JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION OUTREACH & ENGAGEMENT

JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION OUTREACH & ENGAGEMENT

JOURNAL OF
HIGHER EDUCATION
OUTREACH & ENGAGEMENT

TABLE of CONTENTS

Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement

INTRODUCTION

RESEARCH ARTICLES

PROJECTS WITH PROMISE

TABLE of CONTENTS *(cont'd)*

Journal of Higher Education Outreach & Engagement

From the Editor . . . The Journal at 25

Shannon O. Brooks

On April 1, 1996, the first issue of the newly created *Journal of Public Service & Outreach* (*JPSO*) was published by the University of Georgia with great fanfare and an expressed desire to become *the* forum for emerging interdisciplinary scholarship and practice around public service. Reading through its pages today, you can sense the excitement about this new venture, buoyed by the posthumous publication of an article by Earnest Boyer (1996) introducing the "scholarship of engagement" in *JPSO's* inaugural issue. With Boyer's challenge to higher education to recommit its considerable resources, influence, and knowledge to the public good, the journal was launched!

Fast forward a quarter of a century, and *JPSO's* name is now the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement* (*JHEOE*). This change was designed to reflect and embrace a shift in scholarship and practice toward a broader conception of university-community engagement, wherein public service and outreach are part of a larger continuum of engaged scholarship. The introduction to *JPSO's* first issue was penned by S. Eugene Younts, the journal's founding publisher who was at that time serving as UGA's vice president for public service and outreach. Younts writes with excitement about taking up Boyer's challenge to reaffirm higher education's approach to its public commitments. Over the last 25 years, this gauntlet has been thrown down and taken up again and again in innumerable, innovative ways in the journal's pages as scholars and practitioners advance the engagement movement.

Yet, kicking off the first issue of the fledgling journal, Younts (1996) describes the forum he and other members of the international editorial board hoped to create, saying—

> Future issues of *JPSO* will cover the diverse nature of outreach, with an emphasis on awareness, apprecia-

tion, and innovative responses to the radical changes facing higher education today. Topics slated for upcoming issues include:

- involving students in outreach
- using technology to broaden outreach
- examining the many unanswered, pedagogical questions related to distance learning,
- escaping from the paternalistic approach of "top-down" outreach to create partnerships—from the beginning—with those being served,
- accepting the challenge of serving increasingly diverse publics,
- analyzing critically the importance of interdisciplinary connections,
- solving the nagging problem of faculty incentives and rewards, and
- making technology transfer work successfully. (p. 7)

Revisiting the beginning, I somehow expected there would be stark differences in the journal's editorial focus and approach, and an opportunity to smugly look at how far we have come. However, the first issue of *JPSO* is still a great read and feels, well, *current*. Yes, there have been shifts in the language and methods we use, and emerging scholars today find diverse outlets for their scholarly work; *JHEOE* is now one of many outstanding journals with broad support and readership focused on different dimensions of community engagement, service-learning, outreach, and partnership. Yet, 25 years on, don't we recognize these points of inquiry? What Younts describes are topics that remain at the core of our work in higher education outreach and engagement and are jarring in their familiarity.

As we mark the 25th anniversary of the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*, it is perhaps fitting that as scholars focused on ways in which universities and communities must work together to address the "big hairy questions," we should acknowledge that these questions have endured because this work is difficult and the inquiry will continue well beyond our own time. Considering the growth in our field, yet the lingering discussions around familiar questions, it seems time moves slowly and very fast all at once. If *JHEOE* represents the span of a human life, at 25 it would finally be entering the world of young adulthood, accountability, and carving out its own path. In other words, *JHEOE* would finally be a "grown-up."

Many thanks to those who birthed this journal, raised it carefully, and will befriend it as it ages with purpose over the next 25 years.

———————————————

References

Boyer, E. L. (1996). The scholarship of engagement. *Journal of Public Service & Outreach (1)*1, 11–20.

Younts, S. E. (1996). JPSO: A forum for outreach. *Journal of Public Service & Outreach (1)*1, 2–8.

Unraveling University–Community Engagement: A Literature Review

Anouk Koekkoek, Maarten Van Ham, and Reinout Kleinhans

Abstract

University–community engagement has been implemented by an increasing number of universities across the world, in a period characterized by growing international competition. The growth of interest in university–community engagement has led to multiple definitions of this term and a high level of complexity in defining what it entails. Using a literature review, this article offers a critical assessment of the academic literature on university–community engagement. The article aims to provide insight into trends, commonalities, and variations in the literature, to enable the identification of an agenda for future research. We identify four main gaps in the literature, which we suggest addressing through a more critical conceptual discussion supported by empirical research, broadening the theoretical lens, and using particular research approaches, such as theories of change. Altogether, this will enable a more comprehensive understanding of the concept of university–community engagement.

Keywords: community engagement, higher education, engaged university, civic engagement, outreach, literature review

I n recent years, university–community engagement has been implemented by an increasing number of universities across the world. Activities such as service-based learning and participatory research are receiving more and more attention from various stakeholders such as policymakers, academics, and authorities (Grau et al., 2017). Interestingly, these changes are taking place during a time when universities are expected to have a global impact through their research.

Since the second half of the 20th century, academia has been characterized by international competition, global rankings, exchange programs for students, and substantial staff mobility. This seems to result in the promotion of "a model of university disconnected from the nation state and constituent cities and regions as it concentrates on diversifying and privatising its funding base, recruiting talent internationally and engaging globally" (Goddard et al., 2016, p. 3). In addition, higher education institutions are increasingly influenced by neoliberalism (Goddard et al., 2016; Olssen & Peters, 2005). More and more, "universities operate as entrepreneurial, purely competitive business-oriented corporations" (Lynch, 2006, p. 7). These trends are accompanied by a loss of public confidence in researchers and science. Political parties often question the contribution that universities can make to society. Especially among less educated citizens, public confidence in science and universities appears to be low (Van der Waal et al., 2017).

In the context of the countervailing trends of internationalization and marketization in higher education (Goddard et al., 2016), universities across the world have adopted university–community engagement. Thus, universities are asked to conduct innovative and ground-breaking (global) work, while simultaneously remaining place-bound with strong ties to their local communities (Harris & Holley, 2016). University–community engagement has developed and

evolved both in academia and among practitioners during the last decades, resulting in a variety of definitions and a high level of complexity regarding both the meaning of the term and what it entails.

There seems to be a need to comprehend the complex relation between universities and wider society and the role of university–community engagement within this relation (Albertyn & Daniels, 2009). Some authors have aimed to improve the conceptual understanding of university–community engagement. For example, Sandmann (2008) wrote about the evolution of the term "scholarship of engagement." More recently, Jones and Lee (2017) performed a review of academic publication trends in the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*. However, to our knowledge a comprehensive overview of the literature on university–community engagement remains lacking. Thus, we focus on this research question: "What are the main questions and issues on university–community engagement that have been addressed to date, and what gaps can be identified in the academic literature?" This article aims to provide a better insight into the emergence, motives, and dynamics of community engagement in the context of higher education, and to provide an agenda for future research. It offers a deeper theoretical and conceptual reflection on university–community engagement by presenting a critical overview of the current academic literature in this field.

The literature review mainly focuses on publications written in English from the past 2 decades, as its aim is to assess the current state of the academic literature. The literature review was carried out in two phases. The first phase focused on a search through major online databases including Google Scholar, Web of Science, and Scopus. The terms *university*, *community*, and *engagement* and their synonyms were used as keywords in the search for literature. In the second phase, more literature was found by using snowball methods, such as forward and backward reference tracking, to identify additional prior and subsequent relevant articles, book chapters, and books. Given the multidisciplinary nature of university–community engagement, no disciplines were excluded. In both phases, relevance of the literature was determined by examining the abstracts, to ensure that the works concerned some aspect of university–community engagement.

The review begins with a discussion of the concept of university–community engagement, diving deeper into the different definitions and theoretical models. We then examine literature on the motivations of universities to engage with local communities. Next, tensions and challenges for university–community engagement will be addressed. The article will then discuss the target groups of university–community engagement and what is known about its impact on these target groups and on the academic community. Finally, we conclude with a section on research recommendations.

What Is University–Community Engagement?

There are many ways to conceptualize and measure university–community engagement. This results in broad, general definitions and overlapping terms such as "civic engagement," "public engagement," "community outreach," "community–university partnerships," "scholarship of engagement," and "community–university collaborations" (see, e.g., Hart & Northmore, 2011; Sandmann, 2008). In addition, terminology differs between various disciplines (Doberneck et al., 2010; McIlrath & Lyons, 2012). For example, in fields of arts, humanities, and design, such terms as "public scholarship" and "public engagement" are common. In health and medical fields, "translational science" is often used, and participatory action research is an often-adopted approach (e.g., O'Fallon & Dearry, 2002). The terms "community partnerships" and "scholarship of engagement" frequently appear in social sciences (Barker, 2004). When analyzing the literature, several main themes can be recognized in the definitions of university–community engagement.

Definitions and Perspectives

The first theme stressed by several authors is the spatial element of university–community engagement (e.g., Brabant & Braid, 2009). For example, according to Goddard (2009),

> The engaged civic university . . . is one which provides opportunities for the society of which it forms part. It engages as a whole with its

surroundings, not piecemeal. . . . While it operates on a global scale, it realises that its location helps to form its identity and provide opportunities for it to grow and help others, including individual learners, business and public institutions, to do so too. (p. 5)

Several other authors emphasize the mutual and reciprocal dimensions in their definitions (e.g., Bednarz et al., 2008; Bridger & Alter, 2007; Bringle et al., 2012; Fitzgerald et al., 2012; Holland & Ramaley, 2008). The Carnegie Foundation's conceptualization of university–community engagement is one of the most well-known definitions in the United States: "Community engagement describes the collaboration between institutions of higher education 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, p. 6)

Another perspective that can be distinguished is a developmental perspective on university–community engagement. Some authors focus on the transfer of knowledge to communities outside academia (e.g., Bond & Paterson, 2005; Weerts & Sandmann, 2008), whereas others define community engagement from an entrepreneurial perspective in which universities have a role in technological innovation and economic development (e.g., Etzkowitz et al., 2000; Smith & Bagchi-Sen, 2012). For example, an engaged university "can lead to enhanced human and social capital development, improved professional infrastructure and capacity-building and, more broadly, to benefits for the socio-economic, environmental and cultural dimensions of the wider community" (Munck, 2010, p. 32). Swaner (2007) identified two definitional strands that both concentrate on the developmental aspects of university–community engagement for students: The involvement perspective focuses on educational experiences and learning outcomes of students, and the civic engagement perspective "suggests that civic engagement entails the development of both citizenship capacities necessary for participatory democracy and social responsibility necessary for community membership" (p. 19).

Finally, several authors adopt a more instrumental approach to university–community engagement. Their definitions include concepts such as relevance, accountability, and societal expectations (e.g., Bender, 2008; Benneworth et al., 2008). For example, according to Jongbloed et al. (2008), "Engagement here involves a set of activities through which the university can demonstrate its relevance to the wider society and be held accountable" (p. 313). A definition that offers a more holistic view on the concept of university–community engagement, by combining spatial, reciprocal, and developmental approaches into one, comes from Mulligan and Nadarajah (2008):

> Community engagement can be broadly described as the process of working collaboratively with groups of people affiliated by geographic proximity, special interest and/or similar situations to address issues affecting the well-being of those groups of people. Discussion of the notion of community engagement suggests that its aim must be the empowerment of individuals and community-based organizations which can, in turn, implement relevant practices and influence broader policies. (p. 87)

University–Community Engagement Activities

Due to the broad range of definitions, many activities can be used as a form of university–community engagement: for example, lifelong learning, volunteerism among staff and students, service-based learning, participatory research, knowledge exchange, cultural and educational events, and access to universities' buildings for others to use (e.g., art groups who rent a space for their classes; see Goddard et al., 2016; Humphrey, 2013). Note that many of these activities already existed before the concept of community engagement gained attention (Bender, 2008; Mtawa et al., 2016).

It can be argued that these activities can be ordered in terms of degree of engagement of universities, based on the embeddedness and complexity of the activity. However, the literature is inconclusive on the categorization of engagement activities. For example, Hall (2009) argued that lifelong learning "is the basis of all forms of community engagement and still represents arguably the most profound set of community partnerships" (p. 15). In contrast, Furco (2010) did not in-

clude lifelong learning in his classification of engagement activities. Furco proposed a model of an engaged university that aims to embed university–community engagement into the core work of universities, wherein the closer you get to the core of the model, the more closely the activities are related to the "ideal type" of engagement. According to Furco (2010), the ideal type of an engaged university is characterized by authenticity and genuineness:

> (1) the intellectual, disciplined-based resources at an institution are harnessed, organised and used to address community issues and concerns; and (2) the community issues and concerns are incorporated as a legitimate part of the scholarly, academic work of departments, faculty and students. (p. 388)

Similarly, Goddard et al. (2016) placed volunteerism on the lower end of the spectrum and "holistic civic engagement" as the ultimate level of university–community engagement, meaning that "engagement is a holistic, self-reinforcing and sustainable circle of activity, embedded across the entire institution, and acting as the horizontal and reciprocal glue linking teaching to research" (p. 70). Other authors do not develop a hierarchy of engagement activities at all (e.g., Conway et al., 2009).

Theoretical Models

Over the years, several theoretical models have been developed in an attempt to provide an overview of different interpretations of university–community engagement. Most authors seem to base their theoretical models on the integration of engagement activities into the core of academic work. From an organizational standpoint, universities can be described as consisting of three main pillars: teaching, research, and the "third" pillar—the latter including engagement with external parties such as local authorities, enterprises, organizations, and citizens. These three pillars are often used as a visualization of the organizational embeddedness of university–community engagement. For example, Figure 1 represents the balance between these pillars in both an "un-civic" university and a "civic" university (Goddard et al., 2016).

A civic university would be characterized by

a number of principles: a sense of purpose, active dialogue and collaborations with "the wider world," a holistic approach to engagement, a sense of place, willingness to invest, transparent and accountable communication with its stakeholders, and the use of innovative methodologies such as social media (Goddard et al., 2016, pp. 10–11).

A similar way of visualizing different perspectives on community engagement was developed by Bender (2008), who distinguished the silo model, the intersecting model, and the infusion model. The silo model is similar to the un-civic university model of Goddard et al. (2016), in which universities have three roles that they pursue separately (See Figure 2). According to Bender (2008), this view on university–community engagement is the most traditional. The intersecting model assumes that all activities of universities imply engagement with the community: All teaching and research activities have either a direct or indirect effect and make a social, cultural, or economic impact. As all activities of universities are perceived as a form of engagement, there is no conscious perception of social responsibility in university–community engagement in this model (Bender, 2008). Similarly to the notion of the civic university of Goddard et al. (2016), the infusion model argues that university–community engagement should be integrated within all universities' activities—but in a more explicit way than in the intersecting approach. In the infusion model, university–community engagement is actively pursued by universities, with a strong emphasis on collaboration and mutual relationships with communities. This model assumes that universities should prepare students "to be responsible citizens as demonstrated through civic engagement and social responsibility"—instead of just prepare them for employment (Bender, 2008, p. 91).

A less common typology of universities is based on four pillars. For example, Conway et al. (2009) distinguished four areas: research, teaching, service, and knowledge sharing (see Table 1). Similarly, Doberneck et al. (2010) composed a typology of four broad categories: research and creative activities, service, commercialized activities, and instruction—similar to the area of teaching in the other typologies. The main distinction from the three-pillar typologies
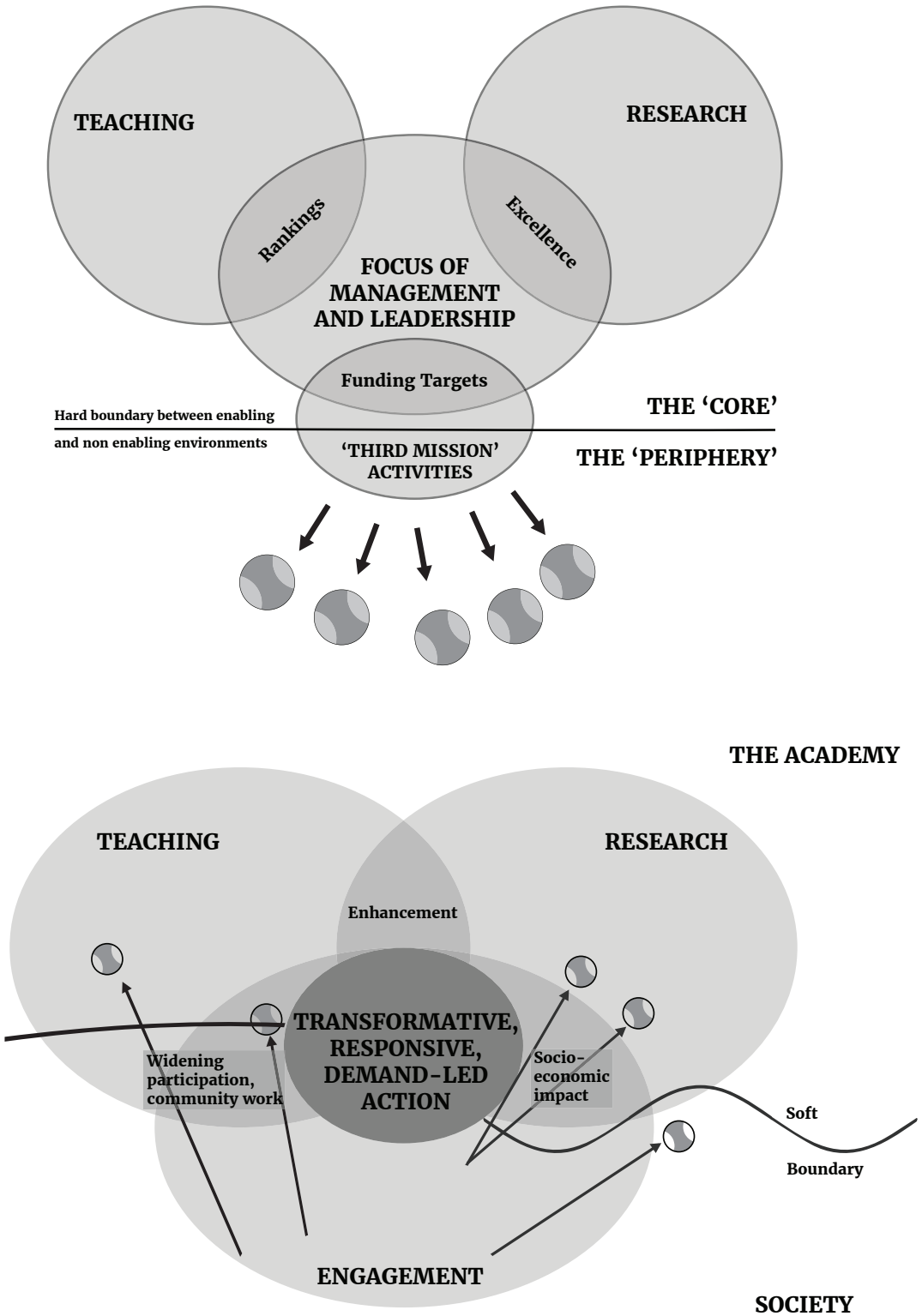
Figure 1. The "Un-civic" and "Civic" University
Note. Adapted from The Civic University: The Policy and Leadership Challenges, by J. Goddard, E. Hazelkorn,
L. Kempton, & P. Vallance (Eds.), 2016, p. 6, Edward Elgar Publishing.

Research

Teaching and Learning

Community Service

Community

Teaching and Learning

Engagement

Research

Service

Service Learning

Community-based Research

Community Outreach

Volunteerism

Engaged University

Teaching and Learning

Research

Community Engagement

Service Agency/Community

Partnerships & Collaboration
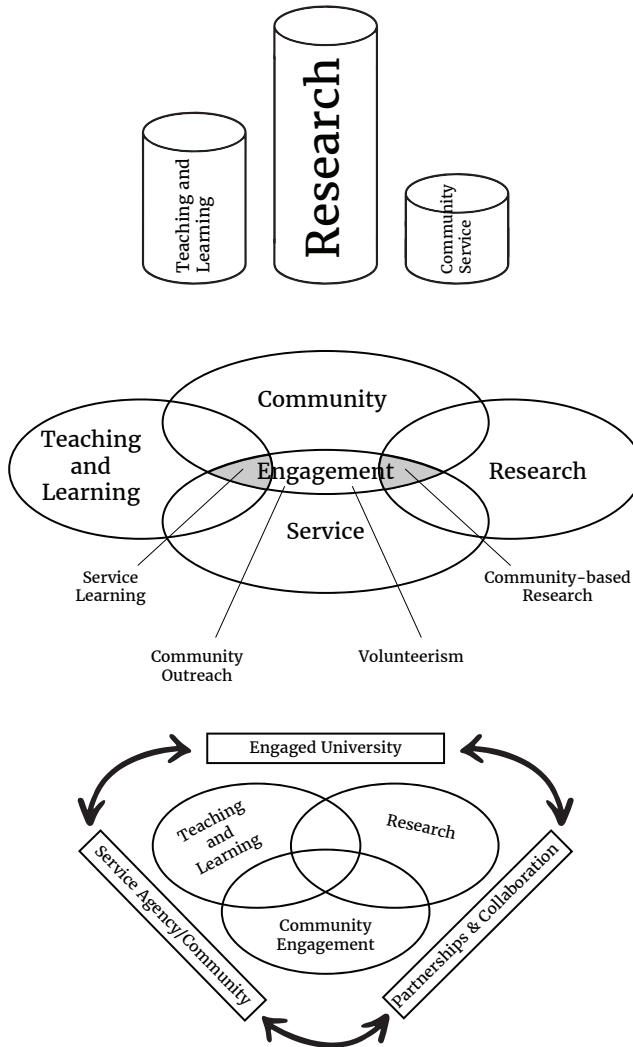
Figure 2. Silo Model, Intersecting Model, and Infusion Model
Note. Adapted from "Exploring conceptual models for community engagement at higher education
institutions in South Africa," by G. Bender, 2008, Perspectives in Education, 26(1), pp. 88–90.

is the division of "service" and "knowledge sharing" or "commercialized activities," whereas the typology of three pillars merges these areas into one—only "service."

