on expected outcomes and the coconstructed graduate course that students enroll in at PKU and MU as part of the GCCE initiative. The learning design must support graduate students as they experience the psychological, emotional, and intellectual demands of engaged scholarship. Support from faculty members is critical when graduate students engage in unfamiliar contexts, especially when the experience is designed to have real-world implications for the partner institution and community.

Our analysis contributes valuable non-Western perspectives on how international partnerships between universities prepare graduate students as engaged scholars for a sustainable world. The findings challenge narrowly focused graduate preparation that research universities in newly industrialized countries undertake to attain world-class status. The focus on world-class status often comes at the expense of engagement with local, regional, and national communities. The GCCE initiative challenges university faculty and administrators to rethink and question assumptions about how graduate education might be used to prepare faculty to act effectively and responsibly for a more peaceful and sustainable world (UNESCO, 2015). Our findings exemplify the importance of international community engagement for research-oriented universities in ASEAN countries and other emerging countries. International partnerships for the preparation of graduate students challenge deeply embedded beliefs about knowledge, develop more interrelated identities, and foster a multiperspectival understanding of reality. The formation of reciprocal relationships with international universities prepares graduate students as engaged scholars through glocal learning for a more sustainable world.



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Selling St. EOM's Pasaquan: Service-Learning's Impact on Economic, Civic, and Cultural Life

Christopher J. McCollough

Abstract

Scholarship on service-learning demonstrates a variety of benefits to students, faculty, and the university. One clear benefit beyond these is the ability of service-learning to support and advance a university's civic mission within its community and region. This article offers an account of the use of service-learning in a collaborative project that included the host university, its art department, a local chamber of commerce, and a state department of economic development. The project addressed the promotion of an emerging cultural venue in rural central Georgia, the economic revitalization of the region through travel and tourism, and the community relations required to acclimate a traditionally conservative community to supporting a visionary arts venue. An assessment of the effectiveness of the project, its overall impact, and improving the pedagogical model is also provided.

Keywords: art department, chamber of commerce, economic development, revitalization



In Marion County, Georgia, outside a small town named Buena Vista, a visionary artist named Eddie O. Martin was born in 1908. He moved to New York City and tried his hand at numerous occupations before returning home to care for the property after his mother's death in 1957. Martin changed his name to St. EOM and, from 1957 until his death in 1986, transformed his home into a folk art center called Pasaquan. For some in Marion County, he was a peculiar neighbor, one who produced admirable work and put unemployed or underemployed members of the community to work on the grounds. For others, he was a threat to their way of life, rumored to engage in drug dealing, homosexuality, and other forms of behavior outside the socially acceptable norms of residents in 1950s rural Georgia (Patterson, 1987). His apparent suicide in 1986 left Pasaquan largely unattended, with the exception of a few men and women who formed the Pasaquan Preservation Society.

Over time, Pasaquan fell into disrepair, and

the Pasaquan Preservation Society engaged in the process of seeking support to rehabilitate the property and the artwork for public exhibition. After years of petition, the Kohler Foundation responded and offered to facilitate the rehabilitation of Pasaquan in 2014 (see Figure 1). After this process was completed in October 2016, the Kohler Foundation identified a local university and its art department as the appropriate caretakers for the future maintenance and stewardship of Pasaquan.

This opportunity for the community brought with it challenges for a university and work for the community to prepare for the takeover. Columbus State University (CSU) needed a means to promote the venue that captured the interest of a global audience, the community needed to develop a plan for supporting the venue and a broader appeal for travel and tourism, and the previously split community needed to unify behind a reinvigorated visionary art venue created by a mercurial former community member (see Figure 2).



Figure 1. Pasaquan Revitalization in Progress

Note. Student photo of Pasaquan side yard gate (picture center) and pagoda (picture center right). Students in a public relations campaigns course visited Pasaquan and viewed revitalization work in progress to develop creative perspective to support strategic messaging and design work. Photo by T. Graphenreed, 2014. Used with permission.



Figure 2. Eddie O. Martin's Main House

Note. Student photo taken during public relations campaigns course visit to view revitalization work in progress at Pasaquan. Photo by T. Graphenreed, 2014. Used with permission.

For students in the Department of Communication enrolled in two public relations courses, and for me as their instructor, the process of working toward these goals provided a unique opportunity to cultivate relationships with local businesses, a city government, the state's travel and tourism marketing team, and the university's art department. The experience gave public relations students valuable experience in arts management and arts and entertainment promotion. Moreover, this case demonstrates the value of service-learning in helping a university advance its mission and connect with its core values (Barber, 1994; Giroux, 2010; Kuban et al., 2014) through preserving and making available to a global audience a visionary art environment.

Value of Service-Learning to Students and Communities

Faculty members often receive student complaints that course content has little to do with real life and thus is devoid of any practical value. Service-learning components, when embedded into the curriculum, can add the level of relevance that students perceive as missing. Research suggests that incorporating service-learning components into their curriculum increases levels of student learning outcomes as well as faculty satisfaction (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995; Kahne et al., 2000). Through the service-learning experiences, students identify with course concepts, find the course material relevant to real-life situations, and gain more knowledge in the theoretical content and more confidence in their command of practical content as they apply both in the service-learning experience. The service-learning model enables faculty to go beyond the basic instruction that provides a skeleton concept of the work to be performed with organizations, and it gives faculty and students the opportunity to engage in deeper learning and meaning as they explore alternative applications for course content outside the classroom (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995).

Adopting a service-learning model can help meet real needs of community agencies in ways that include expanded capacities—both human and resource—of local agencies (Basinger, 2015; Fletcher et al., 2012); mitigate the dearth of resources in rural and otherwise underserved populations (Auld, 2004; Basinger, 2015; Hall et al., 2009; Miller, 1991); and build vital sustain-

ing partnerships between faculty, students, university, and the community (Fletcher et al., 2012). Research suggests that the presence of reciprocity is one of the strongest predictors of successful partnerships resulting from service-learning opportunities, with each stakeholder gaining from the experience with an equitable exchange of resources (Cruz & Giles, 2000; Jacoby, 1996). Service-learning thus provides community agencies access to knowledge, skill, and human resources they need but could not afford, in the form of faculty and students. In turn, students view community agencies as providers of experience and professional networking—both of which can be helpful in the job search. Effective service-learning partnerships encourage mutuality, shared resources, and accountability, with each service-learning stakeholder contributing resources to help the others (Basinger, 2015; Honadle & Kennealy, 2011). Additional research suggests that service-learning helps build levels of confidence in content and practice (Basinger, 2015; Kahne et al., 2000).

The service-learning experience can be as rewarding for the faculty member as for the student. One of the many positive outcomes of service-learning is that faculty members can incorporate these opportunities, which often come from their own personal involvement in the community, to help students experience firsthand how vital and relevant course content can be to meeting needs in the community (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995). Faculty can draw upon the body of quantitative and qualitative research literature that points to increased content knowledge and levels of awareness and engagement resulting from service-learning components embedded into course curriculum (Honadle & Kennealy, 2011; Kahne et al., 2000; Kuban et al., 2014). Furthermore, research suggests that the service-learning experience “enhances the student's academic development, life skill development, and sense of civic responsibility” (Astin & Sax, 1998, p. 251).

Relevance to Town-Gown Relationships and the University Mission

On the macro level, the service-learning model offers many benefits. First, the model offers the potential to provide communities with needed resources that are otherwise unaffordable. Additionally, the service-learning model also may help universities

meet their mission of outreach in their communities.

Many American research universities can trace their reason for existence to the need to prepare citizenry to participate in democratic life (Kahne et al., 2000; Schatterman, 2014). Not only does incorporating service-learning into the curriculum help many universities meet this mission, but it also has the capacity to demonstrate the practical value of research and theory to their host communities. In his seminal research, Barber (1994) established that service-learning can help move universities closer to their original mission of educating citizenry. Recent research suggests that, in addition to providing higher learning, academic institutions are also “institutions of community engagement” (Schatterman, 2014, p. 17). As such, colleges and universities are called upon not only to educate and graduate students, but to transition them into society as informed and civic-minded citizens who are effective decision-makers and self-reflective about public issues and the world in which they live (Giroux, 2010; Kuban et al., 2014).

Moreover, research suggests that participation in “high-quality service learning leads to the values, knowledge, skills, efficacy, and commitment that underlie effective citizenship” (Eyler & Giles, 1999, p. 164). Students born in the new millennium prefer interactive learning and want the courses they take to provide answers to relevant questions being asked in society (Giroux, 2010; Kuban et al., 2014; Twenge, 2013). Extant research suggests that the impact of service-learning experiences assists in these areas by promoting higher levels of (a) student cognition, awareness, and problem-solving skills (Schatterman, 2014); (b) self-esteem and confidence (Jones & Abes, 2004); (c) civic engagement (Schatterman, 2014); and (d) postgraduation awareness of career and employability options (Auld, 2004; Bringle & Hatcher, 1995; Hall et al., 2009; Schatterman, 2014). Additional research suggests that not only can the positive effects of the service-learning experience supplement and enhance student knowledge, they also can continue throughout life (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995; Jones & Abes, 2004; Kahne et al., 2000). Having established the potential of service-learning models to help improve town-gown relations and to advance a university’s mission, we now move forward and provide some

context on Pasaquan and its larger relationship with Marion County and Buena Vista, Georgia.

Marion County and Pasaquan: Site of the Project

Pasaquan was a venue in need of revitalization by fall 2014. After 28 years of relative neglect, its care and upkeep were left largely to the underresourced Pasaquan Preservation Society. In 2014, years of appeal to the Kohler Foundation ultimately led to a \$5 million grant to restore Pasaquan and initiate public exhibition of its artifacts as a means to bring artists, scholars, and fans of visionary folk art to the local site. One stipulation of the arrangement was that Kohler be able to partner with a local university, in order to ensure long-term curation and preservation beyond the foundation’s work. Ultimately, a partnership with CSU was established to renovate the facilities, restore the artwork to its former beauty, and preserve artifacts for exhibition around the country. The decision to establish a partnership with CSU was a matter of proximity of the university to the venue.

CSU’s president at the time indicated that the decision to accept the venue as a gift to the university’s foundation was a matter of opportunity to raise the profile of the institution and to enhance the reputation of its already strong art department. In his tenure, Dr. Timothy Mescon was a supporter of the College of the Arts, as its units have been an asset at CSU and a growing part of Columbus’s vibrant community arts culture. In the same way the migration of the college to Columbus’s Uptown district helped improve town-gown relations and strengthen the profile of the Schwob School of Music, he envisioned the potential for Pasaquan to put the spotlight on CSU and its Department of Art. In the end, the university president’s agreement to accept Pasaquan as part of CSU’s foundation holdings enabled the project to move forward. Art professor Mike McFalls was appointed Pasaquan’s director and continues to serve in that capacity (see Figure 3).

The partnership came at perhaps the most essential and opportune time for Marion County and its small town, Buena Vista, Georgia. The county and town itself had endured an economic downturn that began with the migration away from production plants in the region and hit its lowest points



Figure 3. Mike McFalls Leading Public Relations Campaigns Class Tour at Pasaquan

Note. Pasaquan director and CSU professor of art Mike McFalls (left center) leads a CSU public relations campaigns class on a tour of Pasaquan grounds to develop contextual knowledge of the project. Photo by T. Graphenreed, 2014. Used with permission.

in the economic collapse of 2008. By January 2010, unemployment for Marion County stood had risen to 11.4% (U.S. Department of Labor, n.d.). With a minor rebound, and the presence of a Tyson Chicken processing plant, the unemployment numbers had fallen to 7.8% in May 2015 (U.S. Department of Labor, n.d.). However, the town and county suffered another setback as Tyson closed its facility that May, and unemployment rose to 9.8% within a month (U.S. Department of Labor, n.d.).

Seeing the potential of Pasaquan and understanding the need for other economic opportunities, the Marion County Chamber of Commerce approached the Georgia Department of Economic Development about bringing in a team to assess the potential for adapting Buena Vista, Marion County, and Pasaquan to a travel and tourism economy. During fall 2014, the team visited all regional venues and held town halls with the citizens to gather as much actionable information as they could mine and to offer a set of recommendations to the town about how to approach revitalization, build mutually beneficial partnerships, and adjust the town mind-set to embrace art and cultural promotion. The finished

product was a 115-page report that detailed the resources available to Marion County, effective models for a travel and tourism economy, and community-specific recommendations for updating storefronts, enhancing sidewalks, and developing the types of business and infrastructure they would need to develop as the new economy began to grow over the next 5–10 years.

One of the chief recommendations was to make full use of the new partnership with CSU and its various departments to achieve mutual benefits that would help improve Marion County and Buena Vista's prospects while enhancing the university's town-gown profile. To highlight the value of this approach for the university, the university's mission statement and core values will be discussed while illustrating how the partnership advances both.

University's Mission and Values

The Georgia Department of Economic Development's call to leverage a partnership with the university to support resource-light Marion County not only was shrewd, but also played into CSU's mission statement and core values. CSU's 2013–2018

strategic plan included the following mission statement:

We empower people to contribute to the advancement of our local and global communities through an emphasis on excellence in teaching and research, life-long learning, cultural enrichment, public-private partnerships, and service to others. (Columbus State University, n.d.)

A casual observer will be able to identify how many of these items can be facilitated across the diverse curriculum offered by 35 departments at a comprehensive, regional state university. The next section offers an example of how one communication instructor used the service-learning model to support this partnership and to ultimately help advance the university mission.

Instructor Relationship Cultivation and Research

One challenging element of this partnership was that the university accepted Pasaquan without first consulting the Department of Art about how best to establish and cultivate the partnership. Rather, the department was informed that the university was taking on the venue and would be delegating responsibility for management to the department. Shortly after the partnership announcement with Pasaquan in summer 2014, the CSU Department of Art tasked one of its professors with the role of director of Pasaquan. Among the first challenges he had to address was making Pasaquan self-sustaining. To do so, he would need to cultivate revenue and donor partnerships that could help keep the maintenance and promotion of the venue viable. To achieve this end, he began brokering partnerships with faculty, the community leadership, and the state travel and tourism board. In short, he was engaged in stakeholder management as a relative public relations novice.

To earn the support of university faculty, he brought university faculty out to Pasaquan for a social and tour of facilities to garner ideas in a brainstorming session. Many faculty in the sciences and other social science disciplines cultivated valuable ideas for retreat meetings, conferences, and lab observation of the nature surrounding the venue. Outcomes of this activity included recognizing the need for larger economic development in the community, the need

to effectively brand and promote Pasaquan, and the need to revitalize the brand for Marion County, all while garnering buy-in from the town of Buena Vista.

With this in mind, I brokered a relationship with Pasaquan's director and worked with him to cultivate an active role with the Marion County Chamber of Commerce, a seat on CSU's Pasaquan advisory committee, and a consulting partnership with the Georgia Department of Economic Development's Travel and Tourism Promotion team. These connections would provide contextual knowledge and information for my course design. The role with the chamber helped me build contextual knowledge of the community and its economic challenges. Through the seat on the Pasaquan advisory committee I learned about both the resource and creative challenges the art venue had to address prior to takeover by the university. Finally, the partnership with the Georgia Department of Economic Development opened the door for research data in travel and tourism that students in my courses would find invaluable as they tried to design and pitch a campaign, as well as guest lecture sessions on specific strategies and tactics essential to effective travel and tourism public relations work.

Over the subsequent 6 months, I made a dozen trips to various functions at Pasaquan to strengthen relationships, expand on partnerships, and collect data to build a strong course design that would yield service-learning projects that could have tangible impacts on Marion County, Buena Vista, and Pasaquan. The director of Pasaquan was compensated with a stipend and course release time, and I derived research and pedagogical opportunities from the project without any specific form of compensation. With a sense of the need for effective partnership cultivation established, as well as the lead time for data collection, course design will be covered so that the reader will understand how the projects, partnership, and products were meant to advance the relationship and enhance student skill sets.

Course Designs

I spread the work across two courses: a fall public relations campaigns course and a spring public relations management class. The fall campaigns course used a competitive pitch format involving six student teams in head-to-head competition on behalf of three clients. The teams that win

each of the three pitches earn an A in the course. Those that lose the pitch are subject to full evaluation by the instructor. The purpose of adopting a competitive evaluation model was to encourage a higher quality of strategic planning and material development in support of each team's proposed campaign. Even in losing a pitch, with the exception of one team earning a poor grade due to poor research, planning, and production, the other five teams earned a B or above on the final course project. To assist the clients in selecting a winning pitch, the instructor brought in four public relations practitioners from the community to offer constructive feedback on each team's product and pitch, as well as an informed perspective to relatively uninitiated clients.

Two student teams worked with Marion County personnel on community relations efforts meant to help the community acclimate to supporting an emerging travel and tourism economy, as well as the growth in support for the once-controversial Pasaquan (see Figure 4). Two student groups worked on travel and tourism public relations intended to help develop a larger brand for Marion County and Buena Vista, support

materials to use in promoting the town and region, and a larger strategy meant to bring visitors into town and to push more capital into the community. Finally, two student groups worked with Pasaquan's director on cultivating a brand, marketing materials, and an effective strategy to promote Pasaquan as a visionary art venue with a variety of uses.

At the completion of the fall course, the winning bids were collected and held for the spring public relations management course, in which a team of seven students worked with the client to adopt the best of each project in executing a campaign that helped market Pasaquan and Marion County. At the end of the fall course, the client took the community relations strategies and incorporated them in the community through her chamber of commerce.