Another way of conceptualizing university–community engagement involves differentiating between the economic and social contributions of universities. Four different dimensions can be distinguished that reflect the different interpretations of university–community engagement: the entrepreneurial university model, the regional innovation system (RIS) model, the Mode 2 model, and the engaged university model (Trippl et al., 2015). As Figure 3 shows, the first two models have a more narrow ap-

proach: They target the economic dimension but do not include social, cultural, and societal activities of universities. The latter two models do involve these activities; they differ in which type of activities they focus on. The Mode 2 model is related to knowledge production. Mode 2 is a new form of university research that focuses on societal challenges, transdisciplinary research, collaboration, and applicability, in contrast to Mode 1 (not shown in Figure 3), which refers to traditional, linear, and disciplinary forms of research. The engaged model not only focuses on research, but "also includes teaching and other university functions, directing attention of university contributions

Table 1. A Typology of Different Kinds of University Engagement Activity		
Area of university activity		**Main areas of engagement activity**
Engaged research	R1	Collaborative research projects
	R2	Research projects involving co-creation
	R3	Research commissioned by hard-to-reach groups
	R4	Research <u>on</u> these groups then fed back
Knowledge sharing	K1	Consultancy for hard-to-reach group as a client
	K2	Public funded knowledge exchange projects
	K3	Capacity building between hard-to-reach groups
	K4	Knowledge sharing through student 'consultancy'
	K5	Promoting public dialogue & media
Service	S1	Making university assets & services accessible
	S2	Encouraging hard-to-reach groups to use assets
	S3	Making an intellectual contribution as 'expert'
	S4	Contributing to the civic life of the region
Teaching	T1	Teaching appropriate engagement practices
	T2	Practical education for citizenship
	T3	Public lectures and seminar series
	T4	CPD for hard-to-reach groups
	T5	Adult and lifelong learning

Note. Reprinted from *Characterising Modes of University Engagement With Wider Society: A Literature Review and Survey of Best Practice,* by C. Conway, L. Humphrey, P. Benneworth, D. Charles, & P. Younger, 2009, p. 6, Office of the Pro-Vice-Chancellor (Engagement), Newcastle University. Copyright 2009 by Newcastle University. Reprinted with permission.

to regional development that are related to their social, political and civic roles" (Trippl et al., 2015, p. 1728).

In short, university–community engagement is understood in many ways, which results in a wide variety of activities and theoretical models. Key elements in university–community engagement seem to be spatial, reciprocal, developmental, or instrumental aspects, or a combination thereof. In addition, there is a normative ideal type of university–community engagement; some university–community engagement practices are perceived as "better" than others. University–community engagement that is completely embedded within all functions of a university—with the explicit aim to take on social responsibility—seems to be considered the ultimate form of university–community engagement.

There is great variation in terminology used by authors, not only across articles, but even within articles. This raises the question of whether such variation is just a matter of language or reflects larger differences in the phenomenon being studied (Giles, 2008; O'Meara et al., 2011). For example, the variation could reflect universities' different motivations for engaging with communities. The motives may be based on the perception of the concept of university–community engagement, or vice versa; definitions can be selected that support aims in relation to university–community engagement. For this reason, the next section will address universities' various motivations for engaging with communities.

Motivation—Why Do Universities Engage With Local Communities?

The origin of university–community engagement can be divided in two categories. First, a number of authors state that

Role of universities in regional development			
Narrow view (economic / technological dimension)		**Broad view (social, cultural, societal dimension)**	
Entrepreneurial university	Regional Innovation Systems (RIS university)	NPK (Mode 2 university)	Engaged University

Activities by universities			
Commercialization Activities: Patents, Licensing, spin-offs	+ collaborative & contract research, consulting, ad hoc advice, networking with practitioners	+ contributions to solve big societal challenges; interaction with wide range of non-scientific actors	+ contributions related to social, political and civic roles

Policy implications			
Regulation IPRs Support for TTOs, science parks, incubators Promotion of academic spin-offs	Strengthening of the role of universities as actors in RIS Integration of universities in regional cluster initiatives & innovation strategies	Public funding of inter-transdisciplinary research Funding of research that considers societal challenges	Broad mix of policies (various levels) Integration of universities in innovation & governance networks

Figure 3. University Models: Activities and Policy Implications
Note. Reprinted from "The Role of Universities in Regional Development: Conceptual Models and Policy Institutions in the UK, Sweden and Austria," by M. Trippl, T. Sinozic, & H. Lawton Smith, 2015, European Planning Studies, 23(9), p. 1728.

university–community engagement has an ideological, intrinsic basis (Albertyn & Daniels, 2009). For example, Goddard et al. (2016) argued that university–community engagement in the United States is linked to the idea that a sense of citizenship is an essential element of education, whereas in Europe, university–community engagement is more related to economic development and funding. Others argue that beliefs have changed on how to contribute to society besides research and teaching, which has led to the formulation of explicit and intentional goals and the integration of university–community engagement into the core work of universities. This type of university–community engagement is often based on moral values (Benneworth et al., 2008). Furco (2010) linked this trend to the generation of Millennials, who want to make contributions to society through their education. This attitude has led to more community-based learning.

Farrar and Taylor (2009) distinguished three different historical perspectives on (moti-vations underlying) university–community engagement. First, the progressive perspective holds that universities perform a democratic function by transmitting knowledge to the working class in order to ensure the social order. This model was most common in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. The second model, the knowledge transfer business perspective, became dominant from the 1940s onward. This perspective emphasizes the importance of education and training at high levels for economic competitiveness. During recent decades, a third perspective has gained interest. The radical social purpose model argues that universities take responsibility for tackling social inequality by getting involved with community engagement, based on socialist and other progressive ideological stances. According to this model, universities should emphasize the social purpose of education, rather than the economic and political purposes (François, 2015), by educating students in various values that enable them to make a responsible contribution to society.

Nevertheless, Farrar and Taylor (2009) emphasized "that universities are inherently elitist institutions and that such egalitarian impulses have remained relatively marginal" (p. 250). University−community engagement is often understood as knowledge transfer and collaboration with large corporations—a result of the growing influence of neoliberalism on higher education institutions (Goddard et al., 2016; Olssen & Peters, 2005).

A second group of authors ascribe the increasing interest in university−community engagement to the influence of external pressures, which have rapidly changed in the last 3 decades (Albertyn & Daniels, 2009; Benneworth et al., 2008). In general, universities are nonprofit organizations that receive subsidies and tax exemptions from local and national governments (Hayter & Cahoy, 2018). However, public investments have been declining in recent years, which seems to result in universities relying "on market discourse and managerial approaches in order to demonstrate responsiveness to economic exigencies" (Gumport, 2000, p. 67). Universities are increasingly self-financed participants in the international market for higher education (Czarniawska & Genell, 2002; Hemsley–Brown & Oplatka, 2006).

Hence, financial and economic incentives can function as external pressures for universities to engage with local communities. According to Chatterton (2000), key reasons for greater university−community engagement include new sources of funding that promote the practice. For example, in the United States, a number of federal grant programs were established in the early 1990s to engage colleges and universities more in addressing local societal issues (Furco, 2010). In Europe, European Union−funded research projects encourage universities to collaborate with industry "to develop their entrepreneurial and innovative potential" (Hazelkorn, 2016a, p. 50).

Some authors argue that university−community engagement can also be regarded as a marketing tool to attract future students (Benneworth, 2013). In the context of global competition in higher education, students can be considered consumers who are an important source of income for universities—in particular international students (Hemsley–Brown & Oplatka, 2006). This can be linked to the argument of Furco (2010) about the Millennial student generation, whose attitude toward education and societal relevance may have pushed universities to accommodate community-based learning experiences. By advertising the opportunity to have these experiences, universities aim to attract new students. Finally, various stakeholders such as policymakers and political parties ask universities to demonstrate the societal impact of their research and their contribution to the public good. Universities are expected to be "good citizens" or "good neighbors," and university−community engagement is—presumably—a way to meet these expectations (Benneworth et al., 2008). By engaging locally, it is argued that universities could ensure their relevance to society, strengthen public trust, and partially justify the public resources they receive (Benneworth et al., 2008; Hart & Northmore, 2011). Academics should reinvent themselves, get out of the perceived "ivory tower," and engage with local communities. Supposedly, this would lead to the enhancement of "the goals of universities while also increasing local actors' capacity to address and resolve the issues they confront" (Dempsey, 2010, p. 360). However, little empirical research has been performed on the role of societal perceptions and expectations of universities and their effects on university−community engagement.

Concluding, the historically constituted relationship between the university and its surrounding communities is influenced by several factors. Two perspectives toward university−community engagement are dominant in the literature: Either intrinsic motivations or external incentives appear to be the major drivers behind university−community engagement. However, it is also possible that both models simultaneously coexist in universities and their environment. Regardless of what motivates universities, they face several challenges in the actual implementation of university−community engagement into their core activities (Calleson et al., 2005). We now turn to these challenges.

What Challenges Occur in University−Community Engagement?

Increasing engagement between universities and external stakeholders can be a complex process; multiple actors with different agendas are involved, requiring appropriate governance and organizational models (Goddard et al., 2016). The main

challenges seem to be linked to the priorities, timelines, and goals of universities, caused by the current academic culture and its underlying research processes and regulations (Racin & Gordon, 2018).

First, academia is characterized by an emphasis on disciplines rather than interdisciplinary work. This approach is supported by the prevalent instrumentalist view that some disciplines are more important than others (Goddard et al., 2016). In another aspect of this hierarchy of knowledge, abstract theoretical work is appreciated more than applicable research derived from practice (Klein et al., 2011). This approach has often led to a silo model of the roles of the university, in which research, teaching, and service are pursued independently of each other, with a bias toward international issues (Bender, 2008; Goddard et al., 2016). For example, reports on university–community engagement projects tend to be not recognized as valid for publication in academic journals and therefore have not been widely disseminated (Gelmon et al., 2013; Hardwick, 2013). In such cases, university–community engagement is seen as an add-on.

Second, the focus on competition in higher education has resulted in an absence of incentives or rewards reflecting appreciation of engagement activities that do not directly contribute to rankings and impact (Gelmon et al., 2013). This is in particular true for regions where university–community engagement is a newer phenomenon, such as Africa and Continental Europe (Hazelkorn, 2016b). In contrast, in the United States and the United Kingdom, promotion and tenure guidelines were at some universities revised to encourage and support university–community engagement since the 1990s, based on the work of Boyer and the Carnegie Foundation (Boyer, 1996; Gelmon et al., 2013; Klein et al., 2011). Nevertheless, criteria for promotion or tenure often puts more weight on traditional scholarly activities, such as publication in academic journals or acquiring grant funding, than on community work (Klein et al., 2011).

Finally, there are concerns among academic staff about the time it takes to engage with local communities. The content and logistics of activities have to be created, partnerships have to be formed, and students, staff members, and participants have to be recruited (Hardwick, 2013; Holland, 1999). Some staff members report a lack of confidence in skills and techniques of outreach. Academic staff who are engaging with local communities may have to learn new skills, communication styles, and sensitivity to community concerns and problems (Klein et al., 2011). In addition, a lack of clear procedures for documentation and evaluation leads to less participation by staff who are not personally motivated.

Thus, the global focus of the current academic system challenges universities in fully taking on university–community engagement as a central component of their activities. At the same time, university–community engagement is often framed as the general answer to the question of how universities should fulfill their local societal duties. This contrast between the demands universities have to meet raises questions about the benefits of university–community engagement.

For Whom: Target Groups and Impact

The question of for whom university–community engagement is most beneficial is closely related to the motivations of universities to engage with local communities. Where university–community engagement activities are based on altruistic beliefs, universities could be expected to pay more attention to the impact on local communities than universities that practice engagement because of external pressures, as the latter may primarily have their own interests in mind. Central to this discussion is the concept of community, which in this article relates to which groups universities have in mind in terms of university–community engagement: that is to say, those groups who are targeted by the universities.

Most of the literature is not conclusive on what is meant by "communities" in the context of university–community engagement. Most authors describe communities in a broad manner, for example "non-academic" (Bond & Paterson, 2005) or:

> "Communities" refer to those specific, local, collective interest groups that participate, or could potentially participate, in the community service activities of a higher education institution. They are regarded as partners who have a full say in the identification of service needs and development challenges. (Bender, 2008, p. 86)

Again, the notion of place in the context of university–community engagement comes forward. A recurring theme among definitions of community is the focus on vulnerable, socially disadvantaged, and hard-to-reach groups, but many authors do not elaborate on which specific communities these are (e.g., Blouin & Perry, 2009; Cahill, 2007; Klein et al., 2011; Schmidt & Robby, 2002; Zlotkowski, 1999). For example, Benneworth et al. (2008) stated that "engaged" universities provide services for excluded communities to improve their social capital. Benneworth (2013) described excluded communities as "a group whose problems are societally urgent and who traditionally rarely interact with universities" (p. 4). They are "marginalized groups whose views are seldom sought, and whose voices are rarely heard" (Bergold & Thomas, 2012, p. 197).

The lack of clarity in defining university–community engagement and the targeted communities hinders research on the effect of university–community engagement activities. While interest in university–community engagement has increased drastically over the last decades, the number of evaluation and audit studies has remained low (Hart et al., 2009; Hart & Northmore, 2011). The majority of studies on effects are at the project-specific level. However, these findings do not necessarily indicate effects at a higher institutional level. In addition, longitudinal data are required for measuring higher level outcomes and broader community outcomes, whereas most studies are short term (Hart et al., 2009). In addition, as mentioned earlier, many activities can be clustered under the heading of university–community engagement. Therefore, one has to investigate a broad field when seeking effect studies.

An example of university–community engagement is service-based learning. In this form of education, students learn how to use their academic knowledge and skills to solve actual social or civic issues, in cooperation with community organizations (Ferrari & Worrall, 2000). Evidence of student outcomes is inconclusive. Postulated positive outcomes of service-based learning include improved grades and job skills; enhanced communication, analysis, writing, and data collection skills; increased civic engagement; greater appreciation for diversity; personal growth; sense of autonomy; and the development of a professional iden-tity (Blouin & Perry, 2009; Hardwick, 2013; Klein et al., 2011). However, other authors have argued that some of these positive outcomes are assumed, rather than proven (Spalding, 2013). Community organizations benefit from the extra help they receive through students participating in service-based learning, access to campus resources, increased relationship-building capacity, improved local visibility, and participation in neighborhood planning (Blouin & Perry, 2009; Klein et al., 2011).

Volunteerism of staff and students is another way to engage with local communities, but this remains a relatively under-researched field (Tansey, 2012). Research on the effects of university volunteering is inconclusive as well. Some research has found a positive relation between university volunteering and adult volunteering and well-being (Bowman et al., 2010), whereas others have shown that requiring college students to engage in community service reduced their intentions to volunteer in the future (see, e.g., Clary & Snyder, 1999; Stukas et al., 1999). During recent years, more critique has been vocalized about whether the expected benefits of student volunteering to communities have been realized (Holdsworth & Quinn, 2010). Similar to other university–community engagement activities, evaluations of student volunteering are mainly based on the perspectives of community organizations and not the community members themselves (Edwards et al., 2001; Tansey, 2012).

University–community engagement activities can also be used to increase higher education participation of people from a lower socioeconomic background. For example, Scull and Cuthill (2010) examined an initiative that aimed to increase access to higher education through an action research project. By involving potential students, parents, and members of the broader community as relevant stakeholders in the research process, trust, mutual respect, and community awareness were increased. However, as the authors mentioned, it is not possible to conclude whether higher education aspiration and participation increased solely based on this research project; long-term and large-scale research will be needed for this purpose. Nevertheless, the findings of Scull and Cuthill (2010) raise this question: If universities strive to increase higher education participation of people from socioeconomically disadvantaged areas, how

should they do this and to what extent are these activities effective?

In conclusion, the targeted community is often not clearly defined, and there is a lack of studies focused on effects and using longitudinal data. This makes it difficult to state whether university–community engagement is truly effective for its target groups; many benefits are assumed (Ferrari & Worrall, 2000; Harris & Holley, 2016). In addition, most research on effects addresses only learning outcomes of students and benefits for the community-based organizations, but no specific outcomes for the actual service recipients (Khalaf, 2017).

Discussion

We distinguish four main gaps in the literature: the underresearched role of societal perceptions, the need for a more global perspective, a lack of communities' voice, and insufficient insight into the impact of university–community engagement on local communities and the academic community. These gaps will be discussed in further detail in the following section.

Societal Perceptions of Universities

As discussed in the section Motivation—Why Do Universities Engage With Local Communities?, external incentives can motivate universities to get involved with university–community engagement. One of these incentives is the societal perception of universities. There is a growing pressure for corporate social responsibility and accountability, which seems to affect public institutions as well (Albertyn & Daniels, 2009; Munck et al., 2012; Powell & Owen-Smith, 1998). Simultaneously, universities are more and more driven by business priorities and "the imperative to survive and prosper" (Williams & Cochrane, 2013, p. 78), due to changes in funding (Benneworth & Jongbloed, 2010). Corporations use corporate social responsibility programs intending to contribute to society in a responsible and ethically correct way, by addressing social and environmental concerns (Vasilescu et al., 2010). As parallels can be drawn between the behavior of universities and that of corporations, university–community engagement may be seen as universities' way of fulfilling their social responsibility.

However, it can be argued that universities already make a contribution to society by educating students. Academics are engaged by default; "they in fact already perform a great deal of work that is of direct or indirect benefit to the economy or society more widely" (Bond & Paterson, 2005, p. 348), making social responsibility redundant in the context of higher education (Nejati et al., 2011). The issue seems to be that, in general, social inequality in terms of levels of completed education is rising, widening the divide between "cans" and "cannots" (Van den Broek et al., 2016). Universities serve highly educated students, the "cans," but their contribution to the "cannots" may be limited or perceived to be limited by the "cannots," resulting in negative perceptions of universities.

In particular, societal expectations and perceptions may play a role in the motives of universities that have recently taken up university–community engagement. Many of the university–community engagement activities at these universities were already taking place, which introduces the question of whether these institutions are expanding their activities or merely reframing them in order to improve their reputation (Bender, 2008; Mtawa et al., 2016). It is assumed that university–community engagement would ensure the relevance of universities to society and strengthen public trust in universities and science (Hart & Northmore, 2011). However, research to date on the relationship between university–community engagement and societal perceptions is limited.

A More Global Perspective

Another finding that emerged from this literature review is that the majority of the literature on university–community engagement comes from the United States and United Kingdom. Although more recently authors have drawn attention to university–community engagement in other regions, such as Africa, Europe, and Australia (e.g., Bender, 2008; Mtawa et al., 2016; Trippl et al., 2015; Winter et al., 2006), only a small body of literature addresses university–community engagement beyond the U.S. and U.K. context (Doberneck et al., 2010; Sandmann, 2008).

In addition, research has mainly focused on universities in small towns, although many universities are located in urban areas (Harris & Holley, 2016). So far, little research has taken spatial factors such as universities' locations into account, al-

though they can be seen as anchor institutions. Universities are geographically tied to a certain location and have an economic and social impact on that location (town, city, or region; Birch et al., 2013; Brammer et al., 2012; Harris & Holley, 2016). This gap may be explained by the selection of literature for this review. As we mainly focused on publications written in English from the past 2 decades, we may have missed relevant literature from other regions and written in other languages. English has become the dominant language in all international domains of academia: conferences, publications, and research projects (Mauranen, 2016). The field of university–community engagement is no exception. Interestingly, it seems that literature from practitioners, such as reports from universities and consultancy agencies, is more diverse in language and geographical background.

The lack of geographical diversity in the literature on university–community engagement is particularly interesting as the notion of local is a fundamental element of university–community engagement. This can be seen in the frequent use of spatial elements in definitions and theoretical models of university–community engagement, but also in the actual application of university–community engagement by universities. Terms such as "local," "surroundings," and "regional" are often used, and activities such as service-based learning are often based on collaboration with organizations from universities' local surroundings. As shown in the literature review, the location of a university influences its university–community engagement behavior, through the broader political, economic, historical, and social context (Harris & Holley, 2016). University–community engagement manifests itself in different ways in different regions, countries, and even cities. Since the majority of the literature is in English, it may not be applicable to institutions from other regions. Thus, the academic literature on university–community engagement can be enriched by taking spatial aspects and other "factors, structures, and processes outside of higher education" into account (Harris & Holley, 2016, p. 429).

Community's Voice

Another gap in the literature is the lack of community's voice. Much of the literature focuses only on the university side of university–community engagement, whereas the community aspect is mainly absent from the research agenda—community is often "just" one of the variables (Cruz & Giles, 2000; Jones & Lee, 2017). In addition, when the community perspective is considered, representatives of community organizations are often the ones who are talking. However, as Brabant and Braid (2007, p. 72) argued,

> Speaking with the designated leaders of the neighborhood associations does not necessarily mean that they in turn share the information with their constituents or that the constituents think their associations' leaders represent their views accurately or adequately.

There seem to be several reasons why the literature is not explicit about what communities universities refer to in local engagement. First, "community" is one of the most vaguely defined concepts in social sciences (Allman, 2015), thus "what we mean by 'community' continues to baffle scholars across fields of study" (Cruz & Giles, 2000, p. 29). The term has symbolic, moral, emotional, and spatial dimensions. The need to also take into account changing technologies such as communication and transportation (Allman, 2015) results in methodological issues that complicate understanding of the term "community" in the context of university–community engagement.

A political aspect may also play a role in the lack of focus on the voice of communities within university–community engagement. Many engagement activities target socially disadvantaged communities that lack social capital and competencies, and are less organized than universities (Bergold & Thomas, 2012; Cruz & Giles, 2000; Miller & Hafner, 2008; Northmore & Hart, 2011). These unequal power relations have resulted in a prioritization of students' and universities' outcomes from university–community engagement (Cruz & Giles, 2000; Dempsey, 2010), as well as a lack of trust between universities and communities. Historically, local communities have primarily been seen as sources of data, while often not receiving any output of the research they participated in and rarely perceiving any benefits (Bergold & Thomas, 2012; O'Fallon & Dearry, 2002). Negative attitudes of community partners and academic staff toward each other—such as distrust, prejudice, fear of science, and sense of superiority—hinder university–community engagement and the

evaluation thereof (Klein et al., 2011).

Concluding, the literature review shows that the perspective of local communities is lacking, even though these are one of the main stakeholders in university–community engagement, being its target group. Thus, future research on university–community engagement should aim not only to call for a dialogue, but actually put this into practice.

Impact of University–Community Engagement

The literature review shows a lack of thoroughgoing studies on effects of university–community engagement activities as well as longitudinal data on these effects, which makes it difficult to establish how and to what extent university–community engagement is effective at all.

Besides the possible impact on local communities, university–community engagement likely affects the academic community as well. Often, local communities and the academic community have a negative perception of each other. The presence of a university and its students may have negative effects on local levels of social cohesion. Studentification of (inner) cities is a process of urban change, wherein neighborhoods are characterized by a high influx of students— a societal process that can lead to conflict over ownership of space, services, and territory (Smith, 2008). It reduces opportunities for positive and mutually beneficial interaction between groups; students and locals seem to be separate communities with different outlooks, needs, lifestyles, and levels of economic capital (Kenyon, 1997; Smith, 2008). Activities such as service-based learning may help bridge this town-gown divide, as both students and community members widen their horizons: "Students learn about the community beyond the university's walls, and community members discover that not all college students fit negative stereotypes" (Blouin & Perry, 2009, p. 126).

As more and more universities engage with local communities, it is essential to understand to what extent university–community engagement is effective. A greater focus on the (long-term) impact on both the local communities and academic community can contribute to the realization of the full potential of university–community engagement.

Recommendations for Research

With regard to the aforementioned gaps in the academic literature on university–community engagement, we have some recommendations regarding research topics, theories, and methodology. First, future research can explore the motivations of universities more, by asking fundamental questions such as why universities adopt university–community engagement and what they aim to achieve with it. The literature review also reveals a need for more global perspectives on university–community engagement. For example, future research could focus on how the concept is understood and operationalized among universities across the world, beyond the situations already covered in the extant literature. Furthermore, future research should bring more attention to the variety of needs and expectations of different local communities regarding university–community engagement. Finally, future research should focus more on the (long-term) impact of university–community engagement on both local communities and the academic community.

With regard to theory, primary conceptual frameworks that have previously been used may have lenses too narrow to explain the complexities involved with university–community engagement (Harris & Holley, 2016). Rather than examining the phenomenon separately from its social, economic, and political environment, broadening the theoretical lens to the business and organizational sociology literature can contribute to the conceptual understanding of university–community engagement. For example, institutional isomorphism could play a role in the rise of university–community engagement, implying that institutions adopt management practices and procedures that are socially valuable in order to seek legitimacy, resulting in convergence and isomorphic change (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Kitagawa et al., 2016). This process may have pushed universities toward university–community engagement in an imitation drift (Hayter & Cahoy, 2018; Teichler, 2006).

In addition, applying frameworks from the corporate social responsibility literature can shed light on how to understand universities' motivations for getting involved with university–community engagement, the variety of approaches they adopt, and how to assess university–community engagement

activities (Maurrasse, 2002). By comparing university experiences with businesses' practices and experiences, insights could be gained in "common practices and pitfalls that may assist in shaping the expectations of all parties involved" (Maurrasse, 2002, p. 137).

The field could benefit from methodologies such as meta-analysis, mixed-methods approaches, ethnographic approaches, and policy and discourse analysis, as these methods are currently underused in research on university−community engagement (Jones & Lee, 2017; O'Meara et al., 2011; Sandmann, 2008). Another potentially useful research design could be comparative case studies. The majority of existing research focuses on single-site case studies, which offer rich data on a given setting but lack the "explanatory potential that comparisons across multiple cases would offer" (Harris & Holley, 2016, p. 424). In addition, policy analysis will offer insight on how local, national, and global policies and regulations shape universities' engagement activities. Little research has focused on the policies enacted by different levels of government that might affect universities' behavior in relation to community engagement or on the dynamics and interplay between these different levels of policies and regulations (Harris & Holley, 2016).

A useful research approach to study the impact of university−community engagement is making use of theories of change, which highlight underlying assumptions and mechanisms of specific programs. In particular, theories of change are focused on mapping out what has been described as the "missing middle" between what a program or project does (its activities and outputs) and how these mechanisms lead to the achievement of the desired goals (Ofek, 2017). Through this approach, the link between activities and the achievement of long-term goals (outcomes) can be more fully understood. This enables evaluation, as it is possible to measure progress toward the achievement of longer term goals that goes beyond the identification of program outputs—even after the activity is finished. Theories of change offer long-term data on the impact of university−community engagement, which is lacking from the literature so far (Harris & Holley, 2016).

Conclusion

This article has presented a critical overview of the academic literature on university−community engagement. It aimed to provide better insight into trends, commonalities, and variations in the literature, to enable the identification of an agenda for future research. The main research question of this article was "What are the main questions and issues on university−community engagement that have been addressed to date, and what gaps can be identified in the academic literature?"

The majority of the literature has focused on the origin and development of university−community engagement, best practices, and challenges. We have identified four gaps in the literature: the underresearched role of societal perceptions, the need for a more global perspective, a lack of communities' voice, and insufficient insight into the impact of university−community engagement on local communities and the academic community. We further conclude that a great part of the literature on university−community engagement is descriptive, editorial, and anecdotal with a lack of critical theory perspective—the debate on community engagement has primarily remained normative and often based on assumptions (Bond & Paterson, 2005; Holdsworth & Quinn, 2010; Jones & Lee, 2017; Sandmann, 2008). In general, there is a lack of empirical research. Concluding, we believe that, to adequately address the four main gaps we found in the literature, the need remains for a more critical and geographically diverse conceptual discussion that is supported by empirical research and a broader theoretical lens.

About the Authors

Anouk Koekkoek is a doctoral candidate at the Faculty of Architecture and the Built Environment at Delft University of Technology, the Netherlands.

Maarten van Ham is professor of urban geography in the Department of Urbanism, Faculty of Architecture and the Built Environment at Delft University of Technology and professor of geography at the University of St Andrews.

Reinout Kleinhans is an associate professor of Urban Regeneration at the Faculty of Architecture and the Built Environment at Delft University of Technology, the Netherlands.

References

Albertyn, R., & Daniels, P. (2009). Research within the context of community engagement. In E. Bitzer (Ed.), *Higher education in South Africa: A scholarly look behind the scenes* (pp. 409–428). Sun Media.

Allman, D. (2015). Community centrality and social science research. *Anthropology & medicine, 22*(3), 217–233. https://doi.org/10.1080/13648470.2015.1081670

Barker, D. (2004). The scholarship of engagement: A taxonomy of five emerging practices. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 9*(2), 123–137. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/890

Bednarz, S. W., Chalkley, B., Fletcher, S., Hay, I., Heron, E. L., Mohan, A., & Trafford, J. (2008). Community engagement for student learning in geography. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education, 32*(1), 87–100. https://doi.org/10.1080/03098260701731553

Bender, G. (2008). Exploring conceptual models for community engagement at higher education institutions in South Africa: Conversation. *Perspectives in Education, 26*(1), 81–95. https://www.ajol.info/index.php/pie/article/view/76445

Benneworth, P. (2013). *University engagement with socially excluded communities*. Springer.

Benneworth, P., Humphrey, L., Charles, D. R., & Hodgson, C. (2008, September 10–13). *Excellence in community engagement by universities* [Paper presentation]. Excellence and Diversity in Higher Education. Meanings, Goals, and Instruments: 21st Conference on Higher Education Research, Pavia, Italy.

Benneworth, P., & Jongbloed, B. W. (2010). Who matters to universities? A stakeholder perspective on humanities, arts and social sciences valorisation. *Higher Education, 59*(5), 567–588. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-009-9265-2

Bergold, J., & Thomas, S. (2012). Participatory research methods: a methodological approach in motion. *Historical Social Research, 37*(4), 191–222. https://doi.org/10.12759/hsr.37.2012.4.191-222

Birch, E., Perry, D. C., & Taylor, H. L., Jr. (2013). Universities as anchor institutions. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 17*(3), 7–16. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1051

Blouin, D. D., & Perry, E. M. (2009). Whom does service learning really serve? Community-based organizations' perspectives on service learning. *Teaching Sociology, 37*(2), 120–135.

Bond, R., & Paterson, L. (2005). Coming down from the ivory tower? Academics' civic and economic engagement with the community. *Oxford Review of Education, 31*(3), 331–351. https://doi.org/10.1080/03054980500221934

Bowman, N., Brandenberger, J., Lapsley, D., Hill, P., & Quaranto, J. (2010). Serving in college, flourishing in adulthood: Does community engagement during the college years predict adult well-being? *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being, 2*(1), 14–34. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1758-0854.2009.01020.x

Boyer, E. L. (1996). The scholarship of engagement. *Bulletin of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, 49*(7), 18–33.

Brabant, M., & Braid, D. (2009). The devil is in the details: Defining civic engagement. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 13*(2), 59–88. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/469

Brammer, S., Jackson, G., & Matten, D. (2012). Corporate social responsibility and institutional theory: New perspectives on private governance. *Socio-economic Review, 10*(1), 3–28. https://doi.org/10.1093/ser/mwr030

Bridger, J. C., & Alter, T. R. (2007). The engaged university, community development, and public scholarship. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 11*(1), 163–178. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/585

Bringle, R. C., Clayton, P., & Price, M. (2012). Partnerships in service learning and civic engagement. *Partnerships: A Journal of Service-Learning and Civic Engagement, 1*(1), 1–20. http://hdl.handle.net/1805/4580

Cahill, C. (2007). Including excluded perspectives in participatory action research. *Design Studies, 28*(3), 325–340. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.destud.2007.02.006

Calleson, D. C., Jordan, C., & Seifer, S. D. (2005). Community-engaged scholarship: Is faculty work in communities a true academic enterprise? *Academic Medicine, 80*(4), 317–321. https://doi.org/10.1097/00001888-200504000-00002

Chatterton, P. (2000). The cultural role of universities in the community: Revisiting the university–community debate. *Environment and Planning A: Economy and Space, 32*(1), 165–181. https://doi.org/10.1068/a3243

Clary, E. G., & Snyder, M. (1999). The motivations to volunteer: Theoretical and practical considerations. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 8*(8), 156–159. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.00037

Conway, C., Humphrey, L., Benneworth, P., Charles, D., & Younger, P. (2009). *Characterising modes of university engagement with wider society: A literature review and survey of best practice* [Technical report]. Office of the Pro-Vice-Chancellor (Engagement), Newcastle University. https://doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.20498.81608

Cruz, N. I., & Giles, D. E., Jr. (2000). Where's the community in service-learning research? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, Special issue 1*, pp. 28–34. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.spec.104

Czarniawska, B., & Genell, K. (2002). Gone shopping? Universities on their way to the market. *Scandinavian Journal of Management, 18*(4), 455–474.

Dempsey, S. E. (2010). Critiquing community engagement. *Management Communication Quarterly, 24*(3), 359–390. https://doi.org/10.1177/0893318909352247

DiMaggio, P. J., & Powell, W. (1983). The iron cage revisited: Institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields. *American Sociological Review, 48*(2), 147–160. https://doi.org/10.2307/2095101

Doberneck, D. M., Glass, C. R., & Schweitzer, J. (2010). From rhetoric to reality: A typology of publically engaged scholarship. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 14*(4), 5–35. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/794

Driscoll, A. (2009). Carnegie's new community engagement classification: Affirming higher education's role in community. *New Directions for Higher Education, 2009*(147), 5-12. https://doi.org/10.1002/he.353

Edwards, B., Mooney, L., & Heald, C. (2001). Who is being served? The impact of student volunteering on local community organizations. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 30*(3), 444–461. https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764001303003

Etzkowitz, H., Webster, A., Gebhardt, C., & Terra, B. R. C. (2000). The future of the university and the university of the future: Evolution of ivory tower to entrepreneurial paradigm. *Research Policy, 29*(2), 313–330. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0048-7333(99)00069-4

Farrar, M., & Taylor, R. (2009). University–community engagement: Analysing an emerging field. In S. Denton & S. Brown (Eds.), *A practical guide to university and college management: Beyond bureaucracy* (pp. 247–265). Routledge.

Ferrari, J. R., & Worrall, L. (2000). Assessments by community agencies: How "the other side" sees service-learning. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 7*(1), 35–40. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0007.104

Fitzgerald, H. E., Bruns, K., Sonka, S., Furco, A., & Swanson, L. (2012). The centrality of engagement in higher education. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 16*(3), 7–28. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/949

François, E. (2015). *Building global education with a local perspective: An introduction to glocal higher education.* Palgrave Macmillan.

Furco, A. (2010). The engaged campus: Toward a comprehensive approach to public engagement. *British Journal of Educational Studies, 58*(4), 375–390. https://doi.org/10.1080/00071005.2010.527656

Gelmon, S. B., Jordan, C., & Seifer, S. D. (2013). Community-engaged scholarship in the academy: An action agenda. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 45*(4), 58–66. https://doi.org/10.1080/00091383.2013.806202

Giles, D. E., Jr. (2008). Understanding an emerging field of scholarship: Toward a research agenda for engaged, public scholarship. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 12*(2), 97–106. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/511

Goddard, J. (2009). *Reinventing the civic university*. NESTA.

Goddard, J., Hazelkorn, E., Kempton, L., & Vallance, P. (Eds.). (2016). *The civic university: The policy and leadership challenges*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Grau, F. X., Hall, B., & Tandon, R. (2017). *Towards a socially responsible university: Balancing the global with the local* (Higher Education in the World 6). Global University Network for Innovation.

Gumport, P. J. (2000). Academic restructuring: Organizational change and institutional imperatives. *Higher education, 39*(1), 67–91. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1003859026301

Hall, B. L. (2009). Higher education, community engagement, and the public good: Building the future of continuing education in Canada. *Canadian Journal of University Continuing Education, 35*(2). https://doi.org/10.21225/D5BC7N

Hardwick, L. (2013). The place of community-based learning in higher education: A case study of interchange. *Journal of Further and Higher Education, 37*(3), 349–366. https://doi.org/10.1080/0309877X.2011.645455

Harris, M., & Holley, K. (2016). Universities as anchor institutions: Economic and social potential for urban development. In M. B. Paulsen (Ed.), *Higher education: Handbook of theory and research* (pp. 393–439). Springer.

Hart, A., Northmore, S., & Gerhardt, C. (2009). Briefing paper: Auditing, benchmarking and evaluating public engagement. National Co-ordinating Centre for Public Engagement.

Hart, A., & Northmore, S. (2011). Auditing and evaluating university–community engagement: Lessons from a UK case study. *Higher Education Quarterly, 65*(1), 34–58. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2273.2010.00466.x

Hayter, C. S., & Cahoy, D. R. (2018). Toward a strategic view of higher education social responsibilities: A dynamic capabilities approach. *Strategic Organization, 16*(1), 12–34. https://doi.org/10.1177/1476127016680564

Hazelkorn, E. (2016a). Contemporary debates part 1: Theorising civic engagement. In J. Goddard, E. Hazelkorn, L. Kempton, & P. Vallance (Eds.), *The civic university: The policy and leadership challenges* (pp. 34–64). Edward Elgar Publishing.

Hazelkorn, E. (2016b). Contemporary debates part 2: Initiatives, governance and organisational structures. In J. Goddard, E. Hazelkorn, L. Kempton, & P. Vallance (Eds.), *The civic university: The policy and leadership challenges* (pp. 65–93). Edward Elgar Publishing.

Hemsley-Brown, J., & Oplatka, I. (2006). Universities in a competitive global marketplace: A systematic review of the literature on higher education marketing. *International Journal of Public Sector Management, 19*(4), 316–338. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513550610669176

Holdsworth, C., & Quinn, J. (2010). Student volunteering in English higher education. *Studies in Higher Education, 35*(1), 113–127. https://doi.org/10.1080/03075070903019856

Holland, B. (1999). Factors and strategies that influence faculty involvement in public service. *Journal of Public Service and Outreach, 4*(1), 37–43. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/780

Holland, B., & Ramaley, J. (2008). Creating a supportive environment for community–university engagement: Conceptual frameworks. In *Engaging communities, proceedings of the 31st HERDSA Annual Conference* (pp. 11–25). HERDSA.

Humphrey, L. (2013). University–community engagement. In P. Benneworth (Ed.), *University engagement with socially excluded communities* (pp. 103–124). Springer.

Jones, D. O., & Lee, J. (2017). A decade of community engagement literature: Exploring past trends and future implications. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 21*(3), 165–180. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1351

Jongbloed, B., Enders, J., & Salerno, C. (2008). Higher education and its communities: Interconnections, interdependencies and a research agenda. *Higher Education, 56*(3), 303–324. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-008-9128-2

Kenyon, E. L. (1997). Seasonal sub-communities: The impact of student households on residential communities. *British Journal of Sociology, 48*(2), 286–301. https://doi.org/10.2307/591753

Khalaf, J. M. (2017). E*ngaging the community in community engagement: Community partners, mutual benefit, and reciprocity in community–university partnerships* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin]. https://repositories.lib.utexas.edu/bitstream/handle/2152/61545/KHALAF-DISSERTATION-2017.pdf?sequence=1

Kitagawa, F., Sánchez Barrioluengo, M., & Uyarra, E. (2016). Third mission as institutional strategies: Between isomorphic forces and heterogeneous pathways. *Science and Public Policy, 43*(6), 736–750. https://doi.org/10.1093/scipol/scw015

Klein, P., Fatima, M., McEwen, L., Moser, S. C., Schmidt, D., & Zupan, S. (2011). Dismantling the ivory tower: Engaging geographers in university–community partnerships. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education, 35*(3), 425–444. https://doi.org/10.1080/03098265.2011.576337

Lynch, K. (2006). Neo-liberalism and marketisation: The implications for higher education. *European Educational Research Journal, 5*(1), 1–17. https://doi.org/10.2304/eerj.2006.5.1.1

Mauranen, A. (2016). English as a global Lingua Franca: Changing language in changing global academia. In K. Murata (Ed.), *Exploring ELF in Japanese academic and business contexts* (pp. 29–46). John Benjamins.

Maurrasse, D. J. (2002). Higher education–community partnerships: Assessing progress in the field. *Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, 31*(1), 131–139. https://doi.org/10.1177/0899764002311006

McIlrath, L., & Lyons, A. (Eds.). (2012). *Higher education and civic engagement: Comparative perspectives*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Miller, P. M., & Hafner, M. M. (2008). Moving toward dialogical collaboration: A critical examination of a university–school–community partnership. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 44*(1), 66–110. https://doi.org/10.1177/0013161X07309469

Mtawa, N. N., Fongwa, S. N., & Wangenge-Ouma, G. (2016). The scholarship of university–community engagement: Interrogating Boyer's model. *International Journal of Educational Development, 49*, 126–133.

Mulligan, M., & Nadarajah, Y. (2008). Working on the sustainability of local communities with a "community-engaged" research methodology. *Local Environment, 13*(2), 81–94. https://doi.org/10.1080/13549830701581911

Munck, R. (2010). Civic engagement and global citizenship in a university context: Core business or desirable add-on? *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education, 9*(1), 31–41. https://doi.org/10.1177/1474022209350102

Munck, R., McQuillan, H., & Ozarowska, J. (2012). Civic engagement in a cold climate: A glocal perspective. In L. McIlrath, A. Lyons, & R. Munck (Eds.), *Higher education and civic engagement* (pp. 15–29). Palgrave Macmillan.

Nejati, M., Shafaei, A., Salamzadeh, Y., & Daraei, M. (2011). Corporate social responsibility and universities: A study of top 10 world universities' websites. *African Journal of Business Management, 5*(2), 440–447.

Northmore, S., & Hart, A. (2011). Sustaining community–university partnerships. *Gateways: International Journal of Community Research and Engagement, 4*, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.5130/ijcre.v4i0.2356

O'Fallon, L. R., & Dearry, A. (2002). Community-based participatory research as a tool to advance environmental health sciences. *Environmental Health Perspectives, 110*(Suppl. 2), 155–159. https://doi.org/10.1289/ehp.02110s2155

Ofek, Y. (2017). Evaluating social exclusion interventions in university–community partnerships. *Evaluation and Program Planning, 60*, 46–55. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2016.09.004

Olssen, M., & Peters, M. A. (2005). Neoliberalism, higher education and the knowledge economy: From the free market to knowledge capitalism. *Journal of Education Policy, 20*(3), 313–345. https://doi.org/10.1080/02680930500108718

O'Meara, K., Sandmann, L. R., Saltmarsh, J., & Giles, D. E., Jr. (2011). Studying the professional lives and work of faculty involved in community engagement. *Innovative Higher Education, 36*(2), 83–96. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-010-9159-3

Powell, W. W., & Owen-Smith, J. (1998). Universities and the market for intellectual property in the life sciences. *Journal of Policy Analysis and Management, 17*(2), 253–277. https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1520-6688(199821)17:2<253::AID-PAM8>3.0.CO;2-G

Racin, L., & Gordon, E. (2018). *Community academic research partnerships in digital contexts: Opportunities, limitations, and new ways to promote mutual benefit.* http://www.academia.edu/36602198/Community_Academic_Research_Partnerships_in_Digital_Contexts_Opportunities_Limitations_and_New_Ways_to_Promote_Mutual_Benefit

Sandmann, L. R. (2008). Conceptualization of the scholarship of engagement in higher education: A strategic review, 1996–2006. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 12*(1), 91–104. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/520

Schmidt, A., & Robby, M. A. (2002). What's the value of service-learning to the community? *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 9*(1), 27–33. https://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0009.103

Scull, S., & Cuthill, M. (2010). Engaged outreach: Using community engagement to facilitate access to higher education for people from low socio-economic backgrounds. *Higher Education Research & Development, 29*(1), 59–74. https://doi.org/10.1080/07294360903421368

Smith, D. (2008). The politics of studentification and "(un)balanced" urban populations: Lessons for gentrification and sustainable communities? *Urban Studies, 45*(12), 2541–2564. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042098008097108

Smith, H. L., & Bagchi-Sen, S. (2012). The research university, entrepreneurship and regional development: Research propositions and current evidence. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development, 24*(5–6), 383–404. https://doi.org/10.1080/08985626.2011.592547

Spalding, R. (2013). "Daring to Volunteer": Some reflections on geographers, geography students and evolving institutional support for community engagement in higher education. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education, 37*(1), 59–64. https://doi.org/10.1080/03098265.2012.757300

Stukas, A. A., Snyder, M., & Clary, E. G. (1999). The effects of "mandatory volunteerism" on intentions to volunteer. *Psychological Science, 10*(1), 59–64. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9280.00107

Swaner, L. E. (2007). Linking engaged learning, student mental health and well-being, and civic development: A review of the literature. *Liberal Education, 93*(1), 16–25.