Although not part of the initial plan, the development and implementation of marketing materials prompted a student from Marion County in both courses, Lauren Minor, to take on a role as a senior intern implementing the program with the client. She spent the final four months of her program of study working closely with



Figure 4. On-site Research at Pasaquan

Note. As part of the course schedule, public relations students engaged in on-site research at Pasaquan. They also traveled to Buena Vista later that day to perform community research in the town square. Photo by T. Graphenreed, 2014. Used with permission.

the Marion County Chamber of Commerce developing a new marketing strategy and executing on the initial stages of promoting Pasaquan and helping continue to bring in new businesses and infrastructure to support the new travel and tourism economy.

I asked Minor to comment on her perspective on the courses, and she offered a perspective that noted the rigor and value of the course experience:

Overall, while the Campaigns and Management courses were challenging, the way in which the classes were taught were very effective. They forced me to take the content taught and apply it to a real-world situation. Having the ability to take what I learned in class and put it into action for a need that I was passionate about made it all the more valuable as a learning tool.

Her perspective demonstrates the potential for students to engage in projects where they have a personal investment while

building skills relevant to professional practice. The following section will highlight the extent to which the clients made use of student work in meeting local needs.

Quality of Student Products: Winning When You Lose

In reviewing the projects, and considering the ultimate adoption of student materials, it should be noted that the clients made effective use of materials and strategies from both winning and losing teams (see Figure 5). One clear example of this came in reviewing the Pasaquan teams' projects. One team offered very strong graphic design and manuals for standards and practice, prompting the Department of Art to adopt many of their designs in the logos of the venue's marketing materials. In contrast, Pasaquan's director believed the losing team actually cultivated a much stronger perspective on Pasaquan's identity, the concept of visionary art, and the perspective of potential visitors to the venue. Accordingly, much of the naming and messaging that accompanies the logos of the first team actually came from the second team's book.



Pasaquan is a four-acre visionary art site that consists of six major structures, more than 900 feet of painted masonry fence, painted totems, decorative walkways, sculptures, and other art and artifacts. It is listed on the National Register of Historic Places and is considered among the most important visionary art environments in the United States.


Eddie Owens Martin, who introduced himself as St. EOM, was the creator of Pasaquan. This visionary artist - a Georgia native - had no formal training, but reveled in the intuitive creative art process.

Pasaquan is located in Buena Vista, Georgia, and owned by Columbus State University. It is open to the public for viewing, group tours, and private events. Visit the interpretive center, grab a site-map, and tour the spot where the past, present, and future collide.

PASAQUAN HOURS
Thursday-Saturday 10:00 a.m. - 5:00 p.m.
Closed for major holidays and the months of December and July.

ADMISSION
\$5 for Adults
\$3 for Seniors
\$2 for Students

For More Information:
Director of Pasaquan, Michael McFalls
mcfalls_michael@columbusstate.edu
706-507-8306
art.columbusstate.edu
www.facebook.com/ArtistsforPasaquan



PASAQUAN

Eddie Martin Rd. Buena Vista, GA 31803

Figure 5. Student Concept Work for Promotional Brochures

Note. These examples of student concept work for promotional brochures incorporate design work from fall 2014 and copy from fall 2014 and spring 2015 public relations courses.

This particular example demonstrates the relative strength of the work of both student teams engaged in a direct competition, and bodes well for competitive modeling in service-learning courses.

That said, some student groups faced a number of challenges. In one group, members were unable to balance group dynamics and individual student ideas, which limited their effectiveness in managing a challenging campaign. In another student group, an inattention to the quality of the writing and media produced for the campaign contributed to superior research and strategy falling short against a better balanced campaign pitch. Finally, one team's inability to communicate with the client for the duration of the campaign left them well behind their opponent with the client, making winning a pitch a very difficult prospect. Even with the limitations on individual projects, the products showed an overall stronger quality than in previous campaigns courses, and helped yield a solid campaign execution in the spring semester. With the project quality discussed, we will shift our focus to the impact on the community and the students.

Impact of the Project

Immediate Impact on the Community and Pasaquan

Without making exaggerated claims for the outcomes of these projects, it can be observed that Marion County and Pasaquan experienced some very strong early indicators of positive returns in terms of revenue, development, and population growth from the project's completion in 2016 through 2017. Marion County's revitalization is well under way. The chamber of commerce president has reported that the county has obtained \$62,000 in initial grant support targeting economic development and travel and tourism promotion support (D. Ford, personal communication, June 28, 2017). The Georgia Department of Community Affairs presented an updated design proposal for refinishing storefronts, streets, and the courthouse grounds of the town square of Buena Vista in 2016 (D. Ford, personal communication, June 28, 2017). In addition, the community added a new welcome center for the growing tourism economy and created a new chamber of commerce office in 2016 (D. Ford, personal communication, June 28, 2017).

During 2016, eight new businesses have opened in Marion County, and there is a conversation about opening seven additional businesses, according to the Marion County Chamber of Commerce (D. Ford, personal communication, June 28, 2017). Early reports also indicated that new buyers developed recreational hunting and lodging venues and that potential commercial developers made commercial real estate purchase inquiries. In addition to the growth in local businesses, the chamber worked to encourage small business development through multiple seminars for aspiring business owners and travel and tourism promotion seminars. Most important, unemployment numbers shrank to 3.7% from the 9.8% level that followed the Tyson plant's closing, as of the October 2020 report (Georgia Department of Labor, n.d.).

Sales tax revenue was another solid indicator. In summer 2016, the chamber president reported that sales tax revenue, after having bottomed out, had steadily increased each subsequent quarter since. She attributed this increase in revenue to the opening of new businesses and growing tourism numbers in the community related to both Pasaquan and the partnership now in place with the Presidential Pathways program sponsored by the Georgia Department of Economic Development (D. Ford, personal communication, June 28, 2017).

A strong area of concern when the local community entered into the partnership was the potential for community growth, and early indicators suggested success in this area. In 2016, 34 housing permits were approved for additional development—the largest number of permits in the 7 years the building, code, and zoning administrator had been in office. When the president of the local chamber of commerce interviewed the new residents regarding why they joined the community, the strongest reasons included the community culture, the strong school district, and the revitalization under way. Other contributing causes included the relatively inexpensive property taxes and some civic issues with the local government in a neighboring county (D. Ford, personal communication, June 28, 2017).

Pasaquan is showing promising early returns, according to donor correspondence from its faculty director. On October 22, 2016, Pasaquan opened to the public and ownership was transferred to the Columbus State University Foundation. At the opening,



Figure 6. Grand Opening of Pasaquan

Note. Visitors from around the world attended the grand opening of Pasaquan on October 22, 2016. Photo by C. Robinson. Used with permission.

2,200 people from 34 states and 14 countries attended the festivities (see Figure 6). In its first 5 weeks after the opening, 892 visitors came to Pasaquan, averaging 179 visitors a week on a 3-day weekly schedule. Visitors since the opening have traveled in groups from New York; Portland, Oregon; Chicago, Illinois; and Atlanta, Georgia. Graduate students from Cornell University, the University of Wisconsin, the University of Georgia, and Georgia State University have conducted research on site, and it promises to host guest artists and provide source material in its archives to art students for years to come. In addition to several traveling exhibitions and a documentary on the restoration, the efforts of students helped the Department of Art solicit more than \$16,000 in fundraising in the first 5 weeks after the opening. With the early impact on Marion County and Pasaquan discussed, I will now address the impact on university students using data collected by Pasaquan's director of operations.

Impact for the Students

The project work in Marion County and Pasaquan did a lot more than bring 28 public relations campaigns and eight public relations management students to the

region and help them develop industry-relevant experience and portfolio materials. According to Pasaquan's director, 120 students enrolled at the university have helped to advance the work in Marion County and Pasaquan over the last 2 years. The students come from communication, art, history, geography, and English. The venue's plans for flexible use also promise to bring students from the sciences, business, and social sciences. History and geography students collected oral histories and performed research to develop tourism maps for the region and for Pasaquan to help advance the area's economic revitalization while building professional experience that helped them see the value of their chosen fields of study. English students engaged in creative writing projects aimed at telling the story of Marion County and Pasaquan, helping develop literature that would contribute to the long-term sustainability of travel and tourism in the region. Art students, in both studio and art history, were engaged in the restoration and cataloging effort that helped finalize the restoration in 2016, as well as organization and support materials for the series of traveling exhibitions and museum exhibits aimed at bringing a global audience to the venue. Collaboration in the College of the Arts since Pasaquan's reopening has

produced several on-site exhibitions, as well as a collaborative composition of an opera about St. EOM and Pasaquan, *Eddie's Stone Song: Odyssey of the First Pasaquoyan*, which was first performed by faculty and students on the grounds in October 2017 (see Figure 7). In short, the project brought an intellectually diverse group of young talent together to facilitate solutions that will potentially help revitalize a community and elevate the profile of a unique cultural venue in rural Georgia.

Communication students continue to benefit from these service-learning courses, experiencing improved marketability at graduation as well as enhanced civic engagement. These benefits are exemplified in the student mentioned earlier who took on the role of an intern at the Marion County Chamber of Commerce. She did so largely because of her desire to gain more experience, but also because she was from the region and wanted to continue to help its growth. During the internship, she had a direct role in developing the marketing and promotion for Marion County and Buena Vista. She also aided planning and execution of the launch for Pasaquan and was the first ambassador for the new welcome

center. Her experiences in the internship made it possible for her to earn her first position as the communication director for the Bainbridge-Decatur County Chamber of Commerce in Bainbridge, Georgia. Recently, she's grown in her role with this chamber of commerce and now serves as its president. Hers is an ideal model for the civic and professional benefit of service and experiential learning. In her comments on the experience and its impact since, she said of the course designs, "Working for actual clients and preparing campaigns that worked toward present challenges those clients faced helped me transition into the workforce with real-world experience that has proven itself invaluable."

Reviewing the University Mission

Looking back on the university's mission, some themes expressed in the most recent strategic plan were clearly in play on the Pasaquan project. Students were empowered to advance a neighboring community, as was clearly demonstrated in the work to help promote travel and tourism and to strengthen community relations in Marion County. Moreover, the promotion of Pasaquan had the express intent of bring-



Figure 7. Premiere Performance of *Eddie's Stone Song: Odyssey of the First Pasaquoyan*

Note. Audience for the opening performance of *Eddie's Stone Song: Odyssey of the First Pasaquoyan* on October 17, 2017. From *Eddie's Stone Song*, by T. Smith, 2017, Michael C. McFalls (<https://michael-mcfalls.com/artwork/4333110-Eddie-s-Stone-Song.html>).

ing an international community of artists to Marion County and Pasaquan, serving the mission of advancing a global community.

Speaking to excellence in teaching and research, the application of service-learning offered an innovative approach that not only provided students with an interactive, pragmatic form of learning that effectively assisted them in applying concepts in work with an organization, it also provided a viable research context for me as their professor and can serve as a model for educators considering how they might make the most out of service-learning courses. Given the three missions of higher education—service, teaching, research—this course project feeds all three legs of promotion and tenure. It provides a viable form of service that faculty can apply in innovative course design to yield data that can be analyzed for scholarship in teaching and learning, as well as within their discipline. This project has led to scholarship not only on teaching and learning, but also on community collaboration that will enhance the practice of teaching in public relations and related communication courses in our department (McCullough, 2018; McCullough & Gibson, 2018, in press).

On the topic of cultural enrichment, we see a clear example of helping communication students cultivate public relations campaigns that take into account not only the culturally rich aspects of Pasaquan, but also the local culture of Marion County and Buena Vista on the related campaigns promoting and enhancing those communities.

Finally, the project itself is a clear example of service to the region that ultimately advances a private-public partnership. Prior to the Pasaquan project, the relationship between Marion County and the university was limited to the occasional field trip or education major working in the local school district. In the aftermath of the project, students in art, history, geography, English, music, and communication now work on various projects in the community, and this relationship enhances both Marion County and the university, providing a best case example of a mutually beneficial private-public partnership.

Discussion

Literature in service-learning details the value of the practice to individual students and teachers, as well as the larger view of

the benefit to organizations, communities, and the university's original purpose and strategic mission. This case is an example of a project that advanced the university's mission by helping local economic prospects, raising the profile of a visionary art venue, and strengthening a community's buy-in during the process. Further, it is creating opportunities for students in multiple disciplines to build portfolios that will make them marketable in the workforce.

The concerns posed about service-learning as a time-consuming and labor-intensive process certainly hold true here. Leading up to the two public relations courses I would teach, I invested the better part of a year in research and relationship cultivation on site in Marion County with community members, in meetings with faculty in other departments, and in the development of a project design that would facilitate students' opportunity to meet community needs. The intent of this review, however, is to illustrate the long-term value of the advance preparation and effort in advancing the students', community's, and potentially the faculty member's research endeavors. This project prompts further inquiry into the measurable impact of competition on service-learning and further study of the ultimate impact of the service-learning projects on Marion County, Buena Vista, and Pasaquan. From the perspective of an educator, program leader, and community member, the best results in a project like this demand advanced research and planning to set students up for a more productive stage on which to work independently and creatively where they can access the best industry and community experts, as well as cost-efficient resources that produce quality results.

For community leaders, academic decision makers, and other interested parties, this case should also offer an example of the potential value of integrating coursework with practical environments. For community leaders, the local university may be able to serve as an engine for growth and revitalization beyond enrolled students, faculty, and staff living in the region. Service-learning offers an approach to teaching that engenders strong social and civic engagement from students that can facilitate change. For academic decision makers who question the viability of service-learning as a mechanism to promote the university and its capacity for outreach and engagement, this example goes beyond political par-

participation and community problem solving and offers an example of economic growth spurred in part by students working both in a classroom and in a real-world lab environment.

The project's early success suggests that it will remain a viable program, although it will require further analysis to assess long-term sustainability. The plan is to transition from a restoration and early promotional effort to establishing a self-sustaining venue that supports the ongoing economic revitalization in Marion County and in the town of Buena Vista. Some of the previous student work has helped Marion County and Buena Vista in this effort. Interview data and the content review of student materials and subsequent promotional materials and grant writing indicate that student work took on a foundational role upon which the community built its materials and arguments for support. The chamber of commerce president reported the county obtained \$62,000 in initial grant support targeting economic development and travel and tourism promotion support. The chamber president noted the state's Department of Community Affairs granted the funds on the basis of an updated design proposal from the public relations management team for refinishing storefronts, streets, and the courthouse grounds of the town square (D. Ford, personal communication, June 28, 2017). This design proposal was based on the recommendations of student teams in the public relations campaigns course tasked with helping the community adapt to effectively support Pasaquan's guests.

In terms of sustaining CSU's role in the partnership, the connection to Pasaquan remains clear and intact. After 3 years, the director of Pasaquan remains in place and the venue is still under the control of the CSU Foundation and stewardship of the Department of Art. Each semester, art students in the undergraduate and graduate programs remain engaged in preservation and exhibition activities on site, and an intern is on staff to sustain existing marketing and promotional efforts. This evidence indicates that a long-term interest in maintaining the partnership with CSU and its art department is viable.

In terms of adaptation to meet the needs of the community and Pasaquan, the lines of contact remain open with Marion County via the chamber of commerce president, as well as with the Pasaquan Advisory Board. I check

in each year to identify new potential areas to explore that have emerged in the ongoing revitalization effort in the region, and the Marion County Chamber of Commerce president monitors the economic data for the county and region reported earlier, so both are tracking economic progress across these dimensions. They are also monitoring grant opportunities for economic development projects like the one mentioned earlier, to help facilitate and expedite the revitalization in progress. Should a need emerge, the ability to partner the community leadership or Pasaquan staff with a service-learning course in the Department of Communication is always available and open for discussion. The philosophical aim for the Department of Communication is to establish and sustain long-term community partnerships capable of meeting needs beyond the initial ask.

In terms of assessing the project beyond the initial engagement, several factors remain in place to provide data to enable a sustainable model. CSU's foundation and Pasaquan's director maintain a record of donors, visitors, and contacts to determine whether the venue is generating enough revenue or donor capital to achieve self-sustenance. The director and his student interns and workers regularly monitor the facilities and art on exhibit to ensure it remains intact and in good condition. As mentioned above, the Marion County Chamber of Commerce pays close attention to federal and state economic reports, and will continue this ongoing process to determine whether the strategic choice to move to a travel and tourism economy will continue to benefit the region economically and civically. As future course project opportunities emerge, I will maintain a similar attention to assessing project quality and impact on students' professional development. An additional area not yet considered is one long a part of service-learning scholarship—the impact on students' civic development (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995). In this and future projects affiliated with the region, I will incorporate quarterly self-reflection surveys or blogs to enable analysis of impact on students' civic knowledge, mind-set, and identification with the communities and organizations served.

Lessons Learned From This Project With Promise

Looking back on the project reveals lessons to be learned of value to those interested in engaging in high impact learning practices

that include community engagement. These lessons acknowledge both the challenges of a service-learning approach and the potential of such projects to enhance both the learning environment and the quality of life in the community.

Time Demands and Resource Limitations Are Real

One lesson learned early in adopting a curriculum predominantly couched in service-learning is that it requires the educator to invest time and energy professionally in developing community partnerships, managing expectations with those partners, and letting the knowledge developed in the preliminary phase inform and set the foundation upon which student groups or individual students set up and execute course-relevant projects. The work continues as each semester progresses, and the instructor has to work behind the scenes in managing partner and student expectations and concerns. Finally, really successful programs like this one will require stewardship beyond the course in which the instructor will maintain a dialogue with the partner and work to coordinate subsequent course projects or internships that help to support emergent projects.

In terms of managing instructor and student ambitions for the course project outcome, it is important to remember that not all client partnerships come with readily available resources to use effectively in course projects. Part of the advanced work was to determine what was available, what was not available, and to identify creative means to either cultivate or tap into resources to serve student and community partner interests alike. Even if doors appear closed, other avenues may be open. This brings me to a second valuable lesson.