Tansey, L. (2012). Volunteering within higher education—A literature exploration and case study. In L. McIlrath, A. Lyons, & R. Munck (Eds.), *Higher education and civic engagement* (pp. 125–138). Palgrave Macmillan.

Teichler, U. (2006). Changing structures of the higher education systems: The increasing complexity of underlying forces. *Higher Education Policy, 19*(4), 447–461. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.hep.8300133

Trippl, M., Sinozic, T., & Lawton Smith, H. (2015). The role of universities in regional development: Conceptual models and policy institutions in the UK, Sweden and Austria. *European Planning Studies, 23*(9), 1722–1740. https://doi.org/10.1080/09654313.2015.1052782

Van den Broek, A., Van Campen, C., De Haan, J., Roeters, A., Turkenburg, M., & Vermeij, L. (2016). *De toekomst tegemoet. Leren, werken, zorgen, samenleven en consumeren in het Nederland van later*. Sociaal en Cultureel Planbureau.

Van der Waal, J., De Koster, W., & Achterberg, P. (2017). *Lager opgeleiden vertrouwen wetenschap veel minder*. https://www.socialevraagstukken.nl/lager-opgeleiden-vertrouwen-wetenschap-veel-minder/

Vasilescu, R., Barna, C., Epure, M., & Baicu, C. (2010). Developing university social responsibility: A model for the challenges of the new civil society. *Procedia—Social and Behavioral Sciences, 2*(2), 4177–4182. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.03.660

Weerts, D. J., & Sandmann, L. R. (2008). Building a two-way street: Challenges and opportunities for community engagement at research universities. *Review of Higher Education, 52*(1), 73–106. https://doi.org/10.1353/rhe.0.0027

Williams, R., & Cochrane, A. (2013). Universities, regions and social disadvantage. In P. Benneworth (Ed.), *University engagement with socially excluded communities* (pp. 67–81). Springer.

Winter, A., Wiseman, J., & Muirhead, B. (2006). University–community engagement in Australia: Practice, policy and public good. *Education, Citizenship and Social Justice, 1*(3), 211–230. https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/10.1177/1746197906064675

Zlotkowski, E. (1999). Pedagogy and engagement. In R. G. Bringle, R. Games, & E. A. Malloy (Eds.), *Colleges and universities as citizens* (96–120). Allyn and Bacon.

Increasing Learning While Serving the Community: Student Engagement as the Key to Learning in a Basic Public Speaking Course

Jami Leigh Warren and Deanna D. Sellnow

Abstract

Despite the significant amount of research published regarding the effect of service-learning on attitudinal measures such as empathy and civic engagement, little is known about how service-learning influences direct student learning outcomes. This pilot study employed a repeated measures, quasi-experimental design with a comparison group to compare cognitive and behavioral learning outcomes of students in two courses: a service-learning public speaking course (*n* = 84) and a traditionally taught public speaking course (*n* = 92). No significant differences were revealed between service-learning and non-service-learning students on measures of cognitive learning. However, service-learning student groups significantly outperformed their non-service-learning counterparts on measures of behavioral learning (application/performance of a skill). The article concludes by addressing issues uncovered in this pilot project and offering suggestions for additional research.

Keywords: service-learning, experiential learning, public speaking, cognitive learning, behavioral learning, learning outcome assessment

---

Experiential learning is becoming increasingly popular in universities across the United States. More specifically, service-learning is being embedded in college courses in general and communication courses in particular (e.g., Morse & Brooks, 2020; Oster-Aaland et al., 2004). By definition, service-learning is a pedagogical strategy in which students engage in volunteer work that will enhance their understanding of course concepts and also enable them to contribute to their communities (Rhodes & Davis, 2001). Furthermore, Eyler and Giles (1999) suggested that successful service-learning experiences meet four criteria: (1) personal and interpersonal development, (2) understanding and applying knowledge learned in class, (3) perspective transformation, and (4) a developed sense of citizenship. A substantial amount of research has been published on service-learning related to these outcome criteria (e.g., Able et al., 2014; Astin & Sax, 1998; M. Bloom, 2008; Borden, 2007; Einfeld & Collins, 2008; Eyler & Giles, 1999; Flournoy, 2007; Gullicks, 2006; Gutheil et al., 2006; Huda et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2008; Prentice, 2007; Simons & Cleary, 2006). However, as McIntyre and Sellnow (2014) revealed, such service experiences typically enhance three of the four outcomes. Perspective transformation appears to occur infrequently. Very few studies actually examine the relationships between service-learning and direct cognitive and behavioral learning outcomes. Experiential learning theory provides a foundation upon which to do so.

Theoretical Perspective

Dewey (1938) was among the first to examine experiential learning as a pedagogical best practice. He argued that traditional education does not provide students with skill development to deal with potential present and future issues. Instead, he suggested that students need hands-on experience or to be

engaged in real-life experiences in order to facilitate comprehensive understanding of course concepts.

Kolb (1984) expanded on Dewey's notions by suggesting that students need to experience four stages of learning: (1) concrete experience, (2) reflective observation, (3) abstract conceptualization, and (4) active experimentation. In other words, students learn best when they can focus on factual material regarding a concept (concrete experience), contemplate stories and specific real-life examples that exemplify a concept (reflective observation), examine visual representations of that concept (abstract conceptualization), and engage in activities that assist them with applying that specific concept (active experimentation). Although traditional classroom pedagogies typically afford students an opportunity to engage in the first three of the aforementioned stages, these pedagogies are not conducive to achieving active experimentation (i.e., activities applying an academic concept or skill in a real-life—beyond the classroom—context).

Service-learning provides students with ways to engage in active experimentation. That is, they actually participate in real-life, hands-on experiences where they apply specific concepts that they are learning in class. Rockquemore and Schaffer (2000) discovered that, although much is known about student perceptions of learning before and after completing a service-learning course, much less is known about how or why these positive affective learning outcomes occur. Thus, based on a comprehensive mixed methods project, they proposed a three-stage theory of the student engagement process in a service-learning course: (1) shock, (2) normalization, and (3) engagement. The first stage, shock, suggests that when students begin their service experience, they are truly in shock because they are surprised by the conditions that they are expected to work in and also at the conditions that others exist in. During the second stage, normalization, the shock of the new experience eventually wears off and students adapt to the experience. During this stage, students begin to feel more comfortable with their service location and see it as a "normal" experience. Finally, the third and most important stage for the purposes of this study is the engagement stage. During the engagement stage, students begin to apply what they are learning in class to the real-life examples they are experiencing at their service location. In other words, students become truly engaged and start to make connections between their experiences and what they are learning in class. As a result, students may begin to recognize course relevance, which may then lead to increased motivation to study and, ultimately, to better cognitive learning.

To clarify, a good deal of research reveals that student engagement behaviors are positively correlated with student motivation to learn (e.g., Martin, 2010). More specific to service-learning, when students participate in and apply course material to real-life experiences, perceptions about content relevance increase (e.g., Flournoy, 2007; Moely et al., 2002). When perceptions of relevance increase, motivation to study also increases (e.g., Frymier & Schulman, 1995; Liem & Martin, 2012). Moreover, as student motivation to study increases, cognitive learning tends to increase as well. For example, both Strage (2000) and Lundy (2007) found that students involved in service-learning courses achieved higher exam scores than students involved in non-service-learning courses. Similarly, Hsieh (2014), among others, discovered that motivation can predict behavioral learning outcome achievement. In essence, students engaged in a service-learning course should experience increased perceptions of content relevance, which should increase motivation to study and, ultimately, cognitive learning (see Figure 1).

Review of Literature

To date, service-learning research has focused on affective learning outcomes such as, for example, higher order thinking (Eyler & Giles, 1999), empathy (Lundy, 2007), cultural awareness (M. Bloom, 2008; Borden, 2007; Gutheil et al., 2006), personal and interpersonal development (Gullicks, 2006), awareness of social issues (Able et al., 2014), motivation to engage in social issues (Lee et al., 2008), motivation to study (Flournoy, 2007), life skills (Astin & Sax, 1998), self-efficacy (Simons & Cleary, 2006; Stewart, 2008), and civic engagement/responsibility (Astin & Sax, 1998; Einfeld & Collins, 2008; Gullicks, 2006; Lee et. al., 2008; McIntyre & Sellnow, 2014; Prentice, 2007; Simons & Cleary, 2006). Relatively few studies are dedicated to measuring the degree to which service-learning experiences improve cognitive or behavioral learning based on direct

Service Learning Experience	→	Content Relevance	→	Motivation to Study	→	Cognitive Learning
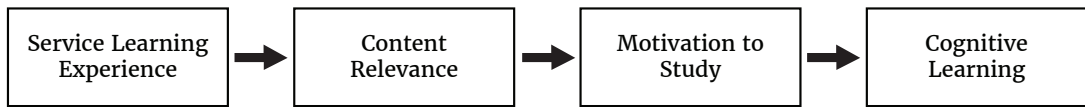
Figure 1. Service learning learning process

outcome assessment measures. To clarify, Novak et al. (2007) conducted a meta-analysis to evaluate cognitive outcomes of service-learning in higher education. Their research revealed only nine studies that examined service-learning and cognitive outcomes, and most of them were based on student self-reports or faculty testimonials. Therefore, these studies did not measure actual learning but, rather, student and faculty perceptions of learning.

The inherent challenges posed in measuring cognitive learning are well documented in both instructional communication and communication education research (Richmond et al., 2006). Further, many of the instruments used in them, such as the Learning Loss Measure (Richmond et al., 1987) and the Learning Indicators Scale (Frymier & Houser, 2000), measure student perceptions of their own learning. Although no single widely accepted measure for cognitive learning exists, Warren (2012) conducted a cross-disciplinary meta-analysis of 11 studies representing 2,129 service-learning students. The studies used a variety of student learning outcome measures ranging from self-reported data to exam scores (e.g., Strage, 2000) to major assignments (e.g., Lundy, 2007) to posttest cognition scales. Warren's (2012) analysis confirmed that, regardless of measurement tool, service-learning appears to have "a positive effect on student learning outcomes" (p. 59).

One study by Strage (2000) used exam scores rather than self-reports to measure cognitive learning among students enrolled in an introductory child development course. Exam scores from students enrolled in the service-learning course were compared with those of students who took the same course without the service-learning component. The service-learning students were required to complete a minimum of 20 hours of service at a school site. Students involved in the service-learning course scored significantly higher on all three exams than the non-service-learning students.

Lundy (2007) used exam scores along with a major assignment to measure cognitive learning in a life-span development course. Students were required to choose one of three course projects: a service-learning project, an interview project, or a research paper. Students selecting the service-learning project completed at least 2 weekly hours of service for 12 weeks for a minimum of 24 hours of service. Students who completed the service-learning project scored significantly higher on exams than their non-service-learning counterparts.

More recently, Nowell et al. (2020) examined knowledge of autism spectrum disorder (ASD) among undergraduate students using a general ASD knowledge survey and found that a service-learning approach improved cognitive learning between pre- and post-test. Another meta-analysis by Yorio and Ye (2012) revealed positive cognitive learning outcomes regarding service-learning and communication skills in business and management courses. However, no similar studies appear to have been published to date in communication courses specifically. Clearly, this gap in the literature warrants further research. As with any pedagogical strategy—and particularly one that often replaces in-class seat time with other experiences—administrators seek confirmation not only that it "works" to achieve student learning outcomes but also to potentially improve and certainly not reduce them (e.g., Baepler et al., 2014). Given that cognitive learning of communication skills has improved in conjunction with service-learning in other fields, it stands to reason that service-learning experiences may also improve them in courses dedicated solely to communication. Therefore, the current pilot study sought to begin addressing the gap by posing Research Question 1: "How does service-learning, as part of a basic public speaking course, affect students'

exam scores measuring understanding and application of public speaking concepts?"

Several studies have revealed that perception of content relevance increases student motivation to study (Frymier & Schulman, 1995; Liem & Martin, 2012). Other studies have reported positive correlations among engagement, motivation, and learning. No published studies appear to focus specifically on communication skill performance as a behavioral learning outcome in service-learning courses. It is plausible that students involved in a service-learning course may deliver better speeches than those in a non-service-learning course simply because they are more engaged and motivated even if in-class seat time is reduced or replaced with the service experience. As a result, this exploratory study also posited Research Question 2: "How does service-learning, as part of a basic public speaking course, affect students' performance on public speeches given in class?"

Method

Participants

Participants in this exploratory pilot study included 176 students enrolled in basic public speaking courses at a large public southeastern university of approximately 30,000 students. Since the basic public speaking course is required at this university, participants were already enrolled in the public speaking courses and, thus, not recruited for this pilot study. Of the 176 participants who were involved in this study, 84 were enrolled in service-learning public speaking courses and 92 were enrolled in traditional public speaking courses. Of the 176 participants, only 161 completed both the pre- and posttests, as 15 participants completed the posttest only. Approximately equal numbers of males and females participated, and the majority (approximately 71%) of the sample were freshmen and sophomore students. A variety of majors were represented in this study, ranging from accounting to art studio to social science majors. Finally, the majority of the sample (approximately 65%) did not have any previous experience with service-learning courses.

Procedures

A repeated measures, quasi-experimental study design with a comparison group was utilized in this study. Students enrolled in four service-learning public speaking courses at the university (n = 84) were compared with students enrolled in five traditional public speaking courses at the same university (n = 92). Four instructors taught these courses, and each was assigned to the classes they taught based on their availability (around their own graduate course schedules). Each instructor taught one service-learning course and one non-service-learning course to ensure better comparability across sections. One instructor taught one service-learning course and two non-service-learning courses. Additionally, instructors received training from the course director on service-learning on several occasions before the start of the school semester. Furthermore, instructors met weekly as the semester continued to ensure consistency in teaching and in grading across sections. All four instructors were doctoral students and teaching assistants. Three of the four instructors were female and one was male, and all instructors were White/non-Hispanic ethnicity. Students were not randomized into these conditions. They chose to enroll in the specific sections of the course that they were enrolled in. This study was IRB approved, and students provided consent for their data to be used for research purposes.

Gullicks (2006) found that a 10-hour service requirement provided a more effective experience for students. Therefore, students enrolled in the service-learning courses in this study participated in a 10-hour service requirement at one of five service locations, 2 hours per week over a 5-week period, as part of their course requirements, whereas traditionally taught students did not. Additionally, students were placed in teams of approximately five students. Each team visited the same service location five different times throughout the entire semester. Teams were chosen based on the students' choice of service location. On the first day of classes, representatives from all five service locations visited the students to describe their organization. All five organizations were nonprofit organizations. As a result of this discussion, students returned the following class period with a list of the organizations, in the order that they preferred, with their first choice listed first. The instructor then formed teams within the class based on students' requests for service location.

Additionally on the first day of class, stu-

dents in both the service-learning and non-service-learning courses completed a web-based pretest assessing cognitive learning of public speaking course concepts along with content relevance and previous experience with service-learning. Throughout the semester, students in both the service-learning and non-service-learning courses completed a series of speeches, one of which was used for analysis in this study. All student speeches were video and audio recorded. At the end of the semester, each group in the service-learning course presented a group symposium speech analyzing a problem associated with their service location and provided potential solutions to that problem. Students in the non-service-learning course also delivered group speeches; however, these groups analyzed a social problem not associated with a service location and provided potential solutions to that problem.

Quantitative content analysis was utilized to evaluate student speeches (Krippendorff, 2004). Two independent coders were trained to evaluate the student speeches via recording. A code sheet was initially developed based on the grading criteria used to evaluate speeches during the semester. The code sheet was then refined by the course director/researcher. Coders then met for a 3-hour training session to review the code sheet and to practice coding speeches. A total of 11 individual speeches not included in the sample for this study were coded. Coders reached 90% agreement after coding six speeches together. They coded an additional five speeches to ensure 90% interrater reliability. After training was completed, a total of 45 group speeches were evaluated. Each coder evaluated approximately half of the 45 group speeches. Once speeches were graded by coders, data was entered in SPSS and independent samples t-tests were used to examine speech score differences between students involved in service-learning versus those not involved in the service-learning course along several dimensions, including content, structure, delivery, individual score, and overall group score.

At the end of the semester, students in both courses completed a web-based posttest questionnaire assessing content relevance. The same cognitive learning measure that students completed on the pretest was included on the final exam that students completed for the course.

Measures

Cognitive Learning

For the purposes of this pilot project, cognitive learning was conceptually defined as knowledge acquisition. Operationally, cognitive learning was measured using 18 multiple choice questions that were compiled from the test bank associated with the textbook for the course. These exam questions are designed to measure multiple levels of thinking, including recall, application, synthesis, and evaluation (B. S. Bloom, 1956). The same 18 questions were asked on both the pretest and the final exam that students completed at the beginning and end of the semester. This cognitive learning measure had been tested for face validity with a group of 10 undergraduate students enrolled in a summer school course the previous semester. Students indicated that this measure made sense to them, and they did not have any problems completing the measure. Cronbach's alpha was not employed because each item measured knowledge or application of different public speaking concepts and, therefore, one would not expect the items to be internally consistent with one another.

Behavioral Learning

Behavioral learning was conceptualized for this exploratory study as the degree of skill with which students delivered their final public speech in class. In order to operationalize behavioral learning, students completed one group actuation speech. Speeches were later coded by independent coders for skill development in terms of content, structure, delivery, individual score, and overall group score. Details of this process are provided in the Procedures section.

Content Relevance

Content relevance was conceptually defined as student perception of whether instructional course content satisfied personal needs, personal goals, and/or career goals (Keller, 1983). Frymier and Shulman's (1995) 12-item content relevance scale was used in this study to operationalize content relevance on two occasions throughout the semester: at pretest and at posttest. This scale was modified for the purposes of this study in order to represent relevance of the course content and not the degree to which the instructor made the course content relevant. Questions on this scale consist of

Likert-type questions measuring content relevance on a scale from 0, *never*, to 4, *very often*. Both high-inference questions (those measuring global or generic perceptions) and low-inference questions (those measuring perceptions of specific behaviors) were included on this scale ($\propto$ = .935), and it was found to be both reliable and valid (Frymier & Shulman, 1995).

Results

To assess cognitive learning outcomes between students involved in each version of the course, independent samples *t*-tests were used to assess differences between student cognitive learning scores. Although students in the service-learning courses scored slightly higher on the posttest cognitive learning measure (*M* = 14.96, *SD* = 1.91) than those involved in the traditional courses (*M* = 14.82, *SD* = 1.72), the difference was not significant, *t*(174) = .544, *p* > .05.

As mentioned earlier, in order to assess differences in behavioral learning among students in service-learning and traditional versions of the course, two independent coders were trained to evaluate the student speeches via recording. Once speeches were graded by coders, independent samples t-tests were used to examine speech score differences between service-learning and non-service-learning students along several dimensions, including content, structure, delivery, individual score, and overall group score. Results indicated that service-learning students scored slightly higher (*M* = 13.96, *SD* = 1.19) than the non-service-learning students (*M* = 13.72, *SD* = 1.13) on the structure dimension. However, results were not significant, *t*(190) = 1.43, *p* > .05. Similarly, service-learning students also scored slightly higher on the delivery dimension (*M* = 22.58, *SD* = 2.07) than non-service-learning students (*M* = 22.37, *SD* = 2.16). Again, results were not significant, *t*(186) = .68, *p* > .05. Finally, service-learning student groups scored significantly higher overall (*M* = 3.25, *SD* = .61) than non-service-learning student groups (*M* =2.97, *SD* = .43), *t*(191) = 3.75, *p* < .001.

In order to assess differences in perceptions of relevance among service-learning and non-service-learning students, independent samples *t*-tests were used. Contrary to what was expected, non-service-learning students perceived the course as significantly more relevant (*M* = 3.24, *SD* = .55) than service-learning students (*M* = 2.78, *SD* = .74), *t*(174) = -4.68, *p* < .001.

Discussion

An ever-increasing number of colleges and universities are offering service-learning courses as an option across the curriculum. Although research suggests a number of benefits to engaging students in service-learning (e.g., Eyler & Giles, 1999; Gutheil et al., 2006; Yorio & Ye, 2012), relatively few have focused specifically on learning outcome achievement using direct assessment measures (e.g., Lundy, 2007; Strage, 2007). Even less research has been published to date on communication courses in particular and cognitive or behavioral learning outcome achievement in them (e.g., McIntyre & Sellnow, 2014; Warren, 2012). Therefore, this exploratory pilot study attempted to answer two research questions. Research Question 1 asked whether students in service-learning public speaking courses experienced increased knowledge of public speaking course concepts (cognitive learning). Research Question 2 asked whether these students performed better on their public speeches than students in traditionally taught public speaking courses (behavioral learning).

Although service-learning students performed slightly better on a cognitive learning measure at posttest than their non-service-learning counterparts, the difference was not significant. There are several potential reasons for lack of significant difference on the cognitive learning measure. First, this was a pilot study and, as such, represents a first attempt to implement a service-learning approach in the public speaking course at this university. Consequently, coordination between students and service agencies was challenging at times and did garner some negative reactions among students in the service-learning courses. It is plausible that these negative perceptions decreased motivation to study among the service-learning students and, thus, cognitive learning (e.g., Novak et al., 2007). However, we find it encouraging that service-learning students performed slightly better on the cognitive learning measure than their non-service-learning counterparts even though they spent less seat time covering material in the classroom than those in the traditionally taught sections. This result seems to suggest what has been confirmed in other

fields: that "learning outcomes were at least as good, and in one comparison significantly better than, those in a traditional classroom" (Baepler et al., 2014, p. 227). Finally, because the sample size was small, low statistical power could have contributed to the insignificant results.