Contextual Knowledge and Creativity in Design Are Key to Success

For me, this program was an epiphany that brought insight into how creative problem solving that includes effective research of the program context, resources, and organizations involved will enhance the learning environment for students and the potential impact on the community where the program takes place. When entering the project, I understood the basic problems for Pasaquan, but I did not see the potential added-value opportunities for students and the region in community relations and

countywide economic development until I had researched the context further and met with community partners. Establishing a strong baseline of knowledge revealed ways to connect with different audiences to fulfill different needs and achieve mutual benefit for the community, its constituents, and students in the classroom.

Relationship Cultivation and Management Matter

Borrowing the principles of relationship management theory from public relations (Ledingham & Bruning, 1998) established a much more mutually beneficial and successful outcome for every party involved. Once viable partners in the community, at the university, and at the state level had been identified, I networked with those groups strategically to build a sophisticated resource pull that provided students with access to tools and knowledge that fell outside a traditional, text-based learning environment. The supplemental resources made the students' work stronger, enhanced their professional development, and enabled them to network with professionals in the field who could open doors for them.

On the subject of mutual benefit at the heart of relationship management theory, the community and arts center came away from the two courses and internship with a base of knowledge about their assets that strengthened subsequent economic development work and even connected them with viable talent in the courses whom they could hire and bring to the workplace to continue the program beyond the courses. For the university, this program provided a multi-plex means of promoting its academic programs, external venues, faculty, and community. For the state of Georgia, it enabled the Department of Economic Development to establish the value of its work in helping communities, and it helped the university system tout the tangible value of one of its institutions to the surrounding community. In the end, each party came away with something of value. This all came to fruition through the long-term establishment of relationships and engagement among faculty, state agents, and community leaders involved in the process.

Sustain Measurement Beyond the Life of the Course

One of the greatest lessons that I brought away from this program is the value of

maintaining lines of communication not only in the interests of networking, but to also effectively measure the long-term impact of the program on the region. The established forms of measurement and contact with community partners enabled me to identify the upward trends in economic development and impact of community partners and students. Potential scholars and educators who engage in community outreach can benefit greatly by monitoring community programs consistently and well beyond the initial program launch. In a discipline increasingly evaluated on the tangible value of its work to the community, to employers, and to citizens engaged in the learning process, programs like this one can be valuable tools as narratives bearing viable data on the long-term value in supporting higher education programs that engage in town-gown relations and direct contact with community partners.

In addition, the information gathered through sustained measurement can provide multifaceted support for collaborative partnerships. Evidence of continuing benefits can be used to build the case presented to administrators for continuing a program; garner fiscal support for the program from donors at the regional and state level; and demonstrate the program's value to educators, students, and partners to keep them engaged in the program well beyond the initial phase. Although many might question the value of Pasaquan as a separate entity unto itself, the data around the larger program of work revitalizing the surrounding community and the work integrating the community and venue into the statewide travel and tourism program makes the case for sustaining and perhaps growing support to keep the revitalization of Pasaquan and Marion County moving forward.



About the Author

Christopher J. McCollough is joining the Department of Communication at Jacksonville State as an associate professor of communication in the spring of 2021. He was previously tenured as an associate professor of communication in the Department of Communication at Columbus State University, where he engaged as an educator and scholar in public relations. He studies industry trends that public relations educators should be bringing to students in the classroom as well as the benefits of high impact learning practices in the teaching and learning of public relations to students, educators, the community, and institutions of higher learning. He received his PhD in mass communication and public affairs from Louisiana State University.

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Campus Classification, Identity, and Change: The Elective Carnegie Classification for Community Engagement

John Saltmarsh and Mathew Johnson

Abstract

To receive the Carnegie Elective Classification for Community Engagement, campuses must provide extensive documentation indicating a commitment to institutionalizing community engagement. When they do so, the Carnegie Foundation recognizes community engagement as part of the institutional identity of the campus. The Community Engagement Classification was designed to augment the basic classification (which all campuses receive) in a way that encouraged campus innovation and change. Based on our review of hundreds of applications for the classification, we propose that the Carnegie Foundation was not only encouraging campus change, but that the design of the classification suggests a theory of how institutionalization of community engagement happens. When working with campuses applying for the classification, we have found that understanding the theory of change implied by the classification has helped focus attention on the importance of locating community engagement in the core academic cultures, policies, structures, and practices of the campus.

Keywords: community engagement classification, Carnegie classification, innovation, change, institutionalization



We ask other college presidents to join us in seeking recognition of civic responsibility in accreditation procedures, Carnegie classifications, and national rankings, and to work with governors, state legislators, and state higher education offices on state expectations for civic engagement in public systems. (Presidents' Declaration on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education, 2000, p. 2)

The Carnegie Elective Classification for Community Engagement is probably the most important of the tools analysed so far, in terms of the level of recognition and influence that it has achieved at the national level in the U.S. In turn, it provides a source of inspiration at the global level for developing tools that assess, recognise and reward institutions for their community engagement achievements. (Benneworth et al., 2018, p. 120)

As of 2020, the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification has been through five cycles of campuses applying for classification. We have been leading the administration of the classification since 2009. Starting July 1, 2020, Albion College, where Mathew serves as president, became the administrative home for the Carnegie Community Engagement Classification. The classifica-

tion was previously housed at the Swearer Center of Brown University from 2017 to 2020, where Mathew served as director of the Center. The classification was housed at the New England Resource Center for Higher Education from 2009 to 2017, where John served as director.

The 2015 classification cycle was the first time campuses that had achieved the clas-

sification submitted for reclassification. Through all these cycles of classification, and from hundreds of campus applications providing evidence of institutional community engagement, we have come to understand an implied theory of change central to the architecture of the evidentiary framework demonstrating institutionalization. We have found that sharing this theory of change has proved useful for campuses that are advancing community engagement and seeking classification. In this piece, we reflect on our experiences with the elective community engagement classification and draw on the literature on the origins and purpose of the classification to understand both what it suggests about how change takes place in institutions of higher education, and what the logic behind the framework reveals about an implied theory of change. We have found that sharing our understanding of this theory of change has been helpful for campuses as they strategize about deepening community engagement. It can also be of use when completing an application for the classification.

A New Classification

The Carnegie Classification for Community Engagement emerged as part of a growing community engagement movement in American higher education, which, by the late 1990s, was seeking greater legitimacy through recognition by established higher education power brokers. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching responded to the call from college and university presidents expressed in the *Campus Compact Presidents' Declaration on the Civic Responsibility of Higher Education* (2000) by providing “a classification system maintained by an independent, reputable agent” (McCormick & Zhao, 2005, p. 53). The presidents were seeking recognition and legitimacy for their campus community engagement efforts, while the Foundation was seeking more: a classification that would encourage innovation and improvement in the core academic functions of higher education. The Foundation wanted a classification that would serve to break from the use of classification for purposes of creating hierarchies and rankings. The community engagement classification was intentionally “designed to: 1) Respect the diversity of institutions and their approaches to community engagement; 2) Engage institutions in a process of inquiry,

reflection, and self-assessment; and 3) Honor institutions' achievements while promoting the ongoing development of their programs” (Driscoll, 2008, p. 39). Seeking to “honor achievements while promoting ongoing improvement” (Driscoll, 2008, p. 40) of community engagement is central to the aim of catalyzing transformational change on campus.

The Community Engagement Classification had been piloted in 2005 under the Foundation leadership of President Lee Schulman and the direction of senior scholar Amy Driscoll. It was one of what were anticipated to be a series of “elective” classifications offered by the Foundation (only one was developed, the Community Engagement Classification). Until the creation of an elective classification, the only classification offered by the Foundation was “The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education,” sometimes referred to as the “basic” classification, a classification taxonomy that had been started in the early 1970s as a way of understanding the diversity of institutions that make up the totality of higher education institutions in the United States. The basic classification was (and is) “based on secondary analysis of numerical data collected by . . . the U.S. Department of Education, The National Science Foundation, and the College Board” (McCormick & Zhao, 2005, pp. 55–56) as a way to “describe, characterize, and categorize college and universities” (McCormick & Zhao, 2005, p. 53).

The elective classifications were intended to be complementary to the basic classification, allowing campuses to elect to claim an institutional identity associated with innovation: for the community engagement classification, campuses could claim an institutional identity associated with high standards of community engagement. For example, a state public university might have a basic classification as a “Masters High Enrollment” campus, which would not reveal a commitment to community engagement; but, with the elective classification, the same Masters High Enrollment campus could also claim an institutional identity as a community-engaged campus.

A major difference between the basic classification and new elective classification was that instead of relying on self-reported data to secondary organizations, the Community Engagement Classification relied on evidence provided through an application in

which campuses are required to document their community engagement commitments, activities, resource allocations, and infrastructure. As Driscoll (2008) explained, “unlike Carnegie’s other classifications, which rely on national data, its new, voluntary classifications such as community engagement are designed to work based on documentation provided by the institution” (p. 39). In this way, the new voluntary classification works on a self-study model similar to an accreditation process. The self-study of community engagement can lead to a kind of certificate of approval by the Carnegie Foundation.

However, the documentation used for the voluntary classification was secondary to its larger purpose. The Foundation’s goal with the community engagement classification, as an “extension and refinement of its classification of colleges and universities” (Driscoll, 2008, p. 41), was to encourage change on campuses that would improve teaching and learning and advance mission fulfillment of the public good purpose of higher education. The basic classification, in contrast, was not designed to encourage change. At the Foundation, there was “a concern about the inadequacy of the [basic] classification for representing institutional similarities and differences and its insensitivity to the evolution of higher education” (Driscoll, 2008, p. 39). Instead of encouraging change, the basic “classification . . . [tended] to be retrospective . . . and is static, rather than dynamic” (McCormick & Zhao, 2005, p. 53). As Alexander C. McCormick, a senior scholar at the Carnegie Foundation at the time the community engagement classification was established, and Chun-Mei Zhao, a researcher at the Foundation, observed, “a special irony of the [basic] Carnegie Classification . . . is the homogenizing influence it has had, as many institutions have sought to ‘move up’ the classification system for inclusion among ‘research-type’ universities” (McCormick & Zhao, 2005, p. 52). Applied in this way, “significant problems arise,” they observed, “when classification is seen as an adequate representation of an institution’s identity or character” (p. 55).

As McCormick and Zhao (2005) noted, “classification and identity are easily confused” (p. 55). The basic Carnegie Classification was reifying a status quo refracted through the lens of prestige that reinforced striving toward a narrow form of

excellence and a single institutional model defined by the research university. This was happening regardless of the Carnegie Classification, but the classification was exacerbating the problem. Donald Schön, part of the Foundation’s brain trust in the 1980s and 1990s, claimed that

all of us who live in research universities are bound up in technical rationality, regardless of our personal attitudes toward it, because it is built into the institutional arrangements—the formal and informal rules and norms. . . . Even liberal arts colleges, community colleges, and other institutions of higher education appear to be subject to the influence of technical rationality by a kind of echo effect or by imitation. (Schön, 1995, p. 32; see also Saltmarsh, 2011)

Ernest Lynton, also a colleague at the Foundation in this era, saw the iron grip that striving for a narrow organizational model, shaped by the prestige of basic research, had on nearly every aspect of the university, including its fundamental purpose, the role of faculty, faculty rewards, a cult of specialization, undergraduate education, teaching and learning, questions of impact, and the public relevance of the university. Lynton observed that “as long as research is viewed as the paramount measure of both collective and individual esteem and advancement, an institution will lack the flexibility of deploying its resources in an optimal fashion to meet its multi-dimensional and complex mission” (Lynton, 1983, p. 18). This narrowing of faculty work not only defined research, it “dominated all of our teaching” (Lynton, 1983, p. 22), such that “all else,” wrote Lynton, “was seen as peripheral and largely irrelevant” (Lynton, 1990, p. 4). This created a narrowly focused research culture at the core of what Eugene Rice (1996) would call the “assumptive world of the academic professional” (p. 8; see also Saltmarsh, 2011, 2016).

For campuses, of any institutional profile, that wanted to clarify institutional identity and mission in ways that distinguished the institution and reshaped the academic core around engagement with the local community, the basic classification not only overlooked essential characteristics and practices, but perhaps undermined any

movement toward a different kind of excellence by reinforcing striving toward a restrictive research model. The Community Engagement Classification allowed campuses to claim an institutional identity around community engagement through a classification that was (and is) based on “the best practices that have been identified nationally” (Driscoll, 2008, p. 40). Since it was first offered in 2006, there has been a demonstrated “eagerness of institutions to have their community engagement acknowledged with a national and publicly recognized classification” (Driscoll, 2008, p. 39).

The complexity of institutional identity requires a nuanced and contextual set of measures. In their analysis of the Carnegie Community Engagement framework, Benneworth et al. (2018) noted that community engagement activities and commitments, “because of the huge diversity and diffuseness of their nature, their often informal character and their stubborn resistance to being reduced to a small number of summative variables” (p. 32), do not lend themselves to performance indicators based on statistical control measures. Community engagement “covers such a wide range of activities that it is impossible to generate simple headline metrics that would cover the definition in a satisfactory manner” (pp. 76–77). The Carnegie Community Engagement Classification design requires “a more nuanced approach in which these complex processes were compared with other similar organisations to understand whether performance was as good as might reasonably be expected, i.e. a benchmarking approach” (pp. 76–77). It does not

provide inter-institutional comparisons and therefore remains context-specific: each institution is assessed independently. The advantage of such an approach is that it provides recognition for excellent performance (and therefore provides an incentive for achieving such a level of performance) without the negative implications of providing results in the form of a league table. (p. 123)

The documentation framework that makes up the application asks for self-reported evidence, contextualized to the individual campus and its communities, that is heavily descriptive. Not unlike an accreditation

self-study, the classification is anchored in the context shaped by campus mission and seeks evidence from areas across the campus so as to constitute an institutional assessment of community engagement. A common practice is to form a cross-institutional team that gathers evidence, organizes it in a coherent way, and reflects on its meaning. Also, as with accreditation standards, standards related to best practices of community engagement are refined over time, reflecting changes in the field. Institutions evaluate various aspects of their processes in relationship to standards of best practice. It is not an approach that creates a hierarchy or levels of classification (there are no tiers of classification—campuses either have the classification or they don’t), although any classification sets up potential prestige seeking.

Creating Campus Change

Creating an institutional identity around community engagement is viewed as a means toward aligning campus culture, structures, and practices across an institution. Driscoll (2008) wrote that “this kind of alignment is critical if a significant change in mission is to be sustained and should be the goal of institutions that are in the early phases of community engagement.” This alignment, starting with campus mission, “can also serve as the object of self-assessments as more advanced institutions mark their progress and identify areas for improvement in their commitment to community engagement” (p. 40).

Although the Foundation made it clear that a goal of the Community Engagement Classification is campus change, it was less explicit in how it conceived institutional change or how it theorized the way change would happen in institutions of higher education. It may, however, be possible to reveal, based on widely read literature at the time and the subsequent purpose and design of the classification, an underlying theory of change.

In 1998, under the auspices of the American Council on Education, Eckel et al. published results of a multiyear study of change at a diverse group of 26 colleges and universities. Although they recognized that change was always happening to some extent, they focused their attention on what they called “transformational change.” What they labeled “transformation” assumed

that college and university administrators and faculty will alter the way in which they think about and perform their basic functions of teaching, research, and service, but they will do so in ways that allow them to remain true to the values and historic aims of the academy . . . they will change in ways that are congruent with their intellectual purposes and their missions. (p. 3)

They concluded from their study that there was evidence of campuses transforming themselves in three defined areas: one was what they called “putting learning first” (p. 7; or, drawing on Barr and Tagg’s seminal 1995 article, being student-centered, or improving teaching, learning, and assessment); a second was in the area of “making higher education more cost-effective and affordable” (p. 8); and a third was “connecting institutions to their communities” (p. 7). Regarding the latter, they wrote,

because higher education is a public good and fulfills a public function, institutions form intentional linkages with their communities. The activities of the academy address a range of public needs, including the needs of students, the tuition-paying public, the employers of future graduates, the beneficiaries of research, scholarship, and service, and society as a whole. Communities may be local, national, or international, and most institutions interact with multiple communities. (p. 7)

Further, they found that “these connections can contribute to the reshaping of institutional practices and purposes” (p. 7). Engaging with communities could be transformational.

One indication that this study shaped the conception and design of the Community Engagement Classification is that when the Carnegie Foundation first explored a series of elective classifications, the first two that were proposed were a classification around teaching, learning, and assessment, and a second around community engagement. Further, the way Eckel et al. conceived institutional change and how it happens is mirrored in the design of the classification.

The classification framework, in its origi-

nal form, was organized into three sections: Institutional Culture and Commitment, Curricular Engagement, and Outreach and Partnerships. Institutional culture and commitment were labeled the *foundational indicators*, meaning that they were literally foundational to institutional engagement. Thus, the classification is focused on institutional culture. At the center of institutional culture is the academic core. In the design of the classification framework, curricular engagement is structured as the center of the application.

“Transformation,” Eckel et al. (1998) explained, “changes institutional culture . . . [it] touches the core of the institution” (p. 4). Transformation, they found, “requires major shifts in an institution’s culture—the common set of beliefs and values that creates a shared interpretation and understanding of events and actions. Institution-wide patterns of perceiving, thinking, and feeling; shared understandings; collective assumptions; and common interpretive frameworks” (p. 3). The key components of transformation are that it “(1) alters the culture of the institution by changing select underlying assumptions and institutional behaviors, processes, and products; (2) is deep and pervasive, affecting the whole institution; (3) is intentional; and (4) occurs over time” (p. 3).