Several encouraging conclusions can also be drawn regarding behavioral learning. On individual classroom speeches, for example, service-learning students performed better than non-service-learning students on two of the three dimensions of effective speaking (delivery and structure) and similarly on the other (content). Moreover, service-learning students significantly outperformed non-service-learning students in their group symposium team speeches. This conclusion extends what is known about reduced seat time in public speaking classes that employ problem-based learning (Sellnow & Ahlfeldt, 2005). To clarify, it appears that reducing seat time to allow for service experiences also does not hurt behavioral learning and, in fact, increases it on some dimensions. Our finding also extends research about improved behavioral learning outcomes among student groups enrolled in problem-based learning courses to that of service-learning courses.

Finally, non-service-learning students perceived the course material to be significantly more relevant than did their service-learning counterparts. Of note here is the fact that the communication course content was based on the same textbook and learning outcome criteria (content, structure, and delivery of effective public speaking) in all sections. Thus, this conclusion suggests that instructors of service-learning public speaking courses may need to do more to establish the relevance of service in a public speaking course.

Implications

Several implications for service-learning practice also emerged from this pilot study. First, although it was important that service-learning students not feel they were doing "extra" work by completing service hours in addition to their regular classwork, decreasing time in class was not a good way to accomplish this. Because time in class was decreased, instructors often felt they did not have enough time to cover what they needed to cover, and students felt they were not sufficiently prepared for their exams and assignments. Therefore, it is important

that service-learning instructors ensure there is enough class time to cover course content, yet not overburden students with additional work beyond what a traditional public speaking class would require. This could occur in a variety of ways. For example, instructors for service-learning public speaking courses could implement lecture material online that students are required to engage with outside class. It is also possible to require that students simply complete the service-learning component of the course outside normal class time so that time in class is spent covering course content.

Next, students often were frustrated with coordination problems involving service-learning organization representatives. Nonprofit organization representatives are extremely busy and often overworked. Representatives often struggled to find time to accommodate the students' varying schedules at their organization, making it difficult for students to complete the required service hours. Therefore, it is important that educators who implement a service-learning component to their courses ensure that organization representatives will have time to work with students and involve them in meaningful projects. Communication is likely key here to ensure organization representatives understand what the course requires of students and of themselves. Integrating frequent meetings or communication with organization representatives at times convenient for them, perhaps before work hours begin or during a lunch hour, is a promising way to ensure clarity of expectations for both students and their organization partners. It is also important that service-learning instructors make the rationale for service-learning clear to students so students understand what is expected of them in the course. Finally, as results of this study suggested, service-learning students perceived significantly lower content relevance than non-service-learning students at posttest. Therefore, it is important that educators continue making the connections between course material and the service work students are performing.

Limitations

As with all research, the results of this exploratory study should be interpreted with an understanding of its limitations. First, because the sample is limited to one university, results are not necessarily gener-

alizable to students at other universities. A second limitation is the use of web-based survey methods to gather pre- and post-test data. Although web-based surveys are convenient, they have inherent weaknesses. It is difficult to ascertain whether students took the pre- and posttests seriously. The advantages of using web-based survey methods, however, outweighed the disadvantages in this study. Using web-based survey methods allowed the researcher to quickly reach all public speaking students electronically and enter and analyze the data more efficiently.

Next, service-learning students spent 1 hour per week less time physically seated in the classroom than non-service-learning students. This difference in groups could bias the results. Perhaps service-learning students would have differed significantly on measures of cognitive learning if they had spent the same amount of time in class as non-service-learning students.

Finally, although both groups of students worked in teams throughout the semester, service-learning student groups may have exhibited more cohesion than non-service-learning students because they participated in service assignments together. This difference could also influence the results related to behavioral learning in this study and is worthy of future research.

Directions for Future Research

Conclusions and limitations of this pilot study also point to several directions for future research. First, a replication study where service-learning and non-service-learning students spend equal amounts of time in class might show changes in cog-

nitive learning outcomes. Future research might also explore why service-learning students significantly outperformed non-service-learning students on the group symposium speeches. What aspects of the service-learning experience might have improved overall speech quality? Possibilities include improved teamwork, group cohesion, or service-learning students being more motivated by or more invested in their group speech because they spent time throughout the semester working in a real nonprofit organization. Finally, future research should address best practices for working with organizations to ensure that the experience is mutually beneficial to both students and the organizations in which they serve.

Conclusion

Service-learning is increasingly prevalent among college and university classrooms in the United States, and especially in communication departments. Research confirms that service-learning may increase a number of important student outcomes such as civic responsibility, empathy, engagement, and motivation to study. Equally and perhaps even more important is assessing whether and how much service-learning influences direct student learning outcomes. This exploratory pilot study begins to fill that research void for communication courses generally and a basic public speaking course specifically. As we continue to integrate experiential learning such as service-learning into our courses, we are obligated to make informed choices based on data-driven, theoretically grounded research. Failure to do so is not only ill-advised but irresponsible.

About the Authors

Jami Leigh Warren is an assistant professor and director of undergraduate studies in Human Health Sciences in the College of Health Sciences at the University of Kentucky.

Deanna D. Sellnow is professor of communication in the Nicholson School of Communication and Media at the University of Central Florida.

References

Able, H., Ghulamani, H., Mallous, R., & Glazier, J. (2014). Service learning: A promising strategy for connecting future teachers to the lives of diverse children and their families. *Journal of Early Childhood Teacher Education, 35*(1), 6–21. https://doi.org/10.1080/10901027.2013.874383

Astin, A. W., & Sax, L. J. (1998). How undergraduates are affected by service participation. *Journal of College Student Development, 39*(3), 251–263.

Baepler, P., Walker, J. D., & Driessen, M. (2014). It's not about seat time: Blending, flipping, and efficiency in active learning classrooms. *Computers & Education, 78*, 227–236. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2014.06.006

Bloom, B. S. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: Handbook I: Cognitive domain*. McKay.

Bloom, M. (2008). From the classroom to the community: Building cultural awareness in first semester Spanish. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum, 21*(2), 103–119. https://doi.org/10.1080/07908310802287442

Borden, A. W. (2007). The impact of service-learning on ethnocentrism in an intercultural communication course. *Journal of Experiential Education, 30*(2), 171–183. https://doi.org/10.1177/105382590703000206

Dewey, J. (1938). *Experience and education*. The Macmillan Company.

Einfeld, A., & Collins, D. (2008). The relationships between service learning, social justice, multicultural competence, and civic engagement. *Journal of College Student Development, 49*(2), 95–109. https://doi.org/10.1353/csd.2008.0017

Eyler, J. S., & Giles, D. E. (1999). *Where's the learning in service learning?* Jossey-Bass.

Flournoy, C. (2007). Doing learning: Investigative reporting and service learning. *Journalism and Mass Communication Educator, 62*(1), 47–61. https://doi.org/10.1177/107769580706200105

Frymier, A. B., & Houser, M. L. (2000). The teacher–student relationship as an interpersonal relationship. *Communication Education, 49*(3), 207–219. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634520009379209

Frymier, A. B., & Shulman, G. M. (1995). "What's in it for me?": Increasing content relevance to enhance students' motivation. *Communication Education, 44*(1), 40–50. https://doi.org/10.1080/03634529509378996

Gullicks, K. A. (2006). *What's service got to do with it? Investigating student sense-making of required service in the basic communication course* (Publication No. AAT 3264681) [Doctoral dissertation, North Dakota State University]. Dissertations & Theses: Full Text Database.

Gutheil, I. A., Chernesky, R. H., & Sherratt, M. L. (2006). Influencing student attitudes toward older adults: Results of a service-learning collaboration. *Educational Gerontology, 32*(9), 771–784. https://doi.org/10.1080/03601270600835470

Hsieh, T. L. (2014). Motivation matters? The relationship among different types of learning motivation, engagement behaviors and learning outcomes of undergraduate students in Taiwan. *Higher Education, 68*(3), 417–433. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-014-9720-6

Huda, M., Teh, K. S. M., Muhamad, N. H. N., & Nasir, B. M. (2018). Transmitting leadership based civic responsibility: Insights from service learning. *International Journal of Ethics and Systems, 34*(1). https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOES-05-2017-0079

Keller, J. M. (1983). Motivational design of instruction. In C. M. Reigeluth (Ed.), *Instructional design theories: An overview of their current status* (pp. 383–434). Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Prentice-Hall.

Krippendorff, K. (2004). *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology*. Sage.

Lee, S. Y., Olszewski-Kubilius, P., Donahue, R., & Weimbolt, K. (2008). The civic leadership institute: A service-learning program for academically gifted youth. *Journal of Advanced Academics, 19*(2), 272–308. https://doi.org/10.4219/jaa-2008-773

Liem, G. A. D., & Martin, A. J. (2012). The motivation and engagement scale: Theoretical framework, psychometric properties, and applied yields. *Australian Psychologist, 47*(1), 3–13. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1742-9544.2011.00049.x

Lundy, B. L. (2007). Service learning in life-span developmental psychology: Higher exam scores and increased empathy. *Teaching of Psychology, 34*(1), 23–27. https://doi.org/10.1080/00986280709336644

Martin, A. J. (2010). *Building classroom success: Eliminating academic fear and failure*. Continuum.

McIntyre, K. A., & Sellnow, D. D. (2014). A little bit can go a long way: An examination of required service in the basic communication course. *Communication Teacher, 28*(1), 57–73. https://doi.org/10.1080/17404622.2013.843012

Moely, B. E., McFarland, M., Miron, D., Mercer, S., & Ilustre, V. (2002). Changes in college students' attitudes and intentions for civic involvement as a function of service-learning experiences. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 9*(1), 18–26. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0009.102

Morse, R., & Brooks, E. (2020, September 13). *Programs to look for. U.S. News and World Report.* https://www.usnews.com/education/best-colleges/articles/programs-to-look-for

Novak, J. M., Markey, V., & Allen, M. (2007). Evaluating cognitive outcomes of service learning in higher education: A meta-analysis. *Communication Research Reports, 24*(2), 149–157. https://doi.org/10.1080/08824090701304881

Nowell, S. W., Regan, T., Amsbary, J., Crais, E., & Able, H. (2020). The impact of service-learning on undergraduate awareness and knowledge of autism spectrum disorder. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 24*(1), 55–72. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1554

Oster-Aaland, L. K., Sellnow, T. L., Nelson, P. E., & Pearson, J. C. (2004). The status of service learning in departments of communication: A follow-up study. *Communication Education, 53*(4), 348–356. https://doi.org/10.1080/0363452032000305959

Prentice, M. (2007). Service learning and civic engagement. *Academic Questions, 20,* 135–145. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12129-007-9005-y

Rhodes, N. J., & Davis, J. M. (2001). Using service learning to get positive reactions in the library. *Computers in Libraries, 21*(1), 32–35.

Richmond, V. P., Gorham, J. S., & McCroskey, J. C. (1987). The relationship between selected immediacy behaviors and cognitive learning. In M. L. McLaughlin (Ed.), *Communication yearbook 10* (pp. 574–590). Sage.

Richmond, V. P., Lane, D. R., & McCroskey, J. C. (2006). Teacher immediacy and the teacher-student relationship. In T. P. Mottet, V. P. Richmond, & J. C. McCroskey (Eds.), *Handbook of instructional communication: Rhetorical and relational perspectives* (pp. 167–193). Pearson.

Rockquemore, K. A., & Schaffer, R. H. (2000). Toward a theory of engagement: A cognitive mapping of service-learning experiences. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 7,* 14–25. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0007.102

Sellnow, D. D., & Ahlfeldt, S. L. (2005). Fostering critical thinking and teamwork skills via a problem-based learning (PBL) approach to public speaking fundamentals. *Communication Teacher, 19*(1), 33–38. https://doi.org/10.1080/1740462042000339258

Simons, L., & Cleary, B. (2006). The influence of service learning on students' personal and social development. *College Teaching, 54*(4), 304–319. https://doi.org/10.3200/CTCH.54.4.307-319

Stewart, T. (2008). Community service, self-efficacy and first-year undergraduate honors service learning. In M. A. Bowdon, S. H. Billig, & B. A. Holland (Eds.), *Scholarship for sustaining service-learning and civic engagement* (pp. 29–53). Information Age Publishing.

Strage, A. A. (2000). Service-learning: Enhancing student learning outcomes in a college-level lecture course. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 7*, 5–13. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0007.101

Warren, J. L. (2012). Does service-learning increase student learning?: A meta-analysis. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 18*(2), 56–61. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0018.205

Yorio, P. L., & Ye, F. (2012). A meta-analysis on the effects of service-learning on the social, personal, and cognitive outcomes of learning. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 11*(1), 9–27. https://doi.org/10.5465/amle.2010.007

Supporting University–Community Partnerships: A Qualitative Inquiry With Contingent Academics to Understand Their Scholarship of Engagement

Cecile H. Sam, Brent C. Elder, and Stacey Leftwich

Abstract

Using a qualitative interview design and the conceptual framework of an engaged campus (Furco, 2010), this article examines the engaged scholarship of contingent academics in a university–community partnership with several professional development schools in the United States. This article highlights some facets that make their engaged scholarship different from traditional scholarship, and the challenges in meeting responsibilities to both the community and university. The purpose of this article is to extend our understanding of community-engaged scholarship and help higher education institution administrators think about policies to support contingent academics participating in other community partnerships.

Keywords: university–community partnerships, contingent academics, higher education policies, engaged scholarship

Many research universities have made a scholarship of engagement one of the core components of their mission—to take the intellectual, resource, and human capital found within the university and apply them to key issues that affect regional development (O'Meara, 2010; Puukka & Marmolejo, 2008; Stanton, T., 2008). One of the mechanisms for regional development is university–community partnerships (Buys & Bursnall, 2007; Coburn & Penuel, 2016; Murphy & McGrath, 2018) that take the form of long-term, mutual working partnerships between the higher education institutions and the surrounding community stakeholders. In the case of education departments and programs in countries such as the United States, Canada, Australia, Finland, and Singapore, this partnership can involve working with schools via collaboratively developed immersive residency models where academics and school leaders use research to focus on a problem of practice (Darling-Hammond, 2017; Latham & Wedwick, 2009; Zenkov et al., 2016). Partnerships with these schools can be beneficial for both parties—the university continues to meet its mission for regional development, and local schools and districts can address their specific concerns with some positive educational outcomes (Coburn & Penuel, 2016; Snow et al., 2016).

As policymakers, funders, and universities become more interested in university–community partnerships, it is important for researchers to explore the work that academics perform in these partnerships. This understanding can inform institutional policies around the work (Buys & Bursnall, 2007; Kajner et al., 2012; Murphy & McGrath, 2018). Depending on the model, the responsibilities of maintaining a successful partnership from the university side can fall on contingent academics (Kezar & Maxey, 2015; Ward, 2003). In the United

States and Canada, contingent academics work full time or part time and are on contract rather than tenure track (Kezar & Sam, 2010). This employment model has parallels in "fixed-term contracts" in the United Kingdom and "casual" or "session employment" in Australia. Even for tenured and tenure-track academics, finding a way to meet university and partnership responsibilities can be difficult, especially if the institutional policies do not support the work (Sandmann et al., 2008). For contingent academics who do not have the protection of tenure, being unable to meet responsibilities may lead to unemployment (Austin, 2003; O'Meara, 2010).

This article uses the conceptual lens of the engaged university (Furco, 2010) to explore the work of contingent academics and their scholarship of engagement. More specifically, it looks at contingent academics working in an immersive residency model termed the "professional development school" network at a public research university in the northeastern United States. In this network, contingent academics are titled "professors-in-residence," and they are situated within 11 local schools. We designed a qualitative inquiry study and asked the following questions:

1. What are the experiences of contingent academics trying to conduct a scholarship of engagement in these professional development schools?

2. How can the university support contingent academics who are conducting engaged scholarship in a university–community partnership?

To answer these research questions, we first provide a review of the literature. Next, we provide the conceptual framework for this research: the engaged campus (Furco, 2010), situating academic work within that framework. We follow with a description of the methodology and our findings. This article ends with a discussion of how to think about institutional policies as a means for institutions to support community-engaged scholarship through these partnerships.

Review of the Literature

There are numerous ways to explore what community engagement means for a higher education institution's mission. The form of such work ranges from community service to regional engagement (Kroll et al., 2013).

For this article, we focus on a scholarship of engagement, or engaged scholarship (Barker, 2004, p. 125), in the form of a university–community partnership. Boyer (1990) argued for the value of engaged scholarship in his seminal work *Scholarship Reconsidered*. This scholarship involves a mutually beneficial relationship between academics and the community, and it is an "integration of teaching, research, and service" (Sandmann, 2008, p. 96). In the field of education, engaged scholarship can involve a partnership with schools to help solve problems of practice in a local context.

Sandmann (2008) has argued that engaged scholarship is currently in the fourth stage of its evolution, the "institutionalization of the scholarship of engagement within and across academe" (p. 98). At this stage, institutions have generally recognized the value of engaged scholarship, and the challenge is determining how to integrate it within institutional structures.

Even though many higher education institutions have made public and civic engagement part of their mission, the result sometimes has been described as "tokenism" where programs and initiatives have "little or no real effect on the broader, overall mission and work of the academy" (Fitzgerald et al., 2012, p. 23). This may reflect the lack of alignment between the public engagement mission of the institution and existing policies such as academic reward structures. The literature indicates that many academic reward structures do not place an equal value on engaged community scholarship compared to more traditional scholarship, to the extent that some academics have perceived that they are being discouraged from engaged scholarship (Buys & Bursnall, 2007; Checkoway, 2013). When institutional tenure and promotion policies fail to align with a public scholarship mission, indicating that institutions may not value engaged scholarship, junior academics seeking tenure may be deterred from conducting such work (Buys & Bursnall, 2007; O'Meara, 2010).

For those higher education institutions that want to maintain their mission of community engagement but will not or cannot align their tenure-track academic reward structures, there is another option: contingent academics. In the United States, contingent academics are full-time or part-time limited contract employees engaged in teaching, research, service, or any combina-

tion of the three (Gerhke & Kezar, 2015). Often these positions lack job security and protections of academic freedom. In terms of degree attainment, Laurence (2013) found that in 4-year institutions, approximately 30% of contingent academics had a doctoral degree, and 46.5% reported having only a master's. There is also some crossover of contingent academic employment and graduate students. In a study on contingent academics, the American Association of University Professors (2018) found that at research institutions, graduate students make up a large percentage of contingent appointments, replacing part-time positions.

Universities have used contingent academic staff for unbundling the professional components of academic labor—teaching, research, and service—into disparate parts (Austin, 2003; Gerhke & Kezar, 2015). A growing trend may also be unbundling types of scholarship, relegating engaged scholarship to contingent academics. Matthews and Wilder (2018) noted that a substantial number of contingent academics fulfill service-learning roles. Some institutions explicitly unbundle engaged scholarship by using the designation "professor of practice" for fixed-contract academics who are engaged in that type of work (Ernst et al., 2005; Willets, 2017).

Although once considered a small population, contingent workers now constitute the majority of academic appointments in the United States (Kezar & Sam, 2010). Similar trends can be seen in the increase of casual contracts in the United Kingdom and Australia (Cavalli & Moscati, 2010; Loveday, 2018). Broadly speaking, contingent academics have experienced an otherness that separates them from tenure-track academics (Haviland et al., 2017). The existing literature on contingent academics has examined their experiences in academia with regard to teaching (Kezar, 2013), service (Levin & Shaker, 2011; Waltman et al., 2012), and scholarship (Kezar, 2013; Ott & Cisneros, 2015). Contingent academics in the United States and Canada often lack institutional and social support for their work across all three missions of higher education (Kezar & Sam, 2010, 2013; Haviland et al., 2017). Research on two-tiered academics in Australia (Kimber, 2003) and the United Kingdom has found that casual contract academics may be experiencing working conditions similar to those of their North American counterparts.

Regarding a scholarship of engagement that includes some combination of teaching, research, and service, aside from a recent phenomenological study conducted by Matthews and Wilder (2018), little empirical research has focused specifically on the contingent experience. Levin and Shaker (2011) argued that contingent academics tend to be overlooked. Much of the literature on scholarship of engagement already focuses on tenure-track academics (e.g., O'Meara et al., 2013; O'Meara et al., 2011; Sandmann, 2008). When they are included in research, the differences in their experience are not highlighted or the employment status of the participant is unknown (e.g., Buys & Bursnall, 2007; O'Meara & Niehaus, 2009). Matthews and Wilder (2018) found that those non-tenure-track academics who engaged in service-learning community-engaged scholarship experienced isolation, difficulty conducting scholarship, lack recognition for their work, and a need for their own academic community.

Professional Development Schools as an Example of University–Community Partnership

Current literature on immersive residency models, such as professional development schools, in the United States focuses on ways schools and universities collaborate to improve existing teacher education and practice (Zenkov et al., 2016) or student outcomes (Castle et al., 2008). Similar university–community partnership models can be found in other countries, such as Australia, where "university faculty are working with teams of teachers and student-teachers in schools—undertaking curriculum planning, school improvement strategies and research" (Darling-Hammond, 2017, p. 300). This emphasis on either teacher education or school-level research often means that the literature focuses on elementary or secondary education rather than the university side of the work. Likewise, there is a dearth of higher education research that examines academics' experience engaging with schools or any similar university–community partnership in education, though Coburn et al. (2013) described work that is making inroads in that area. With over 1,000 school sites throughout the United States alone (Schwartz, 2002) working in partnership with higher education institutions and their respective academic staff,

it is important to understand this work for future policy.

Theoretical Framework

The Engaged Campus

To understand the experiences of academic staff as professors-in-residence, we use Furco's (2010) engaged campus as a theoretical framework. Furco (2010) connected the traditional three categories of academic work (teaching, research, and service) to the community. The result is three overlapping key components: (a) community-engaged teaching, (b) community-based research, and (c) community service and outreach. At the center of the engaged campus where the three circles converge is what Furco (2010) described as a community service–based capstone experience that includes a "strong research component" and seeks "to provide service to the community to address an important, identified community need" (p. 382).

Furco (2010) defined *community-engaged teaching* as providing students opportunities to learn from and within the broader community while simultaneously being able to give back to it. In this article, community engagement can include experiences like district-school internships or clinical experiences and clinical practice for teacher candidates. *Community-based research* differs from more traditional conceptions of public engagement because it encourages members of the community as well as university-based academic staff to shape the research agenda by identifying the genuine interests of the community (Furco, 2010; Stanton, C. R., 2014). Lastly, in *community service and outreach*, scholars within the university utilize their expertise to provide assistance to the community via volunteerism or outreach programs.

For this article, we locate professional development school work at the center of Furco's (2010) engaged campus. We frame this capstone experience as four "nonnegotiable" responsibilities that each person must meet in their role as a professor-in-residence. These responsibilities were established by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (2008) and guided the National Association of Professional Development Schools (2008) nine essentials of professional development school work. These four nonnegotiables were adopted as core principles: (a) provide practicum, student teaching, and internship experiences; (b) support and enable the professional development of school and higher education academics; (c) support and enable inquiry directed at the improvement of practice; and (d) support and enhance student achievement.

Methodology

Supported by the literature on engaged scholarship (O'Meara et al., 2011; Sandmann, 2008) and the above theoretical framework, this study is part of a larger community-based participatory research inquiry (Beh et al., 2013; Stanton, C. R., 2014) to improve the policies and practices for all academics engaged in professional development school work. This larger inquiry used documents that included qualitative memos from program orientations and retreats, agendas, and minutes from monthly meetings. There were also mid- and end-of-year progress reports. From these document-based data we recognized that despite a large overlap in experiences with tenure-track academics, contingent academics also varied in significant ways.

Recognizing a need to investigate these differences, we situated a smaller inquiry within the larger project. This particular study utilizes qualitative interview design (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Patton, 2002) to delve further into the contingent academic experience. These interviews allowed contingent academics to voice their own experience and their needs for conducting engaged scholarship, separate from those who have different appointments. Institutional Review Board clearance was obtained.

Context of Study

The site of study is a college of education housed within a 4-year public research university in the northeastern United States. In alignment with its mission, the college established a partnership with 11 schools. At this university, the Office of Educator Support and Partnerships is charged with supporting this model of engaged scholarship and is the main point of contact for all schools and their respective academic staff.

Each professional development school in the network has one person who is a professor-in-residence, and that person must be employed by the university. In order to be

a professor-in-residence, the person must be employed in an academic capacity (i.e., teaching or research). These academics can be tenure track, tenured, or on a fixed-term contract. Even though a doctoral degree is not required, research experience is preferred. At the time of this study, very few pretenured or tenured academics have been willing to take the position of professor-in-residence as part of their scholarship. Thus, a majority of professors-in-residence are fixed-term academics.

Participants

The nine participants for this study were all professors-in-residence working in this university–community partnership. All participants shared several sets of descriptors. First, each participant was a contingent academic with a fixed-term 10-month contract. Similar to other types of academics in the institution, for renewal each person had to submit a portfolio detailing their research, teaching, and service. Their employment responsibilities included teaching at the university and participation in departmental service. Second, each participant had a teaching certification and extensive teaching experience in elementary or secondary school settings. Third, each participant was required to hold a master's degree.

One participant had received a doctoral degree, and five held dual roles as doctoral students and contingent academics. Among the five, one held the position of professor-in-residence a year prior to becoming a doctoral student. It is important to note that despite the dual academic identity of these five participants, they still had the same teaching, research, and service requirements that are expected of all university contingent academic hires in a similar position. It is also important to note that several participants in this study had also held other academic fixed-contract positions as instructors prior to being professors-in-residence. See Table 1 for an overview of participant demographics.

Data Sources

For this article, we collected data from all participants using three sources. First, as part of the broader community-based participatory research inquiry, we conducted a round of in-person, informal conversational interviews (Fontana & Frey, 2000; Patton, 2002). During these sessions, we spoke with the participants about their general experiences working as professors-in-residence at their respective schools. We chose this approach because unstructured interviews allowed the participants to focus on any aspect of their work they wanted to discuss and offered the researcher freedom to ask questions as they arose from the immediate context (Patton, 2002). Brent kept memos from these interviews.

The next source of data was an additional round of in-person audio-recorded interviews. For this round, we chose a semistructured guided interview approach (Patton, 2002) because it allowed us to further explore some of the emerging themes that arose from the first interview analysis. At the same time, the semistructured format also gave the participants flexibility to talk about any experiences that might not have been directly listed in the protocol and allowed us to pursue different avenues of inquiry based on those particular experiences (Patton, 2002). Common questions in the second round reflected some of the themes that were emerging in the initial data analysis: (a) What advice would you give to an incoming professor-in-residence who has never done any professional development school work before? (b) What do you wish you knew about your roles/responsibilities as a professor-in-residence prior to beginning your current position? (c) What types of supports would you like/would have liked in your position as a professor-in-residence?

Finally, we conducted a third round of structured written interviews (Patton, 2002). This third round of interviews was designed as a follow-up with the participants from the previous rounds of interviews, and any clarifying questions occurred via email.

Data Analysis

The analysis followed Braun and Clarke's (2006) steps for thematic analysis. Data analysis was an iterative process (Braun & Clarke, 2006) occurring between rounds and informing the next round of data collection. We coded data in three phases: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007), which resulted in the identification of eight significant themes pertaining to the participants' experience. We analyzed all data systematically and collaboratively to ensure intercoder reliability (Patton, 2002) and organized and

Table 1. Description of Contingent Academics and Their Teaching and Research Experience				
Contingent academic	**Past K–12 teaching experience**	**Experience teaching in higher education**	**Number of years as a professor-in-residence**	**In a PhD program (y/n)**
Contingent Academic 1: Grace	14 years	1 year	1 year	N
Contingent Academic 2: Erica	8 years	1 year	2 years	Y
Contingent Academic 3: Macy	6 years	4.5 years	2 years	Y
Contingent Academic 4: Derrick	10 years	7 years	2 years	Y
Contingent Academic 5: Nora	10 years	1 year	1 year	Y
Contingent Academic 6: Wayne	6 years	3 year	<1 year	N
Contingent Academic 7: Kelly	5 years	2 years	2 years	Y
Contingent Academic 8: Lori	6 years	2 years	<1 year	N
Contingent Academic 9: Richard	6 years	3 years	2 years	N

maintained the data with Dedoose software (Lieber & Weisner, 2015).

Results

Below, we thematically present the results based on the data, using interview excerpts from the nine contingent academics.

Navigating Multiple Roles in One Position

The participants in this article had to play multiple roles that spanned the school and university settings. When asked to describe their role, most respondents answered with a series of numerous roles such as "supervisor of clinical practice interns, facilitators of [culturally responsive pedagogy] professional development, researcher, teach on-site courses, liaison between the university and school" (Macy).

Some of the roles described were specific to either the school or university setting.

At the school level, the participants were a resource for the teachers and administration, providing professional development and on-site support to teachers. At the university level, the participants were also academics who belonged to departments, taught undergraduate and/or master's level courses, and were expected to produce research. However, participants also had roles that were at the nexus of the school and university settings (Gauntner & Hansman, 2017). For example, they were key in the college's student-teaching program. They were responsible for student-teacher placement and providing those student-teachers with various supports and experiences. To develop a comprehensive professional development plan for school and other higher education academics, the contingent academics also established themselves as liaisons between the schools and the university. Supporting people on various levels required them to develop nurturing, delicate, and vital relationships between

student-teachers, the university, and the schools.

Having so many roles and responsibilities can be challenging. When asked about the sources of tension that they experienced, respondents also spoke about having these different roles. For example, Erica enumerated, "Wearing several hats as a trainer and a colleague of teachers; balancing school needs and [university] perceptions of what a [professor-in-residence] is; being a PhD student and a professor; politics at [the university] and at [the district]."

Aligning Scholarly Expertise and Community Interest

Research is a core part of a scholarship of engagement, but unlike traditional scholarship, engaged research is driven by community needs. However, community needs and academic staff expertise and interests may not necessarily be aligned. The data indicated that some contingent academics needed more time to find ways to connect their expertise with the needs of the school. In the following excerpt, Macy articulated how she took a year to accomplish this task.

> Having been [at the school] a year and working really hard building relationships is finally paying off. I feel like I am doing what the school needs me to do, and that's great. . . . I was able to tie [the professional development] in with what I am passionate about, which is research on racial linguistics related to race, ethnicity, and language.

Misalignment between the scholars and the community interest may cause several issues. First, the scholars may not be able to conduct research that is within their expertise, or they must devote already limited time to learning a new content area. Second, community needs may remain unfilled, which defeats the purposes of engaged scholarship. Nora described a misalignment between her research interests and the needs of her school:

> One of the things that I am grappling with is that my concentration in my PhD program is urban education, and my work is not in an urban context. So, moving forward, as we place professors-in-residence in schools, thinking about their research interests and how that is in alignment with the need at the school.

Although Nora felt her background and expertise did meet her school's needs, she also felt that the suburban school with a majority of middle-class students did not fulfill her own interest in urban education. Because she specifically wanted to gain experience in urban schools, this misalignment could keep her from engaging in the type of scholarship she desires and limit her productivity as a researcher.

Investing Time With the Community

All scholarship takes time. From development of studies to implementation and final production, it is a labor-intensive process. In terms of a community service–based experience, contingent academics have reported investing a large portion of time trying to be recognized as members of the school community, or at the very least to develop trust among the community members (Kajner et al., 2012). One participant, Erica, articulated how long it took to be recognized: "Prior to going to spring break, I was finally included as a true member of the community." Once she felt accepted, she felt she could take her work with the school further.

In interviews, contingent academics consistently discussed the need to develop trusting relationships with school partners as they strove to meet their responsibilities. Grace underscored the importance of building trusting relationships. She stated,

> So, what I think that's going really well is the connection with the principals and with the teachers. I really understand the relationship and how it's supposed to be. They have to fully trust me before they accept me in their classrooms or even as part of their school community.

Grace further explained how gaining trust was a gradual process. She believed the teachers and administrators valued her expertise and thus began welcoming her into various school spaces as a trusted and valuable resource.

Almost all the contingent academics reported that it took at least several months and up to an entire school year to develop rela-

tionships within the community. However, the "publish or perish" framework of some research institutions, as well as some of the outcome-driven decision making that occurs when evaluating the success of programs, squeeze contingent academics between institutional protocols demanding justification for investment of resources and communities where groundwork cannot be rushed. Not investing the appropriate time can result in the community shutting out the scholar, which may ultimately undermine the goal of the engaged research.

Having Rich Opportunities for Research

One of the potential benefits of situating academic labor within an engaged campus is the opportunity for academics to combine service, teaching, and research. This means that ideally professors-in-residence should be able to produce research from their respective sites. Macy is one participant who recognized the potential for research in her position:

> I'm like a kid in a candy store when it comes to data. It's flying off the walls. It's all over the place. Also, as someone growing as a novice researcher, this is the best situation for me. I appreciate way more now than I did [last year] . . . I am also co-authoring with teachers at my [site].

Once she realized her school was a source of rich data, Macy engaged teachers in the research process, began coauthoring relationships, and encouraged teachers to present their collaborative research at a symposium, highlighting how she was able to connect her teaching, research, and service in her work.

One of the challenges that such opportunities for research present is balancing the research component with the rest of the work. Erica explained, "I feel like I don't have a lot of time that I wish I had to dedicate myself to the research. It's always a balancing act. Research is always a part of my job, like if I want my job, it has to happen. . . ." The other responsibilities that come with working as a professor-in-residence also required her time and attention.

Needing Research Support

Despite the rich potential for research, not everyone may be able to utilize that oppor-

tunity equally. As universities continue to unbundle professional academic labor into different components (Gehrke & Kezar, 2015), staff performing engaged scholarship may have varying levels of expertise. In this study, all of the contingent academics had extensive teaching and professional experience in schools, but less experience conducting research. Grace, who had the most professional experience, had the least research experience. She described her perceptions:

> So, the research piece is big. How do we even get started? What should it look like? How do I set achievable expectations for myself while trying to get this big idea out there? And, how do I do this without a background in research? I feel like I'm at a disadvantage. Where do I even start? How do I get in the door? Being new to the university as well. Not necessarily knowing who to go to when different supports are needed.

Being contingent academic staff at the institution may also play a role in an inability to find research support. Macy explained, "Learning to do something while meeting the expectation of actually doing the work is a constant battle. As a part-time [academic], certain supports are not available, such as funding." Research indicates that contingent academics often are unfamiliar with institutional resources, or such resources may be unavailable to the staff (Kezar & Sam, 2010). Some of the resources the university offered did not address the needs of contingent academics specifically—for example, several contingent academics described how they wanted help applying for grants, but "some services are not provided to us because of our level" and they would like to know "how does that grant process look for ¾ time faculty?"

Some participants were able to tap into their doctoral studies resources to find support needed to conduct their research. However, even those who had more research experience reported still needing research support, as Erica illustrated:

> Honestly, research has always been the area in which I needed the most support. I think now, being in the PhD program, I am a little bit more supported just because I am getting

the actual instruction in terms of how to do the research. I still feel like I am asked to fly the plane, and at the same time of being given the tools to build the plane.

All the contingent academics recognized that conducting research was a core aspect of their engaged scholarship. What they wanted was support for their work.

Needing Connections With Other Scholars

Given the different roles that the participants experienced, the data also indicated that they would have liked to connect more with other academics at the university. This collaboration could be either among contingent academics or tenure-track academics. The administrative office provided opportunities for all of the professors-in-residence to collaborate with one another during consistent meeting times and planned monthly events. That data indicated that some contingent academics needed such opportunities to collaborate. When asked about what the university could do to help her work, Kelly wanted "more time to collaboratively brainstorm with other professors-in-residence." This particular need may reflect that their work differs greatly from that of other academics in the institution, so that connecting with other academics with similar responsibilities and learning from one another could be useful.

The participants expressed that the need to work with others extended to more traditional academics at the university. Grace spoke about wanting to connect with academics to help meet the needs of her specific professional development school: "We actually reached out [to] the university departments to see if anyone would be interested in coming in." This need also includes finding ways to fulfill their research responsibilities. Derrick explained, "I work with the other [professors-in-residence] to help facilitate their ability to create publishable research." Some of the contingent academics went on to coauthor conference proposals and/or copresent at research conferences, but this was not the norm among most. Even with the connections that they made working with scholars, a need for more remained. Derrick voiced this as "I don't think I have enough exposure to others' work."

Needing Mentorship and Guidance

As evidenced by the results thus far, engaged scholarship is an immense and complex undertaking. Even though the data indicate a desire to connect with others to learn from one another, there is also a need for mentorship and guidance. At times, especially for a new professor-in-residence, navigating the university's expectations could be overwhelming. Nora expanded on her experiences:

> I think that the expectations across the board are very clear, but what it looks like in every school is very different. So, [group meetings do not] always feel that helpful. I am just being honest. It feels overwhelming. Especially when people are sharing what they are doing in their school and it doesn't look like anything else of what is going on in anybody else's school.

Instead of broader collaborative opportunities, Nora wanted a more specific one-to-one mentorship process where "working in pairs would help, because you could know what someone else is doing in a situation a little bit closer to what you're doing." Seasoned professors-in-residence also wanted mentorship. Richard noted that one of the supports he wanted for his work was "a mentor to help you through the process—not an informal mentor but a formal structure for peer-to-peer [professors-in-residence] mentorship."

University program administrators provided broader collaborative opportunities but, at her stage, Nora did not always find this structure helpful. Nora's excerpt underscores the need for flexibility in university support for this work. Contingent academics' needs may change and are not one-size-fits-all.

Discussion

The findings from this study answer the research questions by highlighting the complexities that are part of being a community-based engaged scholar. First, this article illustrates that university–community partnerships can offer rich opportunities and potential for a mutually beneficial relationship between academic staff and the community when the proper alignment among needs, interests, and experience exists

(Kajner et al., 2012; McNall et al., 2009). However, without the proper support, rich opportunities for research and collaboration can be missed. Second, within a university–community partnership, academic staff had to navigate multiple roles and responsibilities housed within one position that spanned two contexts. Though traditional definitions of unbundling of academic labor involve the separation of teaching, research, and service (Gerhke & Kezar, 2015), another type of unbundling may be called for: one that delegates to some academics the public scholarship work that other academic staff may not be incentivized to do.

Finally, we found that to meet their institutional responsibilities that combine teaching, research, and service into a community-based research experience (Furco, 2010), the contingent academics had to establish themselves in two contexts: their respective professional development school site and the university. Despite the challenging nature of the work, the contingent academics seemed more comfortable navigating the roles and building relationships in the professional development school setting and in need of more support at the university level. If universities want the idea of an engaged campus to move beyond the tokenism noted by Fitzgerald et al. (2012), one of the ways to begin is through institutionalizing support of the work through institutional policies and structures (Buys & Bursnall, 2007; Furco, 2010; Sandmann, 2008).

In terms of policy support, the institutionalization of a scholarship of engagement may be even more important if universities assign (either de facto or purposefully) the work of engaged scholarship to contingent academics. This study answers the second research question by finding that there are key areas where institutions can provide more support, especially in terms of the research component of the position. The literature on contingent labor already reflects a lack of institutional policies that provide support and resources (Kezar & Sam, 2010). In addition, research indicates that universities in general do not value engaged scholarship as much as traditional scholarship (Checkoway, 2013; O'Meara, 2010), making contingent academics conducting engaged scholarship that much more vulnerable to being overlooked.

Our findings yield several implications for institutional policy. First, if institutions want to incorporate engaged scholarship, they must consider some academic reward systems that support this type of nontraditional scholarly work. The data indicate that academics performing community work in schools require more time to situate themselves in the school context. Academics unfamiliar with this type of work may have unrealistic timelines for academic deliverables. For fixed-term employees, recognizing their engaged scholarship could entail offering multiyear fixed-term contracts, differentiating productivity to better reflect the work, and including other stakeholder feedback to determine renewal.

Because this study was embedded in a broader community-based research methodology (Beh et al., 2013), the needs of the contingent academics did not go unaddressed. We incorporated feedback from the contingent academics and made adjustments throughout the year. These adjustments resulted in the second and third policy suggestions. The second policy suggestion is for the institution to find a way to develop policies for structured opportunities and mentorship for professors-in-residence to work with and learn from other scholars. Such opportunities can include convening scheduled, structured meetings where academic staff can connect and learn from one another. It also could include one-on-one mentorship programs between newer and more established scholars. The third policy suggestion is to have the institution create policy to share some of the responsibility for the logistical supports that the contingent academics need to carry on their work. The way that these contingent academics experienced navigating numerous roles showed how engaged scholars can be overwhelmed by their university-side responsibilities. Universities could institutionalize a scholarship of engagement by establishing a centralized higher education administrative office or administrator(s) to provide logistical support for engaged academics (Sandmann, 2008).

Conclusion

Though this study documents the working experiences of contingent academics in the professor-in-residence position, their experiences also reflect much of the literature on other academics conducting engaged scholarship, especially those who are newer academics (e.g., pretenured academics; O'Meara, 2013). The differences between community-engaged scholarship and more

traditional forms can make it difficult for academics (regardless of the type of contract) to navigate the institutional policies and structures designed for traditional research. Support for contingent academics could also be made available to pretenured or newer engaged scholars.

As colleges and universities push to become engaged campuses and incorporate engaged scholarship as part of their overall mission, it is not enough to set the directive and expect academics to accomplish the task. Even though many academics may be interested in scholarship that both aligns with their interests and benefits the broader community, without proper support and incentives, it may not be an attractive option. Even if institutions employ contingent labor specifically to carry on the work of engaged scholarship, they must be aware of the complexities involved in such positions and be willing to reevaluate their structures to ensure that the relationships that the institution is building with community through these scholars are healthy and sustainable.

Conflict of Interest Statement

On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest.

About the Authors

Cecile H. Sam is an assistant professor in the Department of Educational Services and Leadership at Rowan University.

Brent C. Elder is an assistant professor in the Department of Interdisciplinary and Inclusive Education at Rowan University.

Stacey Leftwich is an associate professor in the Department of Language, Literacy and Sociocultural Education at Rowan University and currently serves as the executive director of the Office of Educator Support and Partnerships.

References

American Association for University Professors (2018, October 11). *Data snapshot: Contingent faculty in US higher ed.* https://www.aaup.org/news/data-snapshot-contingent-faculty-us-higher-ed#.W8VOm2hKhPZ

Austin, A. E. (2003). Creating a bridge to the future: Preparing new faculty to face changing expectations in a shifting context. *The Review of Higher Education, 26*(2), 119–144.

Barker, D. (2004). The scholarship of engagement: A taxonomy of five emerging practices. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 9*(2), 123–137. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/890

Beh, A., Bruyere, B. L., & Lolosoli, S. (2013). Legitimizing local perspectives in conservation through community-based research: A photovoice study in Samburu, Kenya. *Society & Natural Resources, 26*(12), 1390–1406. https://doi.org/10.1080/08941920.2013.805858

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77–101.

Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. K. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods* (Vol. 5). Pearson.

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

Buys, N., & Bursnall, S. (2007). Establishing university–community partnerships: Processes and benefits. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 29*(1), 73–86. https://doi.org/10.1080/13600800601175797

Castle, S., Arends, R. I., & Rockwood, K. D. (2008). Student learning in a professional development school and a control school. *The Professional Educator, 32*(1), 1–15. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ802012.pdf

Cavalli, A., & Moscati, R. (2010). Academic systems and professional conditions in five European countries. *European Review, 18*(S1), S35–S53. https://doi.org/10.1017/S1062798709990305

Checkoway, B. (2013). Strengthening the scholarship of engagement. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 17*(4), 7–22. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1066

Coburn, C. E., & Penuel, W. R. (2016). Research–practice partnerships in education: Outcomes, dynamics, and open questions. *Educational Researcher, 45*(1), 48–54. https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X16631750

Coburn, C. E., Penuel, W. R., & Geil, K. E. (2013). *Research–practice partnerships: A strategy for leveraging research for educational improvement in school districts*. William T. Grant Foundation.

Darling-Hammond, L. (2017). Teacher education around the world: What can we learn from international practice? *European Journal of Teacher Education, 40*(3), 291–309. https://doi.org/10.1080/02619768.2017.1315399

Ernst, B., Hollinger, D. A., & Knight, J. (2005). Professors of practice. *Academe, 91*(1), 60.