The classification’s foundational indicators closely reflect this framing. For example, in regard to the first component (culture), the foundational indicators ask for evidence of change in the faculty promotion and tenure guidelines (a key artifact of academic culture) in ways that support community engagement by faculty across research, teaching, and service. Regarding the second component (institution-wide), the classification is not aimed at a program or a unit of the campus, but the campus as a whole. For the third component (intentionality), the classification seeks evidence of, for example, community engagement being integral to the strategic plan for the campus. And for the fourth component, because culture change is not something that happens quickly or easily, the classification is structured in a way that seeks evidence for movement toward change when actual change has yet to be implemented, for example, in the evidence provided on changes in promotion and tenure policies.

The classification design also reflects the understanding that transformation is both

Table 1. Matrix of Transformational Change

		Depth	
		Low	High
Pervasiveness	Low	Adjustment (1)	Isolated Change (2)
	High	Far-Reaching Change (3)	Transformational Change (4)

Note. From Eckel et al., 1998, p. 5.

deep and pervasive. “These two basic elements of change—depth and pervasiveness—can be combined” (Eckel et al., 1998, p. 5) into a matrix of different kinds of change (Table 1).

Using this matrix as a guide, the classification framework allows campuses to evaluate the degree to which their community engagement efforts are both deep and pervasive. Eckel et al. (1998) explained the matrix this way:

The first quadrant is *adjustment*—a change or a series of changes that are modifications to an area. One might call this “tinkering.” . . . changes of this nature are revising or revitalizing, and they occur when current designs or procedures are improved or extended. An adjustment may improve the process or the quality of the service, or it might be something new; nevertheless, it does not drastically alter much. It doesn’t have deep or far-reaching effects. The second quadrant, *isolated change*, is deep but limited to one unit or a particular area; it is not pervasive. The third quadrant is *far-reaching change*; it is pervasive, but does not affect the organization very deeply. The final quadrant is *transformational change*. Transformation occurs when a change reflects dimensions *both deep and pervasive*. (p. 5)

Based on the evaluation of hundreds of classification applications over multiple application cycles, a general observation can be made that campuses that locate their community engagement efforts in Quadrants 1 and 2 either (a) do not turn in their application for review (for example, in

the 2015 classification cycle, 241 campuses requested and received the application, and 133 of those campuses submitted the application for review) or (b) are unsuccessful in classification (of the 133 campuses that submitted their applications for review in the 2015 classification cycle, 50 did not receive the classification; in 2020, of the 109 campuses that submitted an application, 65 did not receive the classification). It is primarily campuses that provide evidence of being located in Quadrant 3 with evidence of movement toward Quadrant 4 that are successful in the classification process.

To provide an example of how the dimensions of deep and pervasive can be reflected in an application, a campus may have implemented service-learning through the curriculum. Courses may be in only a few departments, taught by only a few faculty (the activity is not pervasive across the institution), and there is little evidence of sophistication in pedagogical practice (the practice is not done in a deep way). This kind of service-learning can be located in Quadrant 1. Another campus might have highly refined and long practiced service-learning (deep) established in one or two departments, but there is little evidence of it occurring in other majors or undertaken by other faculty (it is not pervasive across the institution). This kind of service-learning can be located in Quadrant 2.

A campus may also have spread the service-learning widely across majors and departments, with many faculty teaching service-learning courses (pervasive across the campus), but the evidence provided in the application indicates that the practice is vaguely defined and lacking in quality standards or appropriate faculty development to build capacity for quality service-learning (it lacks depth). This kind of service-

learning can be located in Quadrant 3. The classification is designed for campuses to provide evidence that community engagement is both deep and pervasive across the campus (Quadrant 4, or evidence of moving toward Quadrant 4, recognizing that complete transformation is an aspiration difficult to reach). Campuses that provide this documentation through their applications are the ones that are classified as community engaged.

Additionally, the understanding of transformational change in higher education reflected in the classification framework is grounded in the view that change in institutional culture comes through change in academic culture. Neither Eckel et al.—nor the classification framework—is explicit about this, but implicit in the design of the framework is the position that change comes about through change in academic culture. To be more specific and explicit, the original design of the classification framework reflects the assumption that change comes about through academics, faculty work, and academic affairs. The classification does not suggest that community engagement through student affairs is not an important component of an engaged campus, but it emphasizes academic engagement: curricular engagement (the second section of the framework after foundational indicators), faculty teaching and scholarship, faculty rewards through promotion and tenure, credit-bearing community-engaged courses, departmental engagement, and student learning outcomes. Transformation through community engagement comes about through changing the core academic culture of the institution.

Campuses that make serious, dedicated commitments to community engagement are changing the core culture of their institutions. The process is intentional and strategic, with long-term commitments and formal obligations. It shapes and clarifies the campus identity. For campuses making these kinds of commitments, the Carnegie Classification for Community Engagement provides an opportunity for rigorous self-assessment and public recognition.

Seeking the Classification

The classification application balances institutional burden with proportionate reward. The reward comes in the form of an opportunity for deep assessment of community

engagement activities and recognition for achieving high standards. Key campus leaders (presidents, provosts) seek the Carnegie Classification for a number of reasons, and often for multiple reasons. From the reflections offered in the last section of the application and from conversations with applicants, we have found that the most prevalent is to undergo a structured process of institutional self-assessment and self-study. Putting together an application, gathering evidence and reflecting on it, and understanding the areas of strength and weakness of institutional engagement, is a way of improving practice and advancing community engagement on campus. The application process also serves as a way to bring the disparate parts of the campus together to advance a unified agenda, serving as a catalyst for change, fostering institutional alignment for community-based teaching, learning, and scholarship. At the same time, it allows for the identification of promising practices that can be shared across the institution. Campuses also seek the classification as a way of legitimizing community engagement work that may not have received public recognition and visibility. Additionally, the classification is used as a way to demonstrate accountability, that the institution is fulfilling its mission to serve the public good.

Interest in the classification may be attributable to other factors as well, including (1) an “attitudinal shift in higher education, reflecting a move beyond an exclusive interest in the economic dimension of engagement (in the form of innovation, human capital development), to the broader social role of higher education”; (2) “dominance of an ‘audit culture’ in higher education . . . , resulting in a climate that tacitly accepts the development of accountability tools as a legitimate and necessary way of monitoring an institution’s performance and of demonstrating the institution’s value to its stakeholders”; and (3) market-based incentives, as “institutions wishing to distinguish themselves from their competitors and demonstrate their superior level of performance may be interested in applying such tools” (Benneworth et al., 2018, p. 103).

Across all of the applications, first-time classification and reclassification, the evidence reveals that there are common challenges that campuses face in implementing deep and pervasive community engage-

ment, making it part of the core culture of the campus, fully institutionalizing it. Both successfully classified campuses and those that were not successful receive feedback from the Foundation noting that even among the most effective applications, there are five areas in need of continued development.

One is in the area of assessment. The assessment practices required by the Community Engagement Classification must meet a broad range of purposes: assessing community perceptions of institutional engagement; tracking and recording of institution-wide engagement data; assessment of the outcomes and impact of community engagement on students, faculty, community, and institution; identification and assessment of student learning outcomes in curricular engagement; and ongoing feedback mechanisms for partnerships. This range of assessment purposes calls for sophisticated understandings and approaches to achieve the respective assessment goals. Campuses were encouraged by the Foundation to continue to develop a culture of assessment toward these ends.

A second area is community partnerships. Partnerships require a high level of understanding and intentional practices specifically directed to reciprocity and mutuality. The values, components, and principles of partnerships between those in the university and those outside the university are grounded in the qualities of reciprocity; mutual respect; shared authority; and co-creation of knowledge, learning, goals, and outcomes. Campuses have demonstrated through their applications that they have, by and large, begun to attend to processes of initiating and nurturing collaborative, two-way partnerships and are developing strategies for systematic communication. Maintaining authentically collaborative, mutually beneficial partnerships takes ongoing commitment. Campuses were encouraged to continue their attention to this critical aspect of community engagement.

Third, the need remains for continued attention to developing infrastructure for sustaining and advancing community engagement on campuses. The work has become more complex as community engagement is practiced with more depth and is more pervasive across campuses. The architecture for engagement has to match the commitments to communities, to students, and to faculty scholarly work. In much the same way that

campuses have the position chief diversity officer—a senior leadership role focused on diversity, inclusion, and equity—campuses are seeing the need for a chief engagement officer to lead the campus engagement efforts. Infrastructure has been a focus of campus efforts since the early 1990s, and it remains a critical area of focus today. What the classification refers to as a “coordinating infrastructure” for community engagement is not exclusively about a centralized location where the engagement work of the campus happens. It is a place that facilitates engagement across the campus. A coordinating infrastructure is particularly important for developing a culture of assessment and accountability around engagement work. It is also essential for providing opportunities for building the capacity of faculty through faculty professional development to be effective as collaborators with community partners in their teaching and research. Additionally, with lively, issue-based engagement going in academic departments and interdisciplinary centers, in curricular and cocurricular units across campuses, it may be particularly useful to have a supra coordinating council or group across entities.

A fourth area identified from the review of applications is policies that reward and incentivize faculty work. With regard to faculty rewards for community engagement, it is difficult to create a campus culture of community engagement when there are not clearly articulated incentives for faculty to prioritize this work across the roles of research, teaching, and service in promotion and tenure criteria. When there are not clear incentives, then there are disincentives. Even though these kinds of policy changes can take many years to implement, the classification is looking for evidence of clear policies for recognizing community engagement in teaching and learning, and in research and creative activity, along with criteria that validate appropriate methodologies and scholarly artifacts. The Foundation encouraged campuses that have not yet revised their promotion and tenure policies to initiate study, dialogue, and reflection to promote and reward the scholarship of engagement more fully.

The last area identified by the Foundation in need of ongoing attention is more intentional integration of community engagement with other strategic priorities of the campus. Community engagement offers

often-untapped possibilities for alignment with other campus priorities and initiatives to achieve greater impact. For example, first-year programs that include community engagement contribute to increasing student retention; learning communities into which community engagement is integrated are designed to enhance high-impact learning; diversity initiatives explicitly link active and collaborative community-based teaching and learning to impact the academic success of historically underserved students; and collaborative community-engaged knowledge generation through research is enhanced by attracting, hiring, and retention of underrepresented faculty. The more campuses are intentional about explicitly and concretely connecting community engagement to the strategic priorities of the campus, the greater the likelihood that community engagement will be institutionalized and work to transform the culture of the campus.

Even with these challenges, as of 2020, 359 campuses were successful in achieving the classification. In our view, the power of the Community Engagement Classification is as a tool for change. The documentation framework (application) provides campuses with a blueprint for the long-term institutionalization of community engagement and its alignment across campus programs, units, structures, and policies. It is a tool for improving the central purposes of higher education institutions: the generation and dissemination of knowledge through research, teaching and learning through undergraduate education, and fulfilling a public purpose. The application process is just that—a process. The central focus of the classification is not about being classified, it is about providing an opportunity, on a regular basis, for campuses to examine, assess, document, and reflect on community engagement practice across the campus in order to improve upon and enhance a central purpose of higher education.



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Resourcing Community Partnerships Through Academic Libraries

Benjamin A. Wiggins, Kate Derickson, and Glenda Simmons Jenkins

Abstract

Institutional missions of colleges and universities are increasingly focused on community partnerships: embracing a commitment to conducting research with, rather than simply about, communities. As researchers who have partnered with communities know well, these relationships depend upon both material and informational resources that are not always easy to marshal. In this article, we draw on our recent experience in a “research sprint” to argue that academic libraries and librarians are demonstrably primed to lead universities toward a fuller inclusion of community partners in academic research. We find that academic libraries are uniquely well suited to become a productive force for researcher–community partnership given their expertise in teaching research inquiry skills, facilitating collaborative work throughout the research process, providing space and other material resources for research, and curating the too-often-hidden intellectual resource of research support staff.

Keywords: community partnership, academic libraries, librarians, academic research



Institutions of higher education are under enormous pressure to demonstrate their relevance as politicians look to limit public funding for colleges and universities and roll back agencies that fund government-subsidized research. To communicate their value to legislatures, public colleges and universities have historically highlighted their contributions to workforce development or partnerships with government agencies and corporations. But if our institution—the University of Minnesota—is indicative of broader trends, higher education is increasingly finding value in and providing material support for community partnerships.

In its latest round of funding aimed at advancing the research goals of the campus strategic plan, Minnesota pledged three million dollars for projects under the aegis of the Grand Challenges Research Initiative. This initiative seeks to address critical societal challenges, or “grand challenges,”

with integrative research that includes a substantial community-engagement dimension. These projects ranged in topic from addressing disparities in criminal justice systems to the sustainable management of wild rice. All projects were committed to conducting research with, rather than solely about, communities. Moreover, these partnerships included the priorities of communities that have not historically been represented in university-based research processes.

Doing research with communities raises significant challenges for tenured and tenure-track faculty members balancing increasing workloads (to say nothing of the challenges that precarious and adjunct faculty face doing this work; Wallerstein & Duran, 2010). As federal research dollars dwindle, competition for these funds intensifies. Faculty are encouraged to “do more with less,” a formulation that strains even the most traditional research. Community-

engaged research requires different kinds of resources that may not be easy to come by through mainstream funding sources (Israel et al., 2001).

Effective collaborations require careful attention and time from faculty to develop shared understanding of urgent problems and to develop research that is both relevant to the community and feasible for the faculty member. Rebuilding trust with communities, understandably skeptical of university-based researchers who have studied and pathologized them, requires a welcoming and accessible space for collaboration. Yet lack of access to the internet, printing, and other seemingly mundane issues can make it difficult to participate in campus-based collaborations. More substantively, for community members—whose needs and interests might go beyond what individual faculty can provide—the expertise and knowledge housed in the university can be opaque.

In a time when universities must show increasing relevance to broader publics, how can institutions of higher education foster and support new research-driven collaborations with communities that have not had access to shaping university priorities? Our experience suggests that an organization well positioned for connecting and sustaining community research partnerships already exists within every academic institution: the library.

Libraries act as the foundational link between the public and academic research (American Library Association, 2015). Traditionally that relationship has simply been centered on access—libraries offering the public access to academic research, government documents, and a range of other information (Harris & Weller, 2012). That access mission, however, was only necessarily fundamental to public libraries (Taylor et al., 2019). Academic libraries, on the other hand, have had both explicit barriers (e.g., affiliation requirements for database searching) and implicit barriers (e.g., guarded entrances in buildings set deep inside sprawling campuses). Moreover, sociologist Nicholas Rowland and librarian Jeffery Knapp (Rowland & Knapp, 2015) have drawn attention to the dispiriting fact that the field of engaged scholarship has rarely considered the role academic librarians have or could play in partnering with faculty to meaningfully engage communities. In that research, Rowland and Knapp argue that the

engaged scholarship field tends to envision academic librarians passively as collectors or curators of the products of engaged scholarship (e.g., books and journal articles) rather than as peer colleagues who are scholars in their own right and who are as engaged with their communities as they are with their own research and research support. However, even as academic librarians have long been practicing community engagement, they have not necessarily articulated those pursuits in their own scholarship. But as librarian Pamela Louderback has argued, colleges and universities have increasingly begun to affirm their commitment to community partnership in their mission statements, and “if academic libraries are to help their parent institutions fulfill this mission, our profession must evolve and make adjustments in how we operate” (Louderback, 2013, p. 20). In this reflective essay, we—a faculty member, an academic librarian, and a community partner—reflect on our recent partnership to argue that academic libraries are demonstrably primed to make that shift and lead universities toward a fuller inclusion of community partners in academic research.

The Sprint

In January 2019, the authors experimented with what a community member–faculty member–librarian partnership would produce. Over the course of 3 days, the University of Minnesota Libraries hosted a “research sprint” for six of the aforementioned Grand Challenges Research Initiative teams, including the team led by Kate Derickson (Author 2) and Glenda Simmons Jenkins (Author 3). Developed by the University of Kansas Libraries, research sprints are events in which a research team works directly with a team of librarians in a group space for 3 days of intensive, collaborative research (McBurney et al., 2020; Wiggins et al., 2019). Benjamin Wiggins (Author 1) coorganized the research sprint of Derickson and Simmons Jenkins, which set out to kick off a broad project called the CREATE Initiative. This initiative supports applied research with urban communities traditionally excluded from an active role in the academic research process and is focused on the intersection of environmental and social justice. Through our partnerships with community-based organizations, our work flips the traditional academic model by centering the research priorities of groups

that have not traditionally shaped academic agendas or benefited from the expertise of university researchers.

Although the research sprint we describe here acted as a sort of inauguration of the funded CREATE project, this faculty–community collaboration took years to develop. Derickson has worked with the Gullah/Geechee community—the descendants of Africans who were enslaved along the east coast of the United States—for the last 8 years. Since 2012, Simmons Jenkins has served as a member of the Gullah/Geechee Sustainability Think Tank, itself an innovative approach to community–researcher partnerships designed to mobilize academic research to support the sustainability priorities of the Gullah/Geechee people.

After emancipation, many Gullah/Geechees bought and farmed land on the Sea Islands off the Southeastern mainland United States and maintained a blend of their unique language and culture. In 2006, the U.S. Congress passed legislation designating the Gullah/Geechee National Heritage Corridor from Jacksonville, North Carolina, to Jacksonville, Florida, to recognize and preserve the degree to which Gullah culture was an important part of the coast. In this fast-growing region of the country, environmental degradation and change represent threats to Gullah/Geechee livelihoods, health, and well-being. The Gullah/Geechee Sustainability Think Tank was founded by Queen Quet, the chieftess and head of state of the Gullah/Geechee Nation, as a way to coordinate academic research that would support Gullah/Geechees in their efforts to promote cultural and environmental sustainability. Recently, Simmons Jenkins, Derickson, and undergraduate students from the University of Minnesota have begun to collaborate on a project to discern how infrastructure planning and development is impacting Gullah/Geechees in North Florida. Through that collaboration, Derickson and Simmons Jenkins identified stormwater retention ponds as a form of infrastructure development that appeared to be increasing land takings through eminent domain and creating potential problems for Gullah/Geechees in adjacent communities.