Fitzgerald, H. E., Bruns, K., Sonka, S., Furco, A., & Swanson, L. (2012). The centrality of engagement in higher education. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 16*(3), 7–28. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/949

Fontana, A. & Frey, J.H. (2000). The interview: From structured questions to negotiated text. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp 645-672). Sage Publications.

Furco, A. (2010). The engaged campus: Toward a comprehensive approach to public engagement. *British Journal of Educational Studies, 58*(4), 375–390. https://doi.org/10.1080/00071005.2010.527656

Gauntner, J., & Hansman, C. A. (2017). Boundary-spanner role conflict in public urban universities. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 21*(1), 104–131. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1319

Gehrke, S., & Kezar, A. (2015). Unbundling the faculty role in higher education: Utilising historical, theoretical and empirical frameworks to inform future research. In M. B. Paulsen (Ed.), *Higher education: Handbook of theory and research* (Handbook of Theory and Research 30). Springer International. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-12835-13

Haviland, D., Allenman, N.F., & Allen, C.C. (2017). 'Separate but not quite equal': Collegiality experiences of full-time non-tenure-track faculty members. *Journal of Higher Education, 88*(4), 505–528. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2016.1272321

Kajner, T., Fletcher, F., & Makokis, P. (2012). Balancing head and heart: The importance of relational accountability in community–university partnerships. *Innovative Higher Education, 37*(4), 257–270. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-011-9206-8

Kezar, A. (2013). Non-tenure-track faculty's social construction of a supportive work environment. *Teachers College Record, 115*(12), ID 17242. http://www.tcrecord.org/Content.asp?ContentId=17242

Kezar, A., & Maxey, D. (2015). Revealing opportunities and obstacles for changing non-tenure-track faculty practices: An examination of stakeholders' awareness of institutional contradictions. *Journal of Higher Education, 86*(4), 564–594. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2015.11777375

Kezar, A., & Sam, C. (2010). *Non-tenure track faculty in higher education* (ASHE Higher Education Report Series). Jossey-Bass.

Kezar, A., & Sam, C. (2013). Institutionalizing equitable policies and practices for contingent faculty. *Journal of Higher Education, 84*(1), 56–87. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2013.11777278

Kimber, M. (2003). The tenured "core" and the tenuous "periphery": The casualisation of academic work in Australian universities. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 25*(1), 41–50. https://doi.org/10.1080/13600800305738

Kroll, H., Schricke, E., & Stahlecker, T. (2013). Scope and determinants of the "third role" of higher education institutions in Germany. *Higher Education Policy, 26*(2), 263–284.

Laurence, D. (2013). A profile of the non-tenure-track academic workforce. *ADFL Bulletin, 42*(3), 6-22.

Latham, N., & Wedwick, L. (2009). Teacher candidates' attitudes that influence preparation choice: Traditional versus professional development school options. *School–University Partnerships, 3*(1), 90–99.

Levin, J. S., & Shaker, G. G. (2011). The hybrid and dualistic identity of full-time non-tenure-track faculty. *American Behavioral Scientist, 55*(11), 1461–1484. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764211409382

Lieber, E., & Weisner, T. (2015). *Dedoose* (Version 6.1.18) [Computer software]. Dedoose. https://www.dedoose.com

Loveday, V. (2018). Luck, chance, and happenstance? Perceptions of success and failure amongst fixed-term academic staff in UK higher education. *The British Journal of Sociology, 69*(3), 758–775. https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-4446.12307

Matthews, P., & Wilder, S. (2018). "Cutting edge" or "ridiculously isolated"? Charting the identities, experiences, and perspectives of full-time, non-tenure-track faculty engaged in service-learning. *International Journal of Research on Service-Learning and Community Engagement, 6*(1), 1–14. https://ijrslce.scholasticahq.com/article/7002-cutting-edge-or-ridiculously-isolated-charting-the-identities-experiences-and-perspectives-of-full-time-non-tenure-track-faculty-engaged-in-service-learning

McNall, M., Reed, C. S., Brown, R., & Allen, A. (2009). Brokering community–university engagement. *Innovative Higher Education, 33*(5), 317–331. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-008-9086-8

Murphy, D., & McGrath, D. (2018). A success/failure paradox: Reflection on a university–community engagement in Australia. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management, 40*(4), 321–341. https://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2018.1482102

National Association of Professional Development Schools. (2008). *9 essentials*. https://napds.org/nine-essentials/

National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education. (2008). *Professional standards for the accreditation of teacher preparation institutions*. http://www.ncate.org/~/media/Files/caep/accreditation-resources/ncate-standards-2008.pdf?la=en

O'Meara, K. (2010). Rewarding multiple forms of scholarship: Promotion and tenure. *Handbook of engaged scholarship: Contemporary landscapes, future directions: Vol. 1. Institutional change* (pp. 271–294). Michigan State University Press.

O'Meara, K., Lounder, A., & Hodges, A. (2013). University leaders' use of episodic power to support faculty community engagement. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 19*(2), 5–20. http://hdl.handle.net/2027/spo.3239521.0019.201

O'Meara, K., & Niehaus, B. (2009). Service-learning is...: How faculty explain their practice. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 16*(1), 1–16.

O'Meara, K., Sandmann, L. R., Saltmarsh, J., & Giles, D. E., Jr. (2011). Studying the professional lives and work of faculty involved in community engagement. *Innovative Higher Education, 36*(2), 83–96. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10755-010-9159-3

Ott, M., & Cisneros, J. (2015). Understanding the changing faculty workforce in higher education: A comparison of full-time non-tenure track and tenure line experiences. *Education Policy Analysis Archives, 23*(90), 1–28. doi:10.14507/epaa.v23.1934

Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative education and research methods* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.

Puukka, J., & Marmolejo, F. (2008). Higher education institutions and regional mission: Lessons learnt from the OECD review project. *Higher Education Policy, 21*(2), 217–244. https://doi.org/10.1057/hep.2008.7

Sandmann, L. R. (2008). Conceptualization of the scholarship of engagement in higher education: A strategic review, 1996–2006. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 12*(1), 91–104. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/520

Sandmann, L. R., Saltmarsh, J., & O'Meara, K. (2008). An integrated model for advancing the scholarship of engagement: Creating academic homes for the engaged scholar. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 12*(1), 47–64. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/524/524

Schwartz, W. (2000). *The impact of professional development schools on the education of urban students*. Eric Clearinghouse on Urban Education. https://www.ericdigests.org/2001-2/urban.html

Snow, D. R., Flynn, S., Whisenand, K., & Mohr, E. (2016). Evidence-sensitive synthesis of professional development school outcomes. *School–University Partnerships, 9*(3), 11–33. https://signalisation2000.com/napds/wp-content/uploads/2016/10/93-snow.pdf

Stanton, C. R. (2014). Crossing methodological borders: Decolonising community-based participatory research. *Qualitative Inquiry, 20*(5), 573–583. https://doi.org/10.1177/1077800413505541

Stanton, T. (2008). New times demand new scholarship: Opportunities and challenges for civic engagement at research universities. *Education, Citizenship, and Social Justice, 3*(1), 19–42. https://doi.org/10.1177/1746197907086716

Waltman, J., Bergom, I., Hollenshead, C., Miller, J., & August, L. (2012). Factors contributing to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among non-tenure-track faculty. *The Journal of Higher Education, 83*(3), 411–434. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2012.11777250

Ward, K. (2003). *Faculty service roles and the scholarship of engagement* (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report Vol. 29, No. 5). Jossey-Bass.

Willets, K. R. (2017). Square peg round hole. In M. Massé & N. Bauer-Maglin (Eds.), *Staging women's lives in academia* (pp 111-121). SUNY Press.

Zenkov, K., Shiveley, J., & Clark, E. (2016). Why we must answer the question, "What is a professional development school?" *School–University Partnerships, 9*(3), 1–10.

Efficacy of Border-Crossing Service-Learning in Empathy and Moral Development: Urban Students in the Rural Developing World

Betty Yung, Kam-por Yu, Barbara Y. P. Leung, and Jack Chun

Abstract

For a service-learning course focusing on poverty, students from a Hong Kong university took a 12-day trip to engage in various poverty alleviation services in Cambodia. This course was border-crossing on five dimensions: (1) urban versus rural, (2) developed versus developing world location, (3) classroom versus practical and experiential, (4) Hong Kong versus Cambodian (cross-cultural), and (5) teachers' paternalism versus students' voice. Students' firsthand observation of service recipients' absolute poverty gave them a deeper understanding of the problem of poverty. Evidence indicates that this service-learning experience led to incremental, rather than striking, empathy building and moral development, and built on cognitive empathy more than affective empathy. However, as an invaluable experience in the formative years of these undergraduates, this border-crossing service-learning trip may pave the way for future subtle or evident changes in their lives through having broadened their horizons and given exposure to another culture socioeconomically, culturally, and nationally.

Keywords: rural service-learning, pedagogy, urban students, empathy, education programme evaluation

---

Education is often viewed as crucial in preparing students for adulthood. However, Dewey emphasized that education by itself is "a process of living" (Ganzert et al., 2017, p. xi). Thus, education can be regarded as important in terms of being a living and a worthy experience as well as a means toward achieving prosperous living in the future. Boyer stressed the scholarship of integration in higher education—that is, putting isolated facts into contexts and perspectives across disciplines (Ganzert et al., 2017, p. xii). Such a scholarship is important for academics in higher education not only as researchers but also as educators whose aims include engaging students in such an endeavor and facilitating students in achieving the scholarship.

Xing and Ma (2010) pointed out that "service-learning" is mainly a term from the West, with its understanding and practice that vary from place to place. However, service-learning remains generally defined by the following characteristics: (a) course-based and/or credit-bearing educational experience that integrates (b) academic course content with learning objectives; and (c) voluntary community services (Brower, 2011; Holton et al., 2017; Le & Raven, 2015). Service-learning is a type of experiential learning, comprising classroom and community-based learning experiences. Service-learning represents an educational effort to nurture students in what Boyer termed the "scholarship of integration" (Ganzert et al., 2017, p. xii), so that they apply what is learned within classrooms to the real-life community service context, thereby gaining a deep understanding and implanting such an understanding within a reoriented perspective or from a renewed angle. The service delivered during the process of service-learning is an experience and living by itself, fruitful and beneficial

toward students, teachers, service recipients, and society at large, as well as constructive to students' future development. Therefore, in service-learning, we can observe the convergence of all three: first, the process of living of students, teachers, and service recipients; second, the nurturance of scholarship of integration among students and teachers engaged in the service-learning undertaking; and third, the preparation of students for future living. From this perspective, service-learning can play a constituent part in education, especially in higher education.

This study examines a service-learning course focusing on poverty, wherein students from a Hong Kong university were brought to Cambodia on a 12-day trip to engage in various poverty alleviation services. This service-learning course is border-crossing in five dimensions: (1) urban versus rural—bringing urban students in Hong Kong to rural Cambodia; (2) developed versus developing world areas—taking students out of the developed world to the developing world; (3) classroom versus practical and experiential—leading students from the theoretical and conceptual discussions of poverty in classrooms to real-life situations and working for practical solutions; (4) Hong Kong versus Cambodian culture—cross-cultural expedition into learning the culture of a country remote from students' experience; (5) teachers' paternalism versus students' voice—with teachers selecting Cambodia as the site for service-learning, integrating with students' voice in service design. This research attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. How far does border-crossing service-learning affect students' understanding of the course content (poverty in this context)?

2. How far does border-crossing service-learning facilitate students' empathy and moral development?

Literature Review

Most previous research efforts on service-learning have centered on a city context, with the targeted service communities being predominantly urban or suburban (Ganzert et al., 2017; Tullier, 2017). Rural service-learning can be defined as service-learning in rural areas (Holton et al., 2017). This definition depends on what we regard as rural. The rural landscape is highly diverse (Holton et al., 2017), ranging from rural areas in the developing world (with underdeveloped amenities and infrastructure) to those in the developed world, such as the United States, which is increasingly connected through the internet and other technologies (Brown & Swanson, 2003, as cited in Holton et al., 2017). However, we may state that the defining characteristics of "rural" are its reliance on agriculture for income, low population density, and less-developed built environment (Holton et al., 2017).

Service-learning research focusing on a course that comprises all five aforementioned border-crossing dimensions has not been conducted to date. Typically, rural service-learning can incorporate the urban versus rural border-crossing dimension. Several studies on rural service-learning with the service delivered within the same country, especially in the United States (without border-crossing in the dimensions of developed vs. developing world areas, cross-cultural service, and teachers' paternalism vs. students' voice), have been performed (for example, Harris, 2004; Holton et al., 2017; Marken et al., 2011). Other rural service-learning research concentrates on service-learning through providing services in overseas countries, involving a cross-cultural dimension, often together with the border-crossing dimension of developed versus developing world areas (for example, Brower, 2011; Hawkins & Vialet, 2012; Main et al., 2013).

Tullier (2017) pointed out the necessity and constructiveness of the inclusion of students' voice in service-learning. However, service-learning courses seldom significantly incorporate students' voice in the design of service, presumably because of the arduous logistics and administrative work involved in service planning. Thus, more paternalism in the planning of service-learning is thought to minimize unpredictability. The service-learning course under investigation is unique in that it involves crossing the border of teachers' paternalism by allowing students' voice in the service design—essentially with the teachers choosing a certain Cambodian village as the site for service-learning but encouraging students' voice in specific or concrete service design. This pioneer research investigates a distinctive course that simultaneously spans five border-crossing

dimensions and evaluates the efficacy of a service-learning course of such a specific nature in nurturing students' empathy and moral development.

The border-crossing service-learning course under investigation takes poverty as the subject focus, with poverty alleviation as the target of the service efforts. According to Wisor (2012), *poverty* refers to "a core set of basic human deprivations." Poverty can be relative (measured as a fraction of the national mean or median income) or absolute (which often incorporates the threat of starvation); objective (in accordance with a set of internationally recognized criteria, such as income less than US$1 or US$2 per day) or subjective (involving self-assessment as compared with peers; Walshalsh, 2006). According to such classifications, the rural Cambodian service recipients in this border-crossing service-learning course may be simultaneously regarded as poor in absolute (in the sense of having enough food), relative (to Cambodia), objective (by global standards), and subjective (as reflected by certain service recipients conceiving the students from Hong Kong visiting Cambodia with the intention to help the poor) terms and standards.

Studies on service-learning with poverty as the learning focus are available. Several are related to in-country relative poverty. For example, Baggerly (2006) examined service-learning with children affected by poverty within the U.S. multicultural framework. Seider et al. (2011) also focused on changes in the conception of poverty through service-learning in the U.S. context. Other studies on service-learning are related to global poverty, such as Le and Raven (2015), in which U.S. students provided service in Cambodia and Vietnam, involving various border-crossing dimensions.

This study makes further efforts on service-learning related to poverty by examining a service-learning endeavor with all five border-crossing dimensions in nurturing empathy, values, and moral development in students. Empathy is defined as the capacity to "experience the emotion of another person," essentially "seeing the world as others see, being non-judgmental, displaying understanding of others' feelings as well as conveying such understanding to the target person" (Donovan, 2008, p. 121). Empathy consists of two components, cognitive and affective. *Cognitive empathy* refers to accurate perspective taking of others' stand, whereas *affective empathy* refers to emotional resonance with others' feelings (Davidov, 2018). Through training, one can acquire or enhance his or her ability to empathize (Donovan, 2008). The current research aims to evaluate the efficacy of service-learning as a pedagogy for nurturing empathy.

Moral development refers to "age-related changes in the thoughts and emotions that guide individuals' ideas of right and wrong and how they and others should act" (Barnett, 2007, p. 587), involving different facets, such as moral cognition, feelings and emotions, motivation, justice orientation, care, behavior, action, and moral judgment (Barnett, 2007; Gibbs, 2003; Steckler & Hamlin, 2016). Moral development can be nurtured and enhanced through educational efforts, thereby providing a rationale behind various moral educational endeavors, particularly within family, schools, and society at large across all cultures, civilizations, and times.

Empathy is an important dimension in moral development. There is essentially no research on the efficacy of service-learning as a pedagogy for empathy nurturance and moral development, except Leung and Yung (2020). Researchers have examined the influence of service-learning on students' moral development. However, most have confined the definition of "moral development" to cognitive moral reasoning, instead of espousing a holistic definition that comprises moral sensibility, feelings, motivation, intentions, actions, and empathy (Bowdon et al., 2015). For example, Boss (1994) and Gorman et al. (1994) conducted such quantitative studies in the United States. Research efforts on service-learning and moral development that delineate the latter beyond cognitive moral reasoning are limited. For example, Zlotkowski (1996) offered a theoretical discussion of service-learning and ethical behavior but presented only limited systematic data collection to support the arguments. Strain (2005) revealed the relationship of service-learning and moral development. Such a relationship is comparatively and holistically defined using quotations from students' writing and reflections to substantiate his arguments. Leung and Yung (2020) adopted a comprehensive conception of moral development in their research on service-learning. However, they mainly examined this

pedagogy within an urban context, without the border-crossing characteristics of the service-learning endeavor that the present research aims to evaluate. The present study also adopts a comprehensive concept of moral development and explores moral sensitivity, moral guilt, care, moral motivation, and moral behavior. Furthermore, this research represents a pioneer attempt that adopts such a holistic definition of moral development in examining the effectiveness of service-learning in the nurturance of empathy and moral development in a service-learning endeavor that involves all aforementioned five border-crossing dimensions.

Service-learning that involves crossing a cultural border (such as providing service overseas or for a cultural group that differs from one's own within the same country) necessitates intercultural sensitivity and facilitates its development. Works addressing intercultural sensitivity include Bennett (1986) and Hammer et al. (2003), which highlight the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity (DMIS). This model suggests a multistage developmental continuum from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism. Empathy is an essential constituent of cultural sensitivity, which in turn is an important part in moral development.

Social Poverty in Developing Countries (Service-Learning Course)

At the university where this research was performed, each student must take a service-learning course within the 4-year curriculum. A range of service-learning courses are offered every semester. The course Social Poverty in Developing Countries includes an academic and preparatory component in the spring semester and a service field trip to a developing country in the summer. The course examines the nature and reality of social poverty and aims to cultivate an intellectual and empathetic understanding of social poverty, with special reference to developing countries.

In the particular year under study, 174 students applied for this service-learning course, and 55 of them were selected for interview. Two rounds of interviews (individual and group interviews) were conducted, and 20 students were selected for enrollment. Enrollees included 11 local students and nine nonlocal students, including two from Taiwan, six from Mainland China, and one from South Korea. The selection criteria for course enrollment include the student's interest in the course, their personality and maturity level, background diversity, and their commitment to attending the lectures and workshops on weekends in the spring semester and making the trip in the summer.

Classroom teaching was conducted in the spring semester in Hong Kong on Saturday mornings. The topics included service-learning, poverty, the human development approach, the situation in Cambodia (with special reference to a village and a public school in rural Cambodia), a forum for reviewing a range of possible service works, group presentation of service proposals, and a deliberation and consolidation session, as well as three workshops on practical service works.

A previsit was initiated by the teaching staff to collect information about the site and people, to liaise with relevant parties, and to solicit views from the potential service recipients. The students were required to consider their preliminary understanding of the needs and wishes of the people when designing suitable service works to be performed on the sites. The students received relevant information from lectures, performed their own research following such lectures, formed groups and engaged in group discussion, and then presented the ideas on their group's service plan in class. After the forum and presentation sessions, the final service plan was collectively decided in a deliberation session. Groups were encouraged to make adjustments or revisions to their service plan after their arrival on the sites.

The service works during the 12-day trip to Cambodia included installing four solar-powered generators in the community office, primary school, kindergarten, and temple (with a well-illustrated user manual written by the students in English and translated into Khmer), service works for 10 selected families (including installation of a simple solar lighting system, multiple visits, and interviews as well as customized gifts in response to the needs of the families), participating in the construction of a multifunction building (which was used as a temple, communal hall, and kindergarten), conducting workshops in the primary school, and organizing a farewell party.

Debriefing sessions were held once every 2

or 3 days after the trip to the village on that day. The group presentation was arranged a few days after returning to Hong Kong, followed by an individual reflective journal. Other pre-service-trip assignments in this course included a test on the understanding of service-learning and a written proposal on service works.

Methodology

This research utilized a mixed-methods approach by using quantitative and qualitative data collection methods that enabled triangulation, with qualitative and quantitative data complementing each other to give a more holistic view of the research topic. The data collection was conducted in strict accordance with research ethics requirements. All research participants were adults. The main quantitative method used was questionnaire. Pre- (at the beginning of the course) and postprogram (after the completion of the course; P–P) questionnaires were administered, targeting the entire student population of the specific service-learning course. We collected 19 valid sets of P–P questionnaires from a total of 20 students in the course, indicating a response rate of approximately 95%. The number of valid cases was small, so nonparametric statistics was used for data analysis. Qualitative methods included a focus group for local (Hong Kong) students, five interviews with five nonlocal students, two interviews with the staff involved in the course, 11 interviews with service recipients (10 villagers and one monk teacher in a Cambodian temple, all of which were the targets of the community service), written English responses to data-collection questions by a teaching staff member from Cambodia involved in the course, and content analysis of the reflective journals (which were written in English). Purposive sampling was adopted for the focus group and interviews with nonlocal students. The research team recruited students with various demonstrated levels of enthusiasm (high, mid, and low level) for service participation in Cambodia as focus group participants and as interviewees. Purposive sampling was also adopted for interviews with staff who engaged in various types of work in the course. For interviews with service recipients, we adopted quota sampling, with one representative from each service-recipient unit being interviewed. The focus group and the interviews with staff members were conducted in Cantonese dialect, which is the mother tongue of most Hong Kong residents. Interviews with nonlocal students were conducted in English, supplemented by Putonghua/Mandarin. Service recipient interviews were conducted in Khmer, the Cambodian language, with the assistance of an interpreter. The focus group and interviews were recorded, translated into English, and transcribed. They were manually analyzed, with emerging themes (related to the nurturance of empathy and moral development, understanding of poverty, and appreciation of service-learning as pedagogy) identified and classified. Analysis along such themes was conducted, with the data being grouped and organized. The same qualitative data analysis process was also utilized for the content analysis of the reflective journals. The qualitative findings are presented in the latter parts of this article, substantiated by extracts from interviews, reflective journals, and the focus group.