Derickson and her students traveled to the Gullah/Geechee Nation in 2018 to conduct interviews, engage with residents, and see the changing landscape for themselves. Upon returning to campus, much work remained to translate the research and obser-

vations into a format that would be of value to community members and contribute to scholarly research. The Grand Challenges Research Initiative provided funding to advance this work (and more) and to formalize it as a core activity of the CREATE project. As part of that funding package, the University of Minnesota Libraries extended its research sprint opportunity.

Organized by Wiggins and two other librarian colleagues, the research sprint paired Derickson, Simmons Jenkins, and their collaborators (five undergraduates, another Gullah/Geechee community member, and a professor of public policy) with four librarians who possessed relevant subject expertise to work together on foundational aspects of the CREATE project. Although previous iterations of the Libraries' research sprints did not include community partners, in keeping with Derickson's commitment to the coproduction of knowledge, Simmons Jenkins and another community member were invited to join the sprint.

The research sprint provided an invaluable opportunity for sustained exploratory work. The presence of community partners improved aspects of the project's data organization, management, and analysis, sparking innovation in processes and approaches as well as further cementing the project's orientation toward collaborative research. For example, in interview data referred to during the sprint, residents often referred to numerous people and places by colloquial names that were unfamiliar to researchers. Having a community member present during the data analysis proved invaluable in addressing this issue, and allowed for a method of data generation and analysis that would not have otherwise been possible. After the interviews were transcribed, Simmons Jenkins and her fellow community member, who were more familiar with the local place names, used the county website to annotate the interviews with parcel ID numbers. This process substantially enhanced the value and accuracy of the data collected during the field visit.

Integrating community members who lack significant firsthand experience with scholarly research into such a process is not straightforward, but the librarians on the team worked to address these challenges. Drawing on their experience serving unaffiliated patrons from the university's neighboring communities, librarians were able to anticipate and address issues the visiting

community members participating in the research sprint might face. Weeks before the sprint, librarians reached out to the campus Research Computing group to arrange for touchscreen monitors and computers loaded with ESRI's ArcGIS software to facilitate a process of collaboratively annotating street-level views of water infrastructure in the Gullah/Geechee community. Additionally, the librarians preemptively addressed more mundane technological needs such as wifi access, guest logins, and shared file storage. They were also able to curate resources of interest to community members, including access to experts on campus. In this case, utilizing their campus-spanning knowledge of faculty expertise, librarians connected the community members with a professor of bioproducts and biosystems engineering who possessed considerable expertise in stormwater management and stormwater retention ponds.

Perhaps equally valuable was the way the format of the sprint enhanced and cemented the ethos of collaborative research through the facilitation of community participation in the research process. Although the research sprint was a project of exceptional duration and intensity, the support that librarians provide to research teams in these sprints—building research inquiry skills, selecting effective models for research collaborations, offering access to space and research equipment, and connecting researchers and research support staff across the university—is no different from the sort of support they provide every day. For community participants, these direct interactions with librarians, faculty, and students allowed each to become a resource for the other, leading to a mutually beneficial information exchange that also became an incubator for generating ideas. Completing this collaborative exercise in real time and in person, as opposed to across email or social media, eliminated the delay that can come with distance.

This research sprint also provided a valuable reorientation of the research process for all three parties involved. With community members present, contributing to and driving the research process, there was a constant reminder for researchers and libraries that the data does not exist exclusive of the people it has affected. It illustrated how valuable community-based knowledge is to the scholarly research process and to the community collaborators themselves, an

opportunity not often afforded to members of subject communities.

Why Libraries

Libraries are the hub of research activities on college and university campuses, so if researchers are increasingly partnering with communities, these partnerships will naturally intersect with libraries. Through our experience in the research sprint, we identified four features of academic libraries that make them uniquely well suited to become a center for community partnership in research: (1) their skill in teaching research inquiry and information literacy skills, (2) their facility with and knowledge of collaborative work throughout the research process, (3) their access to the university's physical space and other material resources for research, and (4) their extensive, cross-disciplinary knowledge of the university's research environment and research-support networks. Drawing on the literature from the fields of library science and community engagement, we explore these four sites in which academic libraries can strengthen community-faculty partnerships.

One of the core missions of academic libraries is to advance inquiry skills at all levels of research from training first-year students on the principles of information literacy to supporting the most complex reference questions from senior faculty (Association of College & Research Libraries, 2015). Such research inquiry skills were until recently part of the specialized training of postsecondary education, but with the abundance of information via the internet, "the boundary between university [researchers] and the general public is being blurred" (Hang Tat Leong, 2013, p. 220). And, as James Thull argues, some academic libraries such as those at tribal colleges have long been teaching information literacy and research inquiry skills to a diverse set of patrons, making little distinction between unaffiliated community members, students, and faculty—a recognition that all populations require the ability to critically and efficiently research and evaluate information (Thull, 2008). Now more than ever, both university affiliates and community members need access to up-to-date information literacy training in order to navigate knowledge systems and claims of expertise. Since academic librarians have long supported training all levels of researchers, libraries can help community partners of academic

researchers weigh the reliability of open information such as that available on the public internet as well as act as the initial access point for community partners' introduction into the limited- or closed-access research ecosystem of academic journals, scholarly monographs, and physical archives. In this latter space, librarians can provide community members with specific methods to access existing research about or with relevance to their community or project. And the broad information literacy curriculum that libraries already teach can offer community members tools to critically evaluate esoteric scholarship or opaque records. But training community members to navigate and evaluate research material is only a small portion of any research partnership. In fact, researchers should not try to mold community partners into academics themselves, but rather should respect the ways of knowing that community members bring to the research process. Since libraries must serve a population as diverse as the students, staff, and faculty of an entire academic institution, they already cannot espouse a uniform "right way" to research. They instead take a patron-focused approach and work to offer access that is sensitive to multifarious methods of inquiry across their broad user base. Some academic libraries (such as ours at Minnesota) actually provide access to the public and already take into account the needs and practices of community members in the design of the libraries' physical and virtual environments.

Any meaningful partnership with community members transforms academic research from an individual or small-group effort into a collaborative one. Collaboration has long been a concern of engaged scholarship literature, with many in the field theorizing, modeling, and testing collaborative configurations and processes in order to refine and make more equitable dynamics between academic researchers and community partners (Fletcher et al., 2016; Messer & Kecskes, 2008; Williamson et al., 2016). Here too, libraries are poised to contribute. As librarians Janice Jaguszewski and Karen Williams have noted, the role of academic librarians is transforming, so that "establishing collaborative partnerships within and across institutions" is now a critical function of the job (Jaguszewski & Williams, 2013, p. 4). With collaboration comes complexity, and librarianship is adapting with a focus on project management and team dynamics. "Increasingly, librarians are em-

bracing project management to guide their work," write Theresa Burress and Chelcie Juliet Rowell, and "project management skills are now essential for professional librarians" (Burress & Rowell, 2017, p. 301). Having embraced team-based structures and researched their effectiveness for decades now, librarians are equipped to offer guidance on how to coordinate complex projects of large, interdisciplinary, and/or community-partnered research teams (Association of Research Libraries, 1998; Baughman, 2008; Katopol, 2013). Furthermore, because they often hold faculty status themselves, academic librarians understand the pressure of the tenure-and-promotion clock as well as the unpredictable pace of research. Given this similarity, they are well positioned to introduce helpful structure into research projects without unnecessarily bureaucratic steps or an inflexible approach. That is important not only to academic researchers, but also to community partners whose partnership is usually uncompensated and often strained by the competing responsibilities of their other work and homelife, considerations that librarians can help to build into any project management or team dynamics structures they help craft.

Partnerships with community members cannot thrive on goodwill alone. They require material resources in order to function (MacKinnon & Derickson, 2012). As community education scholar Lyn Tett suggests, collaborations between communities and academics require "joint resourcing" from each partner and should even afford one partner the ability to draw on the material resources of the other equitably but directly, meaning that both "surrende[r] a degree of resource control" (Tett, 2005, p. 4). Among the administrative structures within colleges and universities, libraries act largely as a commons through which patrons can directly draw upon the resources of space, technology, and expertise. Libraries' physical environments provide researchers with open or freely reservable space to work. Increasingly, that space is now no longer individual and quiet, but rather is collaborative and encourages active conversation. These spaces are often rich in technology and commonly provide public access to computers with projectors or large monitors, as well as advanced hardware like virtual reality systems and software licenses for needs as diverse as graphic design or statistical analysis. Moreover, users of aca-

demographic library resources are almost always able to draw upon the expertise of service-oriented library staff in order to learn how to best utilize such technologies and spaces. However, the material resources that libraries can provide—space, technology, and proximity to assistance from knowledgeable librarians—are seldom freely available to community members. Most of these resources are open only to community members already in partnership with an academic researcher, and this usually requires the institutionally affiliated partner to mediate access to these resources. Although academic libraries are well positioned to help jointly resource community partnerships with tangible assets, in order to unlock the potential of libraries' resources, parent institutions need to work to make campuses more accessible. For some communities, campuses are physical signifiers of histories of oppression. At large research institutions, the neoclassical architecture of campus malls may act as reminders of the days when an institution performed risky experiments on subjects drawn from communities of color, and the latest and greatest buildings on the campus periphery may be viewed as yet another wave of a university's gentrification of nearby neighborhoods. Smaller colleges may present different but even more challenging barriers, such as a lack of public transit to a bucolic but rural campus. And for a person of color like African American congressman John Lewis—who was denied a library card as a child at his hometown library in Troy, Alabama—libraries can even bring back memories of Jim Crow segregation in which the "access" mission of libraries meant access for Whites only (Lewis, 1998). To overcome these barriers, universities and colleges need to prioritize physical and virtual library access in their broader community engagement plans and find ways to introduce libraries as a welcoming front door of the institution for community members.

Although making the physical structure of campuses more welcoming will take generations, libraries are already breaking down the invisible but pernicious bureaucracy that silos the intellectual resources of campus. Libraries are curatorial by nature. They collect, organize, distribute, and display information of all sorts. They are also central. And through the liaison system that underlies the structure of their organization, they maintain direct lines of access to

each academic department at an institution. With their high degree of connectivity and a mission that centers on making information "discoverable," academic librarians have found themselves with an unrivaled understanding of their institutions while fulfilling the role of curator of the resources—both material and human—within them. This ability of librarians is critical to fostering community member-researcher partnerships since research support services are not the exclusive domain of libraries but are instead scattered throughout the institution and since faculty often lack exposure to (and the time to learn about) the full range of resources at their college or university. For partnerships with community members to flourish, faculty need to marshal the extensive but often hidden research support staff of institutions of higher learning to serve their needs. Just as academic projects without community engagement are dependent on technologists, administrative staff, grant writers, compliance officials, and others who form the personnel infrastructure of research activities on a campus, so too (and perhaps even more so) are projects that cocreate their work with communities. With their extensive connectivity across the institution, librarians are poised to open up access to any given higher education institution's network of research support expertise for both researchers and community members alike.

Given that academic libraries' central position and commitment to equitable support of all research endeavors position them well to welcome and advance the research needs of community partners, academic librarians and faculty should begin such endeavors with the needs of the community in mind. Based on our experience and other academic collaborations, Simmons Jenkins suggests a set of best practices and considerations that faculty, librarians, students, and other research staff can use as a framework before undertaking collaborative research and revisit as a project unfolds:

- Have a cultural sensitivity to the community they are partnering with, asking about and understanding what values and traditions are important or sacred and what rituals or cultural practices they may be asked to observe or participate in. In other words, learn how to show community partners respect and deference.

- Connect with community partners who have the ethics, integrity, aptitude, and skill to represent their communities and to contribute to academic processes. This requires community partners who do not simply align with the perspective of the researcher and who also understand the extent of the commitment being asked of them and their communities.
- Work with community partners to develop expectations about what sort of content will result from their collaboration and how any product that results from the partnership will be designed, edited, distributed, and owned. In this process, both an initial consensus on and regular reconstituting of this agreement are critical.
- Initially and regularly discuss and agree to the collaboration's deliverables and deadlines as well as how these parts of the whole work toward tangible and intangible, mutually beneficial outcomes.
- Understand to what extent the community partner is and is not equipped to act as a liaison with their community—identifying the topics, people, institutions, and other aspects of the community they are comfortable and qualified to engage with or not.
- Recognize the direct costs and opportunity costs of community partner participation and strive to directly cover expenses (rather than reimburse) and fairly compensate effort where possible. Academic research partners should not overlook the incidental expenses related to travel in particular, since some community partners may not have finances for even the smallest expenses incurred while traveling in aid of research.
- Remember that each partner in research claims some “ownership” or investment in its outcomes and should have equal input in how the process proceeds and how research products are delivered.

The Marathon

As our example is meant to illustrate, community-based participation in an explicitly collaborative research process can facilitate improved trust between communities and university-based researchers. Such partnerships can bring about innovations in research questions, methods, and approaches to analysis. They can even open up the resources of universities to broader publics in accordance with their stated missions.

Substantial barriers to developing and sustaining these relationships remain. Libraries, however, are well positioned to address both the development and sustainability of partnerships with communities. Although “research sprints” represent a novel, compressed approach to providing support for faculty–community partner teams, the activities of the sprints are unexceptional—that is, they represent the scholarly support academic libraries provide regularly. Libraries can act as centers for community partners that go beyond their relationship with individual researchers. They can teach research inquiry skills while respecting and learning from the inquiry practices of communities. They can facilitate collaboration by introducing and integrating community members into the research process and by sustaining that support throughout the project. They can provide other material resources for research. And, perhaps most significantly, libraries can provide imperative connections to the expertise networks of colleges and universities’ research–support personnel, marshalling these intellectual resources for both researchers and community partners.



About the Authors

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Glenda Simmons Jenkins represents Florida on the Assembly of Representatives for the Gullah/Geechee Nation and is a member of the Gullah/Geechee Sustainability Think Tank. In 2019 the CREATE Initiative named her a fellow and community-based practitioner for the initiative's Public Policy Think Tank. She holds a bachelor of science degree in journalism from the University of Florida in Gainesville.

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Leveraging Reflective Practice to Advance the Field and Enhance Impact: Learning From Failure and Missteps in Community-Engaged Scholarship

Adam J. Kuban, Jennifer W. Purcell, and Brytnie D. Jones

Abstract

The purpose of this reflective essay is to encourage the discussion of community-engaged scholarship (CES) that does not progress as planned. Insufficient attention is given to lessons gleaned from missteps and outright failures experienced by scholars in the field, which results in a paucity of documented cases and recommendations for improvement. To address this gap in the literature, this article features vignettes from scholars in the field whose experiential wisdom may inform practice for individuals as well as institutional strategies. The authors discuss implications for practice informed by their experience in developing community-engaged scholars and the shared wisdom of the contributors whose experience and failures provide insight for emerging scholars. The essay concludes with recommendations for future research related to how we experience and learn from failure in CES.

Keywords: community engagement, community-engaged scholarship, reflective practice, faculty development, failure



Community-engaged scholarship (CES) is a process involving a variety of contributors, each of whom has their own personality, motivations, agenda, perceived benefits, and anticipated contributions. There may be a shared, common goal, but the route by which it is achieved is not always clear and agreed upon among everyone involved. Even when goals are clearly understood, mishaps, struggles, and outright failures may occur along the way. Scholars commonly describe the process as “messy,” and those who spearhead CES endeavors inevitably experience failure and disappointment at some point. However, faculty and professional staff are typically trained to circumvent failure. We are taught to execute a specific process in order to ensure we achieve the outcomes identified. We have become products of and contributors to a culture of perfectionism in academia that is increasingly risk averse. Despite our training and preparation, many of us have experienced less-than-ideal re-

sults of plans that fell short when executed. In the event of failure, we tend to reframe the experience as best we can, salvaging our results without necessarily elaborating on or even acknowledging the unique difficulties experienced. For example, a basic search for “failure” in the archives from *Inside Higher Ed*, an online trade publication that produces daily opinion essays and news content, revealed 3,414 stories published in this venue in the past 15 years that used this word; however, narrowing the search to “failure” and “community engagement” led to just 12 stories in the same time span. As professionals in the field, we are aware of anecdotal accounts of failures among close colleagues, yet we struggle more broadly as a cross-disciplinary research field to document lessons learned from unsuccessful partnerships and projects.

According to Sutherland (2015), failure and rejection, “while common to the academic experience, are not spoken of or written about often enough” (p. 756). More spe-

cifically, we in the community-engagement realm tend to, at best, attenuate failure in our professional work and, at worst, ignore it. Ironically, in order to transform ourselves and affiliated organizations, especially in the complex context of higher education, we must be willing to embrace the mess and accept that failure is a possibility of community-engaged practice. There is a need for more individuals talking about their personal goals, particularly their failures, and how they reconciled failure with their expectations. “Being flexible and learning from failures will result in positive changes” (Gorski et al., 2015, p. 21). Most of us have read articles that implore us to understand that failure is part of the process—some of us even say it—but do we really believe it? And are we transparent about our own failures as a form of critical reflection meant to benefit our own work and that of others?

We are surprised and disappointed at the lack of conference sessions and articles on the sometimes challenging learning process associated with CES. Collectively, we appear to be focused primarily on our success to the detriment of our own transformative growth gleaned from failures. The goal of this reflective essay is to encourage faculty, partners, and professional staff to create space for openly and unabashedly discussing CES failures—with the intent of learning from each other so that the process may become less taboo and tumultuous. We believe that in order to transform higher education into an environment more friendly to CES, those who practice it must be willing to embrace failure, and the best way to embrace failure is to actually talk about it. Moreover, we believe in the constructive power of reflective practice in generating new pathways toward success in community engagement.

Background and Contributor Recruitment

This reflective essay, including its compilation of individual vignettes, emerged from an informal conversation among colleagues as we discussed challenges we have encountered in our CES and ways in which our experiences could inform professional development for the next generation of community-engaged scholars and practitioners. We invited colleagues who served on a planning committee for a national professional-development workshop to participate and distributed a writing prompt

among those who agreed to participate. Our original intent was limited to sharing our lessons learned at a national research conference; however, we decided to document our experiences in the form of this reflective essay after receiving overwhelmingly positive feedback and encouragement to advance our line of inquiry following the conference panel presentation. Due to the organic and informal way in which the essay came to fruition, we intentionally present it as a reflective essay rather than framing it as a collaborative ethnographic study. Although our process is informed by practitioner-oriented research methods, it was not initially framed as a research study. Specifically, we leverage reflective practice, which is an adult learning and development strategy that supports learning through reflection on practice (Schön, 1983, 1987). The concept is prevalent in professional development settings and is supported by theory and research on adult and experiential learning (see Argyris & Schön, 1974; Kolb, 1984). We therefore offer our discussion and recommendations as insight gleaned from reflective practice that may inform future research on the topic.

A total of nine scholars contributed reflections, including the two lead authors who initiated the call for participation, conducted the literature review, analyzed the reflective submissions, and prepared this essay. Each of the nine colleagues contributed their own personal experiences with failure in a CES-related context to this compilation. We asked that each anecdote, or vignette, contain (1) brief background for context, (2) description of what went wrong (the failure), (3) explanation of the resolution—if there was one, and (4) any questions that stemmed from this failure, which were meant to provoke further consideration and/or discussion. We also requested that each contributor limit their respective vignette to approximately 750 words, which would permit ample space to detail the scenario based on the four prompts yet still allow us to compose an introduction, brief literature review, and a discussion of our reflections.

The nine contributors whose work collectively comprises this reflective essay have extensive credentials. Together, they have devoted more than 33 years’ worth of mentorship experience to graduate students and early faculty selected into the aforementioned professional-development workshop. These contributors have worked

with community partners for various initiatives across the country for an aggregate 111 years. Moreover, they have a combined 86 years of professional service in community engagement and/or community-engaged scholarship, including but not limited to journal reviewing, conference planning, serving on advisory councils, and/or providing presentations at their respective institutions. Finally, most have served on boards for nonprofit organizations in their local communities, enhancing their comprehension of the nuances in a university–community partner relationship. These contributors are faculty, emeritus faculty, professional personnel, and directors of outreach and engagement.

Although their combined credentials suggest expertise in CES activities, it is important to note that each contributor has provided anecdotes of their own experience with failure, suggesting that, even with abundant knowledge and experience, there is always opportunity to learn and improve. As a qualitative exploration of our experiences and subsequent learning, our approach to this project was intended to serve as a self-directed, semistructured professional development exercise for our peer group. It also loosely follows the DEAL model as outlined by Ash and Clayton (2009) as a tactic to guide critical reflection. This essay reflects our scholarly practice and also serves as documentation of our learning and implications for practice. The culminating contribution to the scholarship on engagement is presented to support fellow scholars and practitioners and to inform future research.

Literature Review

In our review of the literature, we found scant evidence of scholarly research that discussed failure in CES endeavors from the perspective of faculty or professional personnel, and those publications that did pertain to failure presented it from a third-person perspective, where they did not experience it personally (Birbeck, 2014; Hinton et al., 2014). This gap in the literature directly reflects the assertion noted by Sutherland (2015) that most failures are kept private. An overview of past research did indicate, however, a plethora of information and discussion concerning the failure of students (Barth, 2018; Liguori et al., 2014; Suhr et al., 2014; Tucker et al., 2014).

Failure among faculty and professional personnel is typically discussed in the context of prevention: best practices to follow and potential barriers to avoid. For example, Birbeck (2014) outlined five poorly planned motives that can lead to failure in health-oriented CES partnerships. Similarly, Weaver et al. (2018), in their own lessons learned from firsthand experience with failure, posited 12 best practices for community partnerships and experiential education. Flicker et al. (2007) identified 18 barriers that, if not addressed and discussed openly in advance, could result in failure, though their barriers pertain primarily to community-based research. Table 1 lists these best practices and barriers for CES practitioners to consider, and collectively they form a baseline typology for prevention of failure in community-engaged endeavors.

These three sources are not meant to encapsulate all considerations and complexities associated with community-engaged initiatives; instead, this table conveys how failure can occur in many different ways and at many different stages. Even the most experienced practitioners—faculty or professional personnel—can and do experience failure. Therefore, more discussion of failure, especially from the firsthand perspective of academics, is needed to fill this scholarly dearth and inform other and new academics (Crabtree, 2013). The exiguity of research about failure in CES confirms that there is a need for more literature and conversations about the importance of talking about failure: “Engagement competencies primarily deal with preparing for, avoiding, and moving past failure” (Gorski et al., 2015, p. 20). We must have the professional fortitude to embrace this fear (Sousa & Clark, 2019), as it is a disservice to the field at large to inadequately address these critical experiences in learning and growth.

Community-Engaged Scholar Reflections

The following nine reflections detail the personal experiences of midcareer and senior community-engaged scholars and practitioners who currently support the development of future community-engaged scholars through national workshops, consulting, and professional development within their respective institutions. Each reflection presents a failure self-identified by the contributor and subsequent learning

Table 1. Guidance for Preventing Failure in Community-Engaged Scholarship

Birbeck’s (2014) poor motives that can lead to failure	Weaver et al.’s (2018) best practices to prevent failure	Flicker et al.’s (2007) barriers to address in advance to prevent failure
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Working without partners doesn’t work • The research mercenary • The project succeeds . . . but at what cost? • The medical tourist • The academic “exchange” program 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Open & authentic communication • Articulated mission • Mutual trust, respect, & commitment • Reciprocal benefit • Joint ownership • Clear expectations • Reflective action • Plan for closure or sustainability • Regular communication between partners • Regular in-person meetings • Employee project engagement • Critical reflection 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of trust & respect • Inequitable distribution of power & control • Conflicts associated with different perspectives, priorities, assumptions, values, beliefs, language • Conflicts over funding • Conflicts associated with different emphases on task & process • Time-consuming process • Community representation & definition • Questions of scientific quality of the research • Proving intervention success • Inability to fully specify all aspects of the research up front • Seeking balance between research & action • Time demands • Interpreting & integrating data from multiple sources • Competing institutional demands • Risks associated with achieving tenure & promotion within academia • Expectations/demands of funding institutions • Political & social dynamics within the community • Deterrents to institutional, community, & social change

and development informed by the experience. A discussion of implications for practice and research follows. For the purposes of critical reflection, we loosely followed the DEAL model, as “originally developed in the context of service-learning” and used in professional training settings by Ash and Clayton (2009, p. 41). This approach consists of three sequential steps: (1) description of experience—for this essay, the experience equates to failure—in an objective and detailed manner; (2) examination of those experiences in light of particular goals—for this essay, our overarching goal is to analyze experienced contributors’ CES failures with an eye toward exposing this taboo; and (3) articulation of learning, including future action that can lead to refined community-engagement praxis. The reflections are presented alphabetically by the contributor’s last name and are not organized by their content. Readers will notice variations in writing style, vantage point, and unit of analysis, which reflects the original reflection prompt provided by the authors. Our observations and recommendations related to these variables are addressed in the following section.

The vignettes illustrate myriad challenges associated with community-engaged scholarship, including its unique complexity due to the variety of stakeholders involved in any given study or project. For example, five vignettes present challenges involving community partners (Foulis, Franz, Kowal, Kuban, and Thomas), whereas four vignettes discuss challenges within the university community with either peers (Mull and Pearl) or stakeholders in a supervisory role (Purcell and Wittman). Interestingly, only three vignettes (Foulis, Kowal, and Pearl) directly address challenges involving students. Regardless of the stakeholder type, the themes of expectations, preparation, strategies for addressing problems, and positive lessons learned from failure were consistent across each reflection. In the section following the contributor reflections, we provide a discussion informed by the aforementioned literature on failure as well as a discussion of implications for practice and future research.

Elena Foulis, PhD
Spanish Senior Lecturer
The Ohio State University

I teach a service-learning course for advanced Spanish majors (“Spanish in Ohio”).

It is a required course for majors who will not be completing a study-abroad semester in a Spanish-speaking country. Over the past 9 years, I have developed sustainable relationships with a broad range of non-profit and government organizations that serve the Latina/o community in the city. One of the major difficulties I have had is making sure that the organizations understand our class goals and objectives. There have been a couple of partnerships that have not continued because of two main reasons:

1. There is little to no engagement with the Latina/o community.
2. There is little to no exposure to the Spanish language, primarily through formal and informal conversations.

Along these lines, students often hesitate to report when this is occurring because they might like the organization, or they feel guilty about no longer working with them once they have made a commitment.

One specific example is a student who was tasked with creating a type of dictionary of terms in English and Spanish. Initially, the student and I believed that his involvement in this project would connect him with the Latina/o community and that he would get to interact regularly with the people and the language. This did not happen. The student enjoyed working on the project, but he knew it was a very large task. When he eventually explained this to me, it was too late to look for a different organization or try to modify his work there. I knew this was not a good partner for our class.

In an effort to lessen the student’s burden and help him complete the work, I recruited two other students who could help with the translating project and requested that the organization allow students to promote their service and explain their mission to the community. Students really enjoyed completing the project and getting to finally reach out to the Latina/o community, the intended audience for the project and for our class goal. I still believe that, especially in comparison to other class peers, the student who initially started working with this organization did at least two times as much work as the others in the class. This is something that I try to prevent because students should be completing a similar amount of work. I decided that before I allow students to work with an organization, I have to share our goals—in person

or via email—to make sure they understand what students need to accomplish and for me to understand how the organization works with the Latina/o community; that is, is it direct or indirect contact? Essentially, if the organization does not provide an organic or semistructured way to engage with the language or the community, we do not form a partnership. This has always been a hard decision to make because many of the organizations do wonderful work, but student learning is at the center of the class.

Nancy Franz, PhD
Professor Emeritus, School of Education
Iowa State University

I had 6 years under my belt as a county-based university Extension faculty when I started working in a new county. I was thrilled to be bringing research-based youth development research and curriculum to rural communities and especially to a Native American reservation. One of my college roommates was a Native American, and I was drawn to the earth-based culture. Each year, I was charged with starting 4-H clubs around the county—a 100-year-old successful research-based youth development model. 4-H clubs are local affiliations of the largest youth development organization in the United States and are facilitated by the publicly funded, university-based Cooperative Extension network. Administrators on campus were especially interested in expanding 4-H to underserved audiences. So, every fall I went to the reservation to meet with the youth leader to urge her to start a 4-H club. Every year she politely turned me down. The fifth year she not only turned me down; she kindly suggested I spend more time on the reservation getting to know the youth and their families to more fully understand their youth development needs.

I was stunned! How could I as a university youth development expert not know what was best for all the youth in my county! This advice went against my training on using research to inform my work and the expert model as Extension's main educational delivery model. I was impatient with the Native people. How could they not see the great opportunity I was giving them and take action? So, in response I decided to re-search my relationship with the tribe. I interviewed a 4-H leader who worked on the reservation and was a member of the tribe. I also talked with Extension coworkers and

others who worked with Native Americans. What I discovered made me take a hard look at myself and made me fundamentally change the way I engaged with others and their communities.

I was seen by the Native Americans as that little White girl who thinks one size fits all! It was also hard for them to trust me because they believed I represented the government—not a big stretch since my office was located in the county courthouse. Most importantly, their experience with universities was that students and faculty would come into their community to conduct research and projects and maybe bring some resources and then leave without much benefit added or even sometimes make conditions worse than before they arrived. So, what was I as a White girl with all this baggage to do? I took the advice of the youth leader and became more involved with the tribe. I joined the food-buying club and helped fill orders at the health department on the reservation. I attended pow wows and camped at the tribal campground. I attended professional development about native culture and relations. I helped a coworker with her program on the reservation and got to know the native leaders. I also started integrating the tribe and tribal land into my countywide youth development programs.

Slowly, requests came to me from the reservation and the school that native students attended for youth development programs. I was finally learning the lessons of leading with the needs of my community partner in my engagement work instead of leading with my needs. I also learned over and over again the value of being patient for the readiness of my tribal partners for me and my resources. When I started learning these lessons, I found it was easy, rather than frustrating, to work in equal partnership with this community. This awareness resulted in hiring them as experts for programs on and near the reservation. With each program we led together, I learned to let go a bit more of my expert stance and to be more open to community engagement as a complex and individualized partnership. I discovered that if we first learned who we are together, then it is easy to stay focused on common goals even if we get to them in different ways!

Many questions have arisen for me from my failure to start a 4-H club on the reservation. Why do we as scholars think we know

what is best for a community that is not our own? How do we best build trusting and enduring relationships with people not like ourselves? How do we discover the history and noise behind the work we want to do to discover important perceptions, norms, and values that impact the work? How do we mesh the needs of our community partners, the needs of the university, and personal needs, especially when they seem to differ greatly? For me, I have found listening, hearing, watching, discussing, knowing, and setting common goals before taking action—even though this takes time—is critical for successful community–university engagement. It really is not about me—it is about the communities I work with!

Monica M. Kowal, PhD
Lecturer III and Associate Dean of Community Engaged Research
University of New Mexico

The Office of Community Engaged Learning & Research (CELR) at the University of New Mexico (UNM) fosters quality experiential learning opportunities for students, supports faculty with their community-based teaching and scholarship, and facilitates mutually beneficial campus–community partnerships. In the fall of 2015, CELR was approached by one of our campus partners in Student Support Services who had been working with a local nonprofit agency whose mission was to develop mentors and tutors to work with third-grade students within the public school system.

As CELR had already developed a two-semester course sequence on leadership training, it was agreed that we would use those classes as for-credit options for students who wanted to join the corps of mentors. The agreement was that the nonprofit agency would be responsible for recruiting students from UNM, as well as our local community college and a private 4-year liberal arts college located 50 miles north. The agency would also pay for and conduct background checks needed for mentors to work within the public schools. CELR would develop the curriculum for the courses based on the agency's training framework (which lacked detail and specific student learning outcomes), and our office would fund and train instructors to teach the two three-credit courses. Students who wanted to become tutors would have to take the courses in order to be certified to work with students in the three pilot public schools.

Although we did develop a memorandum of understanding with the nonprofit agency outlining what each of our respective responsibilities and commitments were, nothing prepared my office and staff for the unforeseen issues that began to arise as soon as the classes began. The courses were listed as enrollment with instructor permission only, which means that the instructor of record would have to approve each person who wanted to enroll in the class. This was done in order to ensure that all students enrolled had gone through the agency's recruitment and background check processes. Prior to the class beginning, there were only eight students enrolled. This was far below our minimum enrollment for a class to "make" for the semester, but as we were just getting this program off the ground, we made a special exception.

However, there were 21 students in the class on the first day of school. I double-checked our registration system and still saw that only eight were officially enrolled. I assumed that perhaps students had not yet enrolled, so I opted to wait the full week to let the registrants get settled. In the second week, however, the situation had not changed. Twenty-one students were showing up to the class, but only eight were officially registered. I asked the instructor to collect information from the students who were not registered so that I could figure out the discrepancy. As it turns out, the recruitment officer for the nonprofit agency had been telling potential mentors that they did not have to register for the class—that they could just go and sit in and get the certification. Needless to say, this was an unexpected and misguided statement by the partner. In no way would my university allow nonregistered students to be taking classes without registering and paying tuition. When I approached the partner agency about this, the director was genuinely surprised. From his point of view, he did not charge for training his mentors, so why should they be required to pay tuition?

The issue of the unregistered students was dealt with, but suffice to say, the damage had been done. It was clear from this point forward that the needs and operating ethos of the nonprofit did not align with the needs and operating ethos of the university. Although we could have certainly worked through these issues, as time progressed the director of the nonprofit started to make requests that we simply could not meet.

After several other miscommunications and overstepping of agreed responsibilities and commitments, we eventually ended our relationship with the agency and dissolved our MOU.

In retrospect, the needs of the partner agency were not immediately transparent—not because they were being secretive or dishonest, but because the evolution of the agency was not yet fully realized. Also, as a new and growing nonprofit agency, they misunderstood the structural limitations and policies that guided our practice as an institution. A more fully fleshed-out MOU was certainly needed, and more planning and preparation was needed prior to the students' enrolling in the class. This would have certainly ironed out the issues that arose and would have also more clearly laid out the restrictions and barriers that each partner faced. That said, we acknowledge that sometimes the favorability and the timeliness of the opportunity does not always serve the best interest of either party in the relationship.

Adam J. Kuban, PhD
Associate Professor, College of
Communication, Information and Media
Ball State University

Facing Addiction in East Central Indiana is a project under its national, nonprofit umbrella (The Facing Project) that aims to tell the stories of those who struggle (in)directly with addiction and to create ongoing dialogue about the topic: how individuals cope, how medical personnel address and treat it, how family and friends support those who struggle, and why it is important to share one's personal story with the community.

This iteration represents collaboration among The Facing Project's cofounders, a community task force, an integrated care facility, an addiction treatment program, undergraduate students at Ball State University, and residents throughout Central Indiana. To date, The Facing Project has spread to over 75 communities nationwide, resulting in more than 20,000 books centered on hyperlocal issues such as autism, depression, and poverty. Student writers knew their interviewee (or storyteller) by the end of September 2016, reading related literature about the topic before that time. Interviews occurred through the end of September and into October, with a draft of the written stories submitted in early November. Our community partners, co-

founders of The Facing Project, and I offered content edits for the students. Their revised stories were submitted in mid-January 2017 to allow for ample time to create the book, publish it, and make abundant copies by the first of two community debuts on March 30. The second community event occurred on April 12, meaning this community-engaged project spanned an entire academic year.

Some students, typically those with public relations and advertising majors, contributed to the publicity and planning for *Facing Addiction in East Central Indiana*. They were responsible for the creation of press releases, event flyers and programs, and event promotion via buttons, stickers, and business cards. The 47-page book—*Facing Addiction in East Central Indiana*—debuted at the Public Works Building in Anderson, Indiana, on March 30, 2017, via a live monologue and multimedia event; the second event occurred at Cornerstone Center for the Arts in Muncie, Indiana, on April 12, 2017. For both, we arranged for expert panelists to discuss and interact with those in attendance. Panelists included county sheriffs and prosecutors, legislative district council members, and community partner contacts. The purpose of the book was to inform and educate readers about the struggles and difficulties associated with addiction, a disease that afflicts many. The primary purpose of the community events was to share these local stories, promoting further awareness about this often-misunderstood topic.

Coordination presents a major challenge to a project like this: keeping track of writers' interview progress, encouraging storytellers to reply promptly, planning photo shoots, working with the student designers—and this is just for the resultant book! Even more coordination is required to track progress for all multimedia deliverables as well as the eventual community event. Securing commitments from our aforementioned panelists also presented challenges. Two of our community partners contributed financially—but in different amounts—toward the publication expenses associated with book copies. When we began the project in fall 2016, I was under the impression that we had the same objective: to inform and educate. And I truly believe that all partners maintained that overarching goal through the duration of the project; however, once money became involved, I had to mediate a “size issue” between the two partners who had monetary investment in the final look

of the book.

In short, the partner who, on behalf of their organization, had contributed more dollars toward the copies and distribution of the resultant book wanted a larger company logo on the inside front cover of the book. The other partner who had financially contributed, albeit in a smaller amount, objected to this. I found myself in the middle, particularly because I had not clearly outlined what each partner would get as a result of their monetary contribution. In other words, we had no written agreement, or contract, to resolve this problem.

Fortunately, I was able to reiterate the broader goal of the project and convince them to look beyond the “size issue” that created the conflict. In the end, we settled on an oral agreement where the partner who contributed more had a company graphic that occupied 2/3 of the inside cover of the book, and the other partner who contributed less had an image in the remaining 1/3 of the available space. All community partners, including those who were not able to financially contribute, were listed at the back of the book.

As a faculty member, I am not explicitly trained in project management, so I had not focused on the contractual details that could have circumvented this problem/failure. How do we best prepare future faculty, especially those entrenched in engaged, project-based settings, to draft such contracts? And do we allocate ample time and discussion toward conflict-resolution skills?

Casey D. Mull, PhD
Assistant Director of Extension
Purdue University

Armed with an undergraduate degree from a top 20 university, I was knowledgeable (overly so), well equipped, and excited in my first job. I was working as an engagement practitioner within the Cooperative Extension Service, the adult education organization that transfers the innovations of the land-grant universities to clientele through not-for-credit classes, workshops, and technical assistance (Mull et al., 2018). The Cooperative Extension System and the U.S. Department of Defense initiated a partnership in the late 1980s (Cox & Long, 1986; Elrod, 2010). The global war on terror was ramping up and I had been hired to be one of the first individuals dedicated solely to supporting military audiences through

youth development programming. The role served 12 military installations statewide as well as the county extension faculty members working with military-connected audiences through their own programming.

Being new and the first in my position, I met with all the major stakeholders, including individuals at each military installation who might gain from the workshops Cooperative Extension could offer. Within the first 6 months, I convinced my supervisor to open a training opportunity to these military civilian staff members, a training typically internal for Cooperative Extension employees. This opportunity would extend our programming to allow the community partner to expand our outreach through the community partner’s network.

Grant funding supported the registration fees for these community partners to attend. I had worked with university staff as well as military community staff to share costs, being transparent and maintaining open lines of communication. The organizational systems to register and communicate with these external clienteles were adapted. I navigated the hierarchical military travel approval system with success. These professional development offerings differed greatly from the on-installation training offered by the military itself.

Six staff members from two installations were set for the 3-day training for all new county faculty members at a residential university facility. They would arrive at the same time, learning side-by-side with their university counterparts and partners. I would complete a concurrent session the final day of the three-day training to focus on specific content related to the university–community partnership. On the morning of all of the attendees’ arrival, I had a frantic phone call from my coworkers coordinating registration—the military staff members were upset and demanded to speak with me.

I had arranged for the community members to have the nicest accommodations at the university facility. The six military partners would be housed in hotel-style rooms, each with two beds. This was different from the other facilities, where university staff members would be in cabins with eight bunk beds and shared bathrooms. I assumed that offering the nice accommodations to the military partners as guests would be much appreciated by the military

community partners. Within Cooperative Extension, it is not uncommon to share a room, particularly at this university facility. Unfortunately, sharing a room with co-workers was against all military norms and culture, in direct conflict with Cooperative Extension/university culture. Unless the military partners all had individual hotel-style rooms, they could not participate in the three-day training and would return to their worksite.

The situation did come to a partial resolution. I quickly secured additional hotel rooms off-site for each of the military community partners. This additional cost led to some university frustration but saved the damaged relationship. The military partners explained that their organizational policies prevent their staff members from sharing rooms. I had to smooth over the matter with my own university colleagues who thought the military staff members were ungrateful—they had been offered the best accommodations and found them unsatisfactory.

Weerts and Sandmann (2008, 2010) and others (Adams, 2014; Mull, 2016) highlight the importance of boundary spanners to help navigate some of these differences. Boundary spanners “act as knowledge and power brokers between university and external partners” (Weerts & Sandmann, 2008, p. 86). On the university–community dyad, the university did not understand the organizational policy and the military did not understand the organizational norm. I incorrectly believed that I understood the organizational culture. I only had a cursory understanding of the military needs based on my initial conversations. When I did not fully understand the military travel policies, it resulted in failure. I had risked the success of the partnership—as the military staff members were prepared to return to their installations and not participate in the training. In retrospect, I had been too eager to force the military partners’ needs into the university opportunity. A boundary spanner would have brought all perspectives to the table and perhaps would have cocreated a new professional development program rather than forcing the military partner into a university opportunity that was not developed around their needs and expectations.

Drew Pearl, PhD

Director of Community Engagement Research and Publications
University of Alabama

At a previous institution, my responsibilities included working with faculty members who expressed an interest in adding service-learning to their teaching. Among the strategies to accomplish this was a year-long professional development cohort that included monthly topical workshops and individual coaching sessions. Participation in this particular program required an application that included a teaching philosophy and specific statement of interest in utilizing service-learning in the classroom. The faculty member in question was approved by the selection committee to participate in the program based on an apparently genuine desire to have students learn their academic material through participation in a service-learning activity that addressed an identified community need in an accounting course. The proposed activity was to partner with Volunteer Income Tax sites to prepare tax returns for individuals who would not be able to hire a professional tax preparer.

It did not take long for issues to begin to emerge. The faculty member (FM) was the only member of the cohort not to respond to emails to schedule times for the group to meet and would rarely attend meetings. When we were finally able to connect for an individual coaching session, another issue emerged. Despite expressing an interest in working through Volunteer Income Tax sites in the application for the program, FM instead wanted students to provide tax services to wealthy individuals because that would be more interesting for the students. I tried to work with the faculty member and help them understand how service-learning should address an identified community need and help students develop an “enhanced sense of personal values and civic responsibility” (Bringle & Hatcher, 1995, p. 112), explaining that by working with clients of a Volunteer Income Tax site, students would be able to demonstrate their learning by helping individuals learn about the process. Volunteer Income Tax site work would have the added benefit of exposing the students to the broader context of how difficulties in navigating the tax code can directly impact people in their own community. My suggestions were often dismissed because I “didn’t understand how things worked.”

The situation did not really resolve; it essentially fizzled out. I spent a great deal of time emailing and otherwise reaching out to FM to try and reschedule coaching sessions and make-up meetings and provide resources that I thought would be helpful. Responses from FM were infrequent at best, and eventually stopped completely. Because FM did not fulfill the requirements of the program, they did not receive a completion certificate for inclusion in their promotion and tenure dossier.

A major takeaway from this experience is a reminder not to fall victim to the sunk cost fallacy, which is the psychological concept that suggests people tend to continue an endeavor once an investment of money, effort, or time has been made (Arkes & Blumer, 1985). I know that it is important to remember that service-learning is not going to be an appropriate pedagogical approach for every faculty member, but because FM had initially expressed a genuine interest in learning more and connecting students to identified community needs, I thought it was my responsibility to make every effort to connect and “win over” FM, even when, in retrospect, the signals were fairly clear that there was a mismatch between FM’s goals and the purpose of the cohort program.

Jennifer W. Purcell, EdD
Associate Professor of Political Science
Kennesaw State University

My research as a community-engaged scholar explores scholarship on engagement, including faculty and organization development to support the institutionalization of community engagement, and typically involves faculty and community partners with both the institution and community serving as partners. In this action-oriented, applied research, I function as content expert, facilitator, and researcher, with the roles often blurred. Acknowledging the blurring of these roles and my intention to transition between these roles is critical to successful execution of learning and change intervention and my research. My first study of this type also revealed the importance of negotiating and clearly outlining expectations regarding the roles and my transition out of the unit or organization. This experience also highlighted the importance of effective communication techniques and strong interpersonal skills in this work.

My first failure that significantly informed my practice and approach to action research involved miscommunication between a campus community-engagement leader and me regarding facilitation roles for a faculty development series. As an early career researcher, I naively and eagerly attempted to function in multiple roles simultaneously and unintentionally excluded the community-engagement leader whose engagement would have improved the series of organization development interventions. Specifically, I failed to step back as content expert and emphasize the role and expertise of the campus community-engagement leader who would continue supporting the faculty participants long after I completed the study. Unbeknownst to me, the issue came to a head, and I was called into a meeting with the community-engagement leader and the senior vice-president who had approved my research with the institution. I was blindsided, hurt, confused, and, if I am honest, angry with my institutional partner in how the issue was addressed.

Admittedly, though calm and receptive during the meeting, later in private I was defensive and thought of dozens of different, more acceptable (for me and my ego) ways for the issue to have been addressed. Nonetheless, there remained a legitimate issue with my facilitation approach, and I agreed to more clearly integrate the campus community-engagement leader as a cofacilitator and to defer to them as the internal resource. The study continued and was quite fruitful for the participants, the institution, and my learning and development as a scholar; however, there was an unnamed undercurrent of tension between the community-engagement leader and me that I simply avoided for the remainder of our work together.

With years between this experience and my current practice and a professional and interpersonal maturity that seemingly only comes with the passage of time, I have a greater understanding of the issue and ways in which I could have engaged more constructively with my research partner. Insufficient empathy, lack of understanding, oversensitivity, and my fear of engaging constructively with what I now know is a common, minor conflict led to hurt and resentment that I carried for too long. Thankfully, I now recognize the influence of our full personhood on community-engaged work, the benefits of negotiating

expectations and roles clearly, checking in frequently, and equipping ourselves with conflict negotiation techniques. As we think about best practices and professional development for this work, I wonder how we might better equip students, professional staff, and faculty to engage more effectively interpersonally with university and community partners. Such communication and facilitation skills are fundamental to the success and sustainability of university–community partnerships and can benefit us professionally and personally.

Chippewa M. Thomas, PhD
*Professor and Director of Faculty Engagement
Auburn University*

My experience involved a graduate faculty team at a research-intensive university with no background or experience in community-engaged scholarship that had conceptualized a publicly engaged research project. The project was initially devised to collect data through a local community-based organization committed to improving the health and mental comorbidity outcomes of members of an ethnically diverse community. This data would be analyzed and used to propose action steps that met the identified critical health needs of affected families and individuals living in the community. The faculty team initially approached the community-based organization without much knowledge of the local community demographics or sociopolitical and historical concerns.

The faculty team expressed interest in forming a partnership with the community-based organization by way of a memorandum of understanding (or articulation agreement) that included that they were interested in producing manuscripts for publication from the project and leveraging the data to procure grant funding to support their efforts. The faculty team intended to utilize a community-based participatory approach, which they had little to no experience with, and working in partnership with the community was also new to them. In recent years, faculty who taught at the university had visited and conducted research in the community. University placements for student field experience, internships, co-ops, and course-embedded service-learning activities were also happening in the local community.

Pockets of diminished community trust in the university already existed in the

local community. Although there was a long-standing history of members of the university community engaging community members by way of the local schools, businesses, agencies, and affinity groups, members of the community were skeptical when approached by the members of the university. The faculty team was unaware of the skepticism they were likely to encounter with the community-based organization and of how the (us and them) distrust could potentially impact the work that they were proposing to accomplish. In the first several meetings, an exchange of information did not occur. The faculty team presented as the experts, communicated the project objectives, yet did not ask questions nor demonstrate an openness to learning about what the community was interested in getting out of the partnership. The faculty team did not convey a desire for a cocreation of knowledge and a bidirectional approach, nor did they communicate a desire for reciprocity.

This experience served as a reminder that faculty teams should receive some education and training in community partnership development and engagement practices. Since such training exists at the university and in other spaces, the faculty team could access this information to gain greater understanding and insight into best practices for their intended engagement. The work of partnership formation can be long and require ongoing, consistent communication, negotiation, and planning. Additionally, the faculty team's precontact and initial contact plan should include what they have learned from and about the community. Information gathered from listening sessions can be later used to inform next steps in the process of relationship formation and project planning.

Amanda Wittman, PhD
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Curriculum & Strategy
Cornell University*

My example of failure concerns an error I made as a newly appointed administrator when giving a talk about our campus programs at a conference. In essence, I misconstrued the expectations my vice president had for me, while simultaneously misconstruing the expectations the conference organizers had for my invited talk. I made the wrong choice when presenting, a choice that cost me a great deal of trust with

my supervisors, even as it yielded positive feedback from the conference organizer. Here is what happened.

I was 2 months on the job in a well-publicized, new, campuswide unit for community engagement. I was asked to speak at a statewide conference about a topic of past research, and I was excited to both represent my new university and stay connected to work I had previously enjoyed. My supervisors agreed that I should speak and that my talking points would be on the topic of assessing community engagement, an area I had previously presented on and was comfortable speaking about. I confirmed with the conference organizer and drove to the conference, feeling confident and prepared about my topic.

I was unprepared for how much attention my role was given. In this context, I was not recognized for my own work; instead, I was a clear and visible representative of my university and the initiative that we were embarking upon. I was moved on the agenda to a keynote slot at the end of the day and asked by the organizer to reflect on and wrap up the conversation that had occurred, while also sticking to my main theme of assessment. "Of course," I said, feeling like I could hit on many of the main themes that I had heard throughout the day. I presented, with brief notes and with a roving mike, by connecting the importance of assessment as a way to address many of the challenges that we had chewed on together at the conference. I spoke for my 20 minutes, answered a few questions, and was done. The conference organizer came over and told me I did a great job, and that it was a good end to the day.

I left the conference and got on a flight to the International Association for Research on Service-Learning and Community Engagement (IARSCLE), where I connected with colleagues from my office. It was there that I found out that the vice-provost and the faculty director of the program had been watching my talk remotely, and they were unhappy. Very unhappy. I had not stuck to the talking points we agreed on. They thought I had not represented the initiative and our university in a good way. I had not honored the work that my colleagues had put into our initiative, and my speaking was out-of-control, and I was off-message. I was to have a formal reprimand lodged in my file.

I had failed to represent the important work my university was doing to support community engagement in a way that leaders felt was authentic and correct. It was a blow to my confidence and undermined the trust that I was beginning to build with my new colleagues. To resolve this situation, I ate humble pie. I apologized. I accepted that it would be 2 years before I was trusted to be asked to be in that kind of situation, and I have never been asked to represent us at that particular conference again. I also reflected on the ways that my position and title are as important to communicating community engagement as my research and programming skills.

Almost 5 years later, I can recognize the positives that came out of crashing and burning in my first big presentation at this job. I learned that institutionalizing community engagement—as with all aspects of community-engaged work—must be done through relationships. My failure slowed down relationship trustworthiness, although I appreciate my colleagues, even the VP, who acknowledged that although the failure had happened, we could move on from it. It helped us create practices to ensure that the unit was on the same page, and it allowed us all to have a conversation about expectations. I grew as a person, though I work hard not to be in that kind of situation again.

Reflection Summary

These nine reflections illustrate the value of reflective practice in CES, particularly as it helps us create meaning from failures and projects that unexpectedly go sideways. Notably, we each had multiple experiences to choose from and selected a lesson that resonated deeply and significantly impacted our practice as community-engaged scholars. As we endeavor to refine our individual practice, advance the research field, and cultivate organizational knowledge for CES within our institutions and the profession at large, individual reflections such as these provide valuable contributions to our knowledge base. Individual and organizational learning relies heavily, though not exclusively, on experience (Di Stefano et al., 2016); moreover, it is the process of critical reflection that enables us to generate meaning from our experience (Dewey, 1963). Therefore, holding space, or providing the opportunity and encouragement to share vulnerable reflections in a safe environ-

ment (Bell, 2009), is essential to facilitating and promoting learning from failure in CES. We propose that these reflections and our subsequent discussion help to solidify a foundation from which future reflective practice and dialogue may be encouraged.

Discussion and Implications for Practice

As previously stated, the impetus for this essay was to share lessons learned through individual reflective practice and to encourage our colleagues to share examples of failure in addition to our successes. Through our roles as research mentors for graduate students and early career colleagues, we each recognized how receptive our mentees were to lessons learned when projects did not go as planned. Although we were curious to learn the extent to which such experiences had informed our community-engaged practice and scholarship, we also recognize an opportunity for us to model reflective practice, particularly in the vulnerable scenarios in which we were not successful. Ultimately, our goal is to support sustainable, impactful community engagement in higher education. This goal is multifaceted and requires change across multiple levels within our institutions. We need organization norms and performance-related policies that accommodate and value learning from failure; institutional infrastructure and policies to address commonly experienced impediments to successful partnerships; and learning and development opportunities for students, faculty, staff, and community partners. Moreover, the prevalence of similar anecdotal stories suggests inadequate accountability within our practice. That is, we appear to be missing an opportunity to learn from mistakes, document both the failure and improved practice, and disseminate this information such that we advance our individual practice and the field more broadly.

Although our understanding of best practices has expanded since each of our contributors entered the field, there is little indication of what amounts to quality control at the individual researcher level. Institutional review boards theoretically provide oversight and guidance regarding best practices for engagement with community partners in their roles as coresearchers and participants in community-engaged scholarship. Likewise, peer journal and conference-proposal reviewers assist in

maintaining standards for documenting detailed research protocols for studies involving community partners. Most midsize and larger institutions also have a centralized unit to support community-engaged scholarship through professional development options for faculty. Still, the examples provided in the contributor vignettes illustrate how the sum of these efforts remains inadequate. Individually and collectively, we have a responsibility to control for risks and potential in our research and, despite our best intentions and existing support structures, we can and do fall short—potentially at significant consequence to the parties involved.

We believe there are three central implications for practices to be gleaned from the lessons learned by our contributors. First, the need for adequate preparation and ongoing professional development cannot be overstated. Although graduate students remain a target population for these learning interventions, researchers also stand in need of ongoing professional development, including support for involving undergraduate students in CES and service-learning. There is also a need for tailored curriculum for community partners, whose valuable insight should inform these efforts at the local level. Essential to these training and development efforts is consistent monitoring and reporting that includes indicators for quality control. Second, the content for the recommended professional development needs to be carefully reviewed. As our understanding of best practices is further informed by research and awareness of shifting societal contexts, we must ensure that our learning interventions related to CES are responsive to the dynamic needs of our local communities and stakeholder groups. Third, our hope is for this reflective essay to inspire others to reflect on their own professional experiences and conceptualize failure as an empowering, educative experience that has the potential to enhance their practice and help others engaged in CES. In the following sections, we discuss these implications for practice in more depth. Table 2 provides an overview of the guidance we propose for addressing failure in community-engaged scholarship.

Preparation and Professional Development

Consistently, adequate planning and preparation are noted as necessary elements of successful community-engaged projects. This step is necessary for all parties, includ-

Table 2. Guidance for Addressing Failure in Community-Engaged Scholarship

Preparation and professional development	Integrated graduate student education
	Ongoing research development for faculty
	Community partners as coteachers and colearners
Review and revision of best practices	Commitment to continuous improvement
	Engagement of stakeholders in policy and process review
Reconceptualizing failure	Cultivate awareness and address stigma
	Embrace constructive conflict
	Identify dissemination opportunities

ing faculty, staff, students, and community partners. The web of interactions among students, colleagues, administrators, and community partners presents myriad opportunities for misunderstanding and mishaps. Every community-engaged activity follows a timeline of engagement in which likely failure junctures could be identified as well as the actors involved during each phase. Engaging all stakeholders in clearly identifying possible hurdles and preparing is necessary, but it does not guarantee the complete elimination of unforeseen challenges. However, the deliberate process of anticipation, acknowledging what could go sideways, provides alternative strategies and clarifies expectations for the overall project. Establishing expectations for all involved parties coupled with routine, preplanned check-ins helps to clarify the various stages of the project. Such project-management strategies and techniques are fundamental to community-engaged scholarship yet are rarely included in disciplinary-based curriculum. Therefore, universities and research associations have an opportunity to expand their professional-development offerings for faculty.

Likewise, ongoing professional development provides continuous support for CES researchers as they engage with community partners. We were not surprised to find interpersonal and communication challenges in each of the vignettes. Inevitably, conflict eventually emerges in our professional lives, and campus-community partnerships are no exception. Because partnerships involve boundary spanning and increase the likelihood of encountering cultural and organizational differences, conflict is more likely to emerge. While recognizing conflict is

likely, it is equally important to note that conflict is healthy and can be productive and even beneficial when engaged constructively (Runde & Flanagan, 2013). However, there is no guarantee a community-engaged scholar has adequate preparation and experience in conflict management. When misunderstandings, missteps, and mishaps occur, having access to on-demand support can help to deescalate conflict and provide constructive strategies for moving forward. For example, scheduled check-ins or required reporting could aid in addressing problems in a timely fashion and prevent further complication.

Review and Revision of Best Practices

As research mentors and planning-committee members of a CES workshop targeted to doctoral students and early career faculty, the contributors and authors of this reflective essay have observed a marked shift in the knowledge and competencies of our annual cohorts of workshop participants. It is clear to us that as a field of inquiry, community engagement and CES has solidified its position, and its influence has spread. Indicators of this growth appear as more nuanced understanding and articulation of CES concepts, current best practices, and the thoughtful critique provided by novice researchers who are nonetheless steeped in values and conventions of collaboration and partnership for the greater good. As a result of these observations and subsequent discussion, we as a planning committee have refined our workshop content to build upon the substantive foundational levels of knowledge, understanding, and capacity of our participants. Because these workshop participants represent a broad swath of

disciplinary backgrounds and institutional types and sizes, their knowledge of CES indicates an expanded understanding and integration of best practices.

The degree of expertise exhibited by these researchers who would otherwise be characterized as novice, combined with our own experiences in failed CES, suggests a need to review and potentially revise curriculum to reflect our deepening knowledge base that informs CES. This recommendation also acknowledges significant contributions to the literature in recent years. For example, Post et al. (2016) compiled a compelling edited volume of emerging, next-generation scholars whose work is both public-facing and community engaged. Likewise, Dostilio's (2017) edited volume defines a comprehensive competency model for the entire professional field of community engagement professionals who support the work of CES and whose competencies mirror those required for nonadministrative roles involved in CES, such as faculty and graduate students. Moreover, Sandmann and Jones's (2019) edited volume features the revised and expanded 20th anniversary issue of the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, for which a Delphi study was conducted in order to feature the most significant articles in the history of the journal. In sum, the field has expanded, and our understanding has more depth and nuance than ever before; however, there is no guarantee that these updates are equally present in curricula across institutions, as updates and revisions require resources and institutional commitments that are not consistent or guaranteed throughout higher education.

Reconceptualizing Failure

As evidenced in the vignettes, moving on beyond failure in CES takes time. In some instances, years passed before the researcher came to terms with the challenge and fully appreciated the lessons learned. Balancing our subjective reactions with an objective assessment of our failure provides a healthy space to explore our role and contributions. Such critical reflection requires us to examine our assumptions (Knowles et al., 2015). Objectivity allows us to critically reflect on failure and ascribing responsibility, or its origination, and the related thought process. Naming responsible parties and actions does not equate to ascribing blame, which is not helpful. Conversely,

identifying the origination of the failure and the responsible actors allows us to refine future projects and informs possible learning interventions to prevent similar failures in the future.

We noted a reluctance to ascribe even partial responsibility for failures to students and community partners. This hesitancy to not accept responsibility in totality reflects an awareness of the power dynamics of scholar-student and scholar-partner interactions yet is nonetheless problematic in preventing future failures. We educators are likely to accept blame ourselves, which may be warranted, yet it is also possible to have issues originating with students and/or partners, too. Balancing our subjectivity with an objective assessment of our failure provides a healthy space to explore our roles and contributions. Embracing the mind-set of failure equating to learning and program improvement will encourage more thorough and accurate critiques of our work. It is equally beneficial to maintain an optimistic outlook on one's work. Even in the midst of challenge, remembering the beneficial impact of our efforts can help us work through difficulties and sustain our practice, particularly when navigating institutional infrastructure and culture that may inadequately support community-engaged research.

Recommendations for Future Research

This area of inquiry provides a wealth of opportunity for future research, and we believe two specific interconnected threads of potential research warrant further consideration. First, there is a need to further explore how researchers navigate challenges in community-engaged research. In documenting these lessons learned, we can further refine best practices and develop interventions to address inadequate professional development for community-engaged scholars. Such research would have implications for faculty development and support as well as the expanding literature on the needs of graduate students and next-generation scholars (see Overton et al., 2017). For example, targeted workshop series including topics such as effective communication strategies, team building and collaboration, intercultural competence, and engaging in conflict constructively could help develop capacity for graduate students considering community-engaged research. Likewise,

such offerings are equally beneficial to faculty members who may be interested in community-engaged scholarship.

Second, case studies on how researchers and their institutions respond to failures could provide noteworthy contributions to scholarship on the institutionalization of community engagement, including recommendations for policy and infrastructure that result from these experiences. Examples provided in the vignettes illustrate the potential consequences of inadequate institutional support and oversight. Not only is it helpful to know which organization and leadership models have proven successful, it is equally beneficial to understand which models are not effective and why. We are hesitant to advocate for increased institutional bureaucracy for community-engaged scholars to navigate, yet we recognize the value of university-facilitated efforts to maintain integrity and quality while monitoring community-engaged activity. Research on best practices for shared responsibility between faculty and community-engagement units and their leaders could help determine which pitfalls to avoid, how to do so, and related rationales.

Conclusion

Professional failure, although uncomfortable and troubling in the moment, yields tremendous opportunity for growth and development, particularly for CES researchers.

Failure is an ever-present possibility, so the question becomes how do we prepare for, navigate, and respond to it? Moreover, how do we benefit long term from such experiences through an enhanced awareness and understanding of our work? We must also consider how we encourage one another to share and learn from our failures in order to improve our collective practice and advance the field of community engagement. Our willingness to engage in critical reflective practice, individually and collectively, requires courage and has the potential to amplify the positive impacts we desire for our communities.

Even as those of us participating in community-engaged research can support one another in this work in real time, we also have a responsibility to document our learning for future scholars. Likewise, we must consider how we integrate curriculum and training designed to equip future community-engaged scholars and practitioners to navigate failure and leverage their experience as a learning opportunity to improve practice. We encourage readers to explore the ways in which their institutions promote reflective practice through ongoing professional development. For example, one author's university provides faculty and staff learning communities specific to community engagement. Our hope is that engaging in critical reflective practice will build capacity among ourselves and provide a more supportive network for those interested in community-engaged scholarship.



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Boyte, H. C. (2018). *Awakening democracy through public work: Pedagogies of empowerment*. Vanderbilt University Press. 200 pp.

Review by Alexander H. Jones



Harry C. Boyte's recent monograph, *Awakening Democracy Through Public Work: Pedagogies of Empowerment*, is a unique contribution to the field of education for its citizen-centered approach to pedagogy. Boyte challenges readers to consider the political impact of community engagement in K-12 and higher education, as citizens themselves can be formed as participants in social change. The author terms this process "public work . . . an approach to citizenship in which *citizens are co-creators, builders of the common world, not simply voters and volunteers who fit into that world or protestors who oppose it*" (pp. 5-6). Boyte's text, then, functions as an exploration of blending democratic ideals and education. As Senior Scholar in Public Work Philosophy at Augsburg University, and a well-known champion of public power through community organizing, Boyte is well positioned to articulate a rationale for unifying ethics and values in both organizing and pedagogical empowerment.

Following the outline of the text (pp. 9-11), Boyte's first chapter describes the historicity of community organizing and its impact on citizenry formation. Importantly, Boyte situates the need for public work in the contemporary context of a polarized and polarizing America. Citizenship formation, Boyte asserts, can transcend the arbitrary bifurcation between a top-down approach to democracy and a grassroots movement to social change. This binomial paradigm is part of the problem, reinforcing an us-them dichotomy in which civic activists are needed to promote social change against the evil empire. Focusing instead on civic empowerment, the idea of public work moves beyond activism to truly reviving the role of the citizen as a producer, and not just consumer, of democracy.

The second chapter takes education as a

case study to further explore the potentials of public work. In this coauthored chapter, Boyte and Isak Tranvik argue that when put into practice, the idea of public work strengthens the role of education in civic responsibility. Focusing on K-12 education, the authors suggest that citizens should actively influence school, rather than function as passive recipients of it. Chapter 3 provides a concrete example of public achievement in a high school in Minnesota.

The fourth and fifth chapters document the spread of public work throughout the United States and abroad. Boyte and co-authors Tami Moore and Marie-Louise Ström provide vignettes of young people throughout the continental United States and in 30 countries in Europe, Asia, and Africa whose efforts reflect robust adaptations of the philosophy of public work (p. 80). In these chapters, Boyte likens this spread to jazz, a kind of music that allows thorough contextualization depending on the locality and also requires improvisation. Importantly, Boyte suggests that public work as evidenced in these examples is neither community service nor volunteering nor political involvement, but is instead an appreciative alternative. This third-way approach entails collaboration, support, and cocreating of opportunities for change.

In the sixth chapter, Boyte and Ström begin to articulate the pedagogical dimensions of this jazzlike politics. The authors ground their pedagogy in long-standing community organizing principles identified in the classic works of Jane Addams, the civil rights movement, Danish folk schools, and the Industrial Areas Foundation (p. 107). Respectively, these pedagogical values entail believing that everyone is a teacher and learner, commitment to relationships and listening to others, a public sensibility, and reflective practice.

The final three chapters continue to explore how democratic ideals and education are intertwined in this conception of public work. In Chapter 7, Boyte, Susan O'Connor, and Donna Patterson document how one group of educators at Augsburg University utilizes public work to transform special education. Chapter 8 details additional instances of public work in action, particularly in higher education. At the University of Maryland, Baltimore County, for example, Boyte describes the civic-mindedness of student government, which sees itself as a generator of change and is active in the formation of a public citizenry. The ninth and final chapter entails a clarion call for the growth of awakening democracy in all of life, for citizens to be active producers of society. In an age of polarization and divisiveness, Boyte concludes that civic studies and the building of citizenship are foundational to the democratic project.

Boyte's volume is a well-timed work that tries to envision a new praxis of community-citizenship-education engagement. The author's ideals and challenging vision are appropriately balanced with narratives of actual change, and the whole text seems to address a plaguing dimension of contemporary U.S. society, namely, the paralyzing slowness with which social change occurs. In an age of polarization and partisan everything, Boyte's text refreshingly challenges the syruplike viscosity of change, making the process of democratic engagement appear like currents near a waterfall—quick, clear, and deeply impactful. It is worth the read just to soak in the positive sensibilities, which may salve one's widening wounds from politics, or at least offer fresh air for those stuck in a season of slow change.

Boyte's approach to public work, though enticing, derives from several political-economic assumptions that are left unexamined and present weaknesses to the case the author is making. Further consideration of these weaknesses would have strengthened the volume. Interpreting Boyte's work through the lens of higher education highlights these assumptions.

First, Boyte seems to view the concepts of the common good, public work, democracy, and civic empowerment as part of a grandiose arc toward justice. To be sure, they have been treated as long-standing values of universities. Developing citizens, for example, was one of the foundational

principles of universities in the early republic of the United States. Today, these concepts permeate modern universities' mission and vision statements. Their presence is indicative of an impulse to serve the public and connotes an institutional altruism and positive desire to ensure equality for as many citizens as possible. Embedded in this heuristic, however, are problematic assumptions that refract a different story, one in which these concepts have a clear lineage that evidences injustice.

Concepts undergirding Boyte's public work have baggage. To promulgate them without articulating and addressing their histories and effects is problematic. Historically, the notion of public citizenship derives from Lockean liberal philosophy, which championed empirical thought, classical economics, and the notion of the common good. When institutionalized at a larger scale, these incipient renderings of democratic norms were utilized centuries after Locke in colonization and the creation of nation-states. In other words, not only was the common good, perhaps an early predecessor of Boyte's public work, foundational to American democracy, but it was also foundational to imperial violence. Boyte's inattention to the past harms caused in the name of pursuing "the common good" leaves the critical reader wondering, "What present harms might the blind pursuit of education-for-democracy engender?"

Evidence of the imperialism of democracy is revealed in the second major assumption in Boyte's text, namely, that the spread of public work throughout the continental United States and into more than 30 countries is a good thing. Though Boyte frames the diffusion of the public work philosophy benignly as a jazzlike contextualization in each locality, he fails to acknowledge that the spread of democracy also spreads tacit Eurocentric ideologies. In the development of the British colonies of North America those ideologies eventually led to the supplanting of a monarchy by a democratic republic, but the impulse of citizens to act as producers of their own society also manufactured the genocide of indigenous peoples. In his uncritical embrace of the values he ascribes to the public work philosophy, Boyte valorizes a dated American vision of a common dream. To be sure, the author implores the reader not to ignore the honest happenings of the land, such as slavery and indigenous genocide. However,

despite his explicit call to face the horrors of American history, the author fails to question whether and how the values implicit in public work may inadvertently proliferate the same values and virtues that eventually paved the way for these same horrors. In other words, democracy is not a panacea.

Overall, Boyte's text is an inspirational and energizing take on the power of the people to promote social change. It provides numerous examples to organizers and educators on how to integrate these two worlds—organizing and pedagogy. And it paints a picture for citizens as active agents of change. For administrators and scholars of higher education outreach and

community engagement, this text situates university–community engagement work in a wider political context, offering a reimagined way of forming citizens. Boyte's paradigm of public work thus evokes and demands a response. After finishing the text, readers are forced to wonder if their work with communities and students is merely pigeonholed into polarizing politics or breaks out of this false bifurcation between left and right. Nevertheless, some readers may appreciate a more critical lens directed toward the democratic notions of civic engagement, commons, publics, and good, which are unfortunately not addressed in this volume.



About the Reviewer

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