This research takes a holistic conception of moral development that involves different dimensions. It measures the students' moral development by a moral development score, which assesses students' consideration of different parties when making decisions, moral guilt, tendency toward moral acts, moral motivation, moral sensitivity, moral obligation, moral self-assessment, care for others, and willingness to help others. Empathy in this research comprises cognitive empathy and affective empathy, each gauged by an independent score. The cognitive empathy score measures students' perspective-taking tendency and self-assessed capacity to understand others' perspective. The affective empathy score measures whether they share others' positive and negative feelings as well as feel unhappy when seeing suffering.

Efficacy of Border-Crossing Service-Learning

Out of the 19 P–P questionnaire respondents, most (63.1%) are Year 1 students, whereas 31.6% and 5.3% are Year 2 and Year 3 students, respectively. Of these respondents, the majority (78.9%) are female, and the rest (21.1%) are male.

Interviews with the service recipients indicated that the most common problem they face is economic difficulty, with certain families even having no income-earning

adult to support the household. Thus, their access to food is scarce; they find drinking water expensive (because of the lack of a nearby water well) and regard medicine as unaffordable. The shelter available to them does not even protect against rain during the wet season. As one villager pointed out during the interview,

> [We are] in lack of economic [means]; [food] for eating is not enough; [the shelter] for living is difficult when it rains, [it becomes] wet. (Cambodian Service Recipient 9, female)

The monk teacher in the Cambodian temple pointed out the lack of facilities in the pagoda during the interview:

> Here, we lack electricity [for] light-ing . . . young monks are afraid at night and I have to stay here [at night]; [young monks] go home; they [are] afraid [of] the dark. Another [difficult] thing is [about] water. Young monks are juvenile [with juvenile rights which need to be protected]. I do not want them to carry water [which is heavy] and I have to do it myself because we don't have [water] pumps. I dare not ask them to cut the firewood by using saw; so I have to [do it]. We need some tools to do it, but we lack technical [tools and apparatus]. Not only this pagoda [is like this], but

any pagoda around here [is] also [like this]. . . . (Cambodian monk teacher, male)

From Table 1, the students generally agreed that the service recipients in Cambodia were poor, especially when compared with general Hong Kong people (Statement 1.2: Mean = 1.53) and slightly less when com-pared with people from different countries (Statement 1.3: Mean = 2.84). Therefore, students believed that these service re-cipients were generally poor, but not the most desperate throughout the globe. In the following quote, a student in the focus group echoes these quantitative findings and vividly compares poverty in Cambodia with that in Hong Kong and demonstrates the deplorable situation in the former (re-flecting the ability, on the part of students, to compare the developed world with the developing world after crossing the border between the two worlds in this service-learning experience).

> In Hong Kong, no matter how poor one is, if s/he goes to [Cambodia], s/he will be very rich [when com-pared with other Cambodians]. [Cambodians] working in factories earn US$5 per day. In Hong Kong, a meal already costs US$5. In Hong Kong, no matter how poor you are, certain people are [willing to] help you, [like] those from Social Welfare Department and NGOs. Food banks also exist. We can donate many

Table 1. Students' Evaluation of Poverty Situation in Cambodia and Self-assessment of the Efficacy of their Service-Learning Experience in Facilitating Their Understanding of Poverty				
Statement	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**
1.1 The service-learning experi-ence enables me to under-stand the problem of poverty better.	1.84	0.62	1	3
1.2 The service-recipients are poor when compared to general Hong Kong people.	1.53	0.697	1	3
1.3 The service-recipients are poor when compared to people of different countries in the whole WORLD.	2.84	1.068	1	5

Note. Students were asked to indicate the degree of (dis)agreement with the statement on a seven-point measurement scale, with 1 being strongly agree, 4 being neutral, and 7 being strongly disagree.

things. In Cambodia, no matter how poor they are, because everyone is poor, no one can help them. They simply cannot help because they cannot even help themselves. In Hong Kong, such a situation does not happen. In Hong Kong, people do not starve to death. However, in Cambodia, people can absolutely starve to death. (Participant of focus group with Hong Kong students, female)

Such absolute poverty, without much readily available assistance from the government, NGOs, and fellow citizens, instills an eye-opening experience in the students, who all come from economically advantaged countries or cities, as reflected by the interviewees after crossing the developed world versus the developing world border.

Going into the village, apart from seeing [what I] never saw before, was very shocking . . . I think I have never been to such a poor place. I think we should not use the word "poor," [we] must use "primitive" to describe the place. . . . Although the place is very "primitive," the villagers or the people are really very nice. Regardless if they understand what we say or do, they always smile when they talk to us. (Student D, female, nonlocal student)

I thought I fully understand their situation before we went to [Cambodia]. However, when I saw and actually experienced being there, I was really shocked. We knew the situation [beforehand], but when we actually experienced it, it was still a shock. (Student A, female, nonlocal student)

Such reactions on observing service recipients' "primitive" conditions firsthand enabled students to further understand the problem of poverty after crossing the border of classroom versus real-life/practical experience (Table 1, Statement 1.1: Mean = 1.84), generating deep insights into the issue of poverty. Such quantitative data are further substantiated by the content analysis of students' reflective journals.

In the lecture, I learned that poverty means living with basic needs, but it was inside this house that I understood what poverty was like in the first time. Basic needs don't include any of my necessities like cosmetics, stationaries, cups and plates, but mean living with far less than I could imagine. (Reflective Essay 14)

Through interactions with villagers, we developed a sense of responsibility not only to reduce poverty situations but also to think back over the reasons behind social poverty. Are the things we have been taken for granted causing social poverty? Are the ways people solve problems considered as morally right? Although I still don't have a certain answer to theses [*sic*] questions, the service learning experience did successfully raise my attention to the controversial issues happening in developing countries. (Reflective Essay 12)

The extreme situation faced by the Cambodian service recipients in this multidimensional border-crossing service-learning engagement stimulated students to reflect further, providing a context and a nurturance ground for the fostering of empathy and moral development.

Yes, [this course] can [help facilitate empathy development]. [It is] because you obtain information from the media and books in the form of others' perspective on [the issue concerned]. This time, we go [to Cambodia], we view from our own perspective, first-hand. I feel that a step forward, [with] a great shocking [experience], can leave [us] a deep impression. . . . The situation is very different. The poor children in Taiwan [whom I gave service to in the past] still have what one should have. [Those in Cambodia] do not have what one should have, thus making me reflect a bit more. (Student A, female, nonlocal student)

As shown in Table 2, students concluded that the service-learning experience (with various border-crossing pedagogical designs) is highly constructive in facilitating perspective taking (Statement 2.1.2: Mean = 2.11) and empathy nurturance (Statement

Table 2. Students' Self-assessment of the Efficacy of Their Service-Learning Experience in Empathy Nurturance and Moral Development				
Statement	**Mean**	**Standard deviation**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**
2.1.1 My service-learning experience facilitates the development of empathy.	2.00	0.58	1	3
2.1.2 The service-learning experience enables me to view a situation from others' perspectives better.	2.11	0.66	1	4
2.2.1 The service-learning experience motivates me to do further community services.	2.11	0.81	1	4
2.2.2 The service-learning experience motivates me to help those in need.	2.05	0.62	1	3
2.2.3 The service-learning experience enables me to develop into a morally better person.	2.05	0.71	1	4
2.2.4 The service-learning experience enables me to be a more caring person.	1.89	0.66	1	3

Note. Students were asked to indicate the degree of (dis)agreement with the statement on a seven-point measurement scale, with 1 being strongly agree, 4 being neutral, and 7 being strongly disagree.

2.1.1: Mean = 2.00). Such quantitative findings are echoed by qualitative data.

> As for communication skills, the most important lesson I learnt is standing on others' shoes to actively have constructive conversations, especially when facing service recipients. There are two reasons behind, the first one is that constructive conversations are benefit [*sic*] for problems [sic] solving and making improvement, while the second one is thinking about others could show respect to service recipients, which reduces the gap between service recipients and providers and avoids potential or unnecessary conflicts. (Reflective Essay 13)

> It can [help me develop empathy]. Whilst communicating with the villagers, [I] need to think of ways to explain what we [plan to] do for them, including installing solar panels. . . . From their level of understanding, [we must] explain the functions [of solar panels], how to use [solar panels] and what good solar panels are for them. Also, when playing with the children [there], although we do not understand their language, we try to stand from the perspectives [of the children] and do things that they will feel happy about. Thus, empathy can increase [after service-learning]. (Student D, female, nonlocal student)

As displayed in Table 2, students indicated that this multidimensional border-crossing service-learning experience helped facilitate moral development on various dimensions, such as future moral acts in the form of community services (Statement 2.2.1: Mean = 2.11), moral motivation in helping those in need (Statement 2.2.2: Mean = 2.05), being a more caring person (Statement 2.2.4: Mean = 1.89), and developing into a morally better person (Statement 2.2.3: Mean = 2.05). In an example illustrating the above quantitative findings, Student A (female, nonlocal student) suggested "service as a life-long endeavour," indicating how far the service-

learning experience can stimulate students to reflect upon their future moral acts. This mentality is reflected in one student's assignment:

> To conclude, this service trip is rewarding and influences me a lot in terms of behaviour and thinking. I hope that I am able to learn through serving and become a better person. Moreover, I will dedicate myself to community work in my city and other countries because it is one of my responsibilities to help the needy, and I am able to do great things with great love. Poverty is no longer the most terrible, but instead, is that no one is willing to lend a helping hand to the needy (Teresa et al., 2000). I hope that more and more people can step a small step in doing small but good things, and cultivate a helping heart to better our world, to a world without poverty. (Reflective Essay 1)

A staff interviewee further added value to the above quantitative findings and concluded that the service–learning experience facilitates students' moral development, which starts from showing basic respect toward others, including simple basic things, and may take various forms in practice, especially in a cross–cultural context.

> The students are required to do service in Cambodia. They must learn to respect others—the basic component in moral development. [It is] easy to say, but implementing this component [in reality] may not be easy to achieve. To determine how to respect local people [in Cambodia], different students may have different understandings. Some students may think to respect the local people, they need to learn their language. Or if learning their language may be difficult,

at least culturally or in the way they interact, they need to learn the way [of the local people]. For example, they will [learn their] way of greeting or their body language. These examples show respect. . . . (Staff Member 2, female)

Empathy building forms an important part of moral development. Table 3 shows that a statistically significant, highly positive correlation exists between the P–P difference in moral development scores and the P–P difference in cognitive empathy scores. By contrast, no significant correlation is found between the P–P difference in moral development and affective empathy scores. This contrast reflects the background and upbringing of the students, who mostly come from nonpoor families and thus may never experience significant hunger and tremendous poverty. These students can undergo perspective taking (and thus cognitive empathy) and stand in the shoes of the service recipients. However, to really feel the service recipients' affective and emotional conditions may be difficult for these students because hunger and desperate poverty are remote from their personal experiences. How the moral development of the students is built more on cognitive empathy than on affective empathy is vividly reflected in the following excerpt from the focus group (which may explain the statistical findings).

> For example, you talk about hunger, no food. To us, even if we do not have food, the maximum is skipping only one meal. However, their [Cambodians' hunger] perhaps is two days. We cannot feel their pain vividly. I understand the conception of [hunger], but I cannot experience [thoroughly]. We lack the most vivid "understanding" [of their plight]. We have the general understanding, but being very empathetic and feeling their situation as our own experience, frankly speaking, are

Table 3. Nonparametric Correlations Among P–P Differences in Moral Development, Cognitive Empathy, and Affective Empathy	
	Difference[a] in moral development
Difference[a] in cognitive empathy	0.693**
Difference[a] in affective empathy	−0.038

[a] Difference between P–P scores.
** Significant at 0.01 level.

not [possible]. (Participant of focus group with Hong Kong students, female)

The circumstance of cognitively comprehending the difficulties faced by the villagers but being unable to vividly feel, emotionally and affectively, what they feel is further echoed in the interview with a nonlocal student, explaining the quantitative findings also.

No, I do not think they [have enough] food. I do not think I can [feel what they are feeling]. When they face us, they are very enthusiastic. . . . We cannot see their difficulties in the background. . . . They make us feel that they like us very much. . . . Our group is responsible for two families. One of the families' situation is really, really bad. Their family is very poor. Their father has a severe disease and cannot work, with high medical expenditure each month. This family told us that they have this situation. . . . (Student A, female, nonlocal student)

As shown in Table 4, the Wilcoxon signed ranks test of the P–P of the general, affective, and cognitive empathy scores as well as the moral development scores are all statistically insignificant, with a *p*-value greater than 0.05. This result reveals that the objective assessment of the differences (increments) in moral development and empathy building by P–P comparison of scores is not conclusive. However, the subjective self-evaluation (on the part of students) of the effectiveness of the service-learning experience in moral development and empathy nurturance is highly positive, as reflected in Table 2 (Statements 2.1.1–2.2.4). The students in the focus group highlight that moral development and empathy nurturance are long-term engagements, rather than being enhanced suddenly and drastically by a short, one-off service-learning course. Nevertheless, such a "soft" experience in service-learning provides certain inspirations for deep reflections on such issues as how to live one's life and relationships with others within one's society and the world (as reflected in Table 2), leading to a positive subjective self-evaluation of the efficacy of such a service-learning experience in facilitation of empathy nurturance and moral development. However, great significant positive changes in moral development and empathy scores may not occur (as reflected in the comparison of P–P scores). That is, such a service-learning experience leads to incremental, rather than striking, changes in empathy building and moral development. Such changes can be sensed subjectively by the students concerned, instead of being reflected in objective measurements. This finding is also echoed in the conclusion of Leung and Yung (2020).

This multidimensional border-crossing service-learning experience stimulates the students to rethink and reorient their relationship with the service recipients and their views on the relationship between the developed and the developing world. The following excerpt from a student's reflective essay illustrates this relationship.

Table 4. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test of P–P Scores of Students			
Variable	**Time**	**Mean Rank**	***p*-value**
General empathy score[a]	Postprogram < Preprogram	5.50	0.373
	Postprogram > Preprogram	8.29	
Affective empathy score	Postprogram < Preprogram	6.92	0.480
	Postprogram > Preprogram	7.94	
Cognitive empathy score	Postprogram < Preprogram	6.13	0.809
	Postprogram > Preprogram	4.10	
Moral development score	Postprogram < Preprogram	8.56	0.981
	Postprogram > Preprogram	9.50	
[a] Derived from cognitive empathy score + affective empathy score. *Note. A low score indicates a comparatively high achievement in that aspect.*			

Driven by bravado, benevolence and maybe some curiosity, I decided to join this trip to Cambodia, my very first time to a country of the Third World. Before we arrive, I thought the purpose of our trip, exaggerating a bit, was to be "lifesavers" to the Cambodians living in the remote areas. I absolutely had no idea that, now, after these twelve amazing days, I unexpectedly find that it is them, the kind-hearted, adorable villagers who are truly being my "lifesavers." Beautiful, clean blue sky, simple and pristine villages, with enthusiastic villagers gathering around us gave my journey a wonderful start. I thought I was ready to face the poverty, but realized I wasn't when I found myself in a daze seeing the naked girls and boys running along the sandy road on their bare, tiny foot. I started to ask myself, do I really know what poverty is, or what poverty means to me? (Reflective Essay 2)

Within the context of intercultural sensitivity, this student may be demonstrating signs of "reversal," which involves assumed superiority of another culture while denigrating one's own; at this point, the student has yet to progress to become a truly multicultural person at the DMIS final integration stage (building one's own identity within ethnorelativism and multicultural context by construing oneself in different cultural ways).

At the beginning of the course, the students might have believed that they were in a good position to help the "needy" in Cambodia, but resolved that they should treat the villagers on an equal footing rather than adopt a patronizing attitude. In addition, the students concluded that they learned a great deal from their interactions with the villagers. That is, in the process of giving, the students gained much in return, especially intangibly. This finding is reflected in the following:

I think that "co-workers" can best describe our relationship with the villagers. While they are assisting us, we learn from their positivity and simplicity. They will come over the site and interact with us, which I think it is very welcoming and supportive. (Reflective Essay 4)

Service-learning experience facilitates students' deliberation on their relationship with the service recipients. In addition, the staff from Cambodia involved in the course highlighted in a written reply that the very fact that the service-learning trip took place in a rural community (with urban vs. rural border-crossing) in a developing country (developed vs. developing world border-crossing) was advantageous "in terms of social contributions and social engagements to poverty reduction, education and cultural understanding." Such a national border-crossing service-learning endeavor can lead to cultural sensitivity and understanding, which may be difficult to achieve if the service is conducted in a local context. Service-learning in an overseas context provides an additional cross-border nurturance ground for student reflections.

Ultimately, such a multifaceted border-crossing experience broadens students' horizons, providing them memorable and unforgettable experiences that are food for thought and that function well beyond the mere measurement of credits and marks. These factors can be concluded from what the students expressed in the focus group.

[The service-learning experience] really broadens my horizons. You must go to another place to see what is happening in the other side of the world. It greatly broadens my horizons. I notice many things in this trip. It is valuable. (Participant of focus group with Hong Kong students, female)

I really learnt how to be contented. If we went to Cambodia for visiting tourist attractions, we might not have such an unforgettable experience. During the whole course, I no longer worried about credits. I myself am like this. (Participant of focus group with Hong Kong students, female)

Thus, this service-learning trip fundamentally differed from a travel vacation, broadening students' horizons and granting them a memorable and extraordinary experience. The trip also provided students a new dimension toward studying and learning, something beyond the mere pursuit of credits and marks.

Conclusion

We applied mixed-methods research in a pioneering study of a course that included service-learning experiences involving five border-crossing dimensions: (1) urban versus rural, (2) developed versus developing world areas, (3) classroom versus practical and experiential, (4) Hong Kong versus Cambodian culture (cross-cultural), and (5) teachers' paternalism versus students' voice. We conclude that these experiences were largely effective in facilitating students' understanding of poverty, moral development, and empathy nurturance on the basis of students' subjective self-assessment of the efficacy of their service-learning experience. Moral development on the part of students during such service-learning experiences is more related to cognitive than affective empathy building, a relationship that can be explained by the huge gap involved in the developed versus developing world border crossing. This gap makes the real feeling of prolonged hunger too remote to be comprehensible to nonpoor students who never experience such ordeals in their place of origin in the developed world. Thus, imagining the feelings involved in persistent hunger can be difficult for them, although they can cognitively comprehend the degree of difficulty of such plights by putting themselves into the shoes of the Cambodian villagers. From this perspective, a local service-learning experience with a lesser degree of border crossing by serving the disadvantaged within the same society may have an advantage in constructing affective empathy.

Nevertheless, such an exposure to a far-off world provides a rich ground for students to reflect on the issue of global poverty, their values, their relationships with others within their society and the global world, and their goals in life, resulting in high subjective self-assessment, on the part of the students, of the efficacy of the service-learning experience in moral development and empathy nurturance. However, the objective measurement of P–P moral and empathy levels, on the part of students, does not conclusively echo such students' subjective self-assessment because the service experience may mainly serve as food for thought and reflection. Fundamentally, this cross-border service-learning trip served as an invaluable experience in the formative years of these undergraduates, paving the way for future subtle or evident changes in their lives through broadening their horizons and exposure to another culture socioeconomically, culturally, and nationally. This research is an intensive study of a case of border-crossing service-learning that involved a limited number of students. Further research efforts to explore diverse service-learning experiences in different border-crossing contexts will lead to further generalization and contextualization.

About the Authors

Betty Yung is a visiting fellow in Department of Public Policy at City University of Hong Kong.

Kam-por Yu was a research officer in the Philosophy Department of the University of Hong Kong, associate professor in the Department of Public and Social Administration of the City University of Hong Kong, and director of the General Education Centre of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

Barbara Y. P. Leung is a visiting lecturer at the Department of Building and Real Estate of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

Jack Chun is a senior teaching fellow of Chinese and Bilingual Studies at Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

References

Baggerly, J. (2006). Service learning with children affected by poverty: Facilitating multicultural competence in counselling education students. *Journal of Multicultural Counselling and Development, 34*(4), 244–255. https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2161-1912.2006.tb00043.x

Barnett, M. A. (2007). Moral development. In R. F. Baumeister & K. D. Vohs (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of social psychology* (Vol. 1, p. 587). SAGE Publications. https://www.doi.org/10.4135/9781412956253.n349

Bennett, M. J. (1986). A developmental approach to training for intercultural sensitivity. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 10*(2), 179–196. https://doi.org/10.1016/0147-1767(86)90005-2

Boss, J. A. (1994). The effect of community service work on the moral development of college ethics students. *Journal of Moral Education, 23*(2), 183–198. https://doi.org/10.1080/0305724940230206

Bowdon, M., Pigg, S., & Mansfield, L. P. (2015). Feminine and feminist ethics and service-learning site selection: The role of empathy. *Feminist Teacher, 24*(1–2), 57–82. https://doi.org/10.5406/femteacher.24.1-2.0057

Brower, H. H. (2011). Sustainable development through service learning: A pedagogical framework and case example in a Third World context. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 10*(1), 58–76. https://doi.org/10.5465/amle.10.1.zqr58

Davidov, M. (2018). Empathy. In M. H. Bornstein (Ed.), *The SAGE encyclopedia of lifespan human development* (pp. 741–743). SAGE Publications. https://www.doi.org/10.4135/9781506307633.n277

Donovan, T. (2008). Empathy. In E. Mason-Whitehead, A. Mcintosh, A. Bryan, & T. Mason (Eds.), *Key concepts in nursing* (pp. 121–127). Sage.

Ganzert, C., Holton, N., & Stoecker, R. (2017). Introduction: Why rural service learning? In R. Stoecker, N. Holton, & C. Ganzert (Eds.), *The landscape of rural service learning, and what it teaches us all* (pp. xi–xvii). Michigan State University Press.

Gibbs, J. C. (2003). *Moral development and reality: Beyond the theories of Kohlberg and Hoffman*. Sage.

Gorman, M., Duffy, J., & Heffernan, M. (1994). Service experience and the moral development of college students. *Religious Education: The Official Journal of the Religious Education Association, 89*(3), 422–431. https://doi.org/10.1080/0034408940890308

Hammer, N. R., Bennett, M. J., & Wiseman, R. (2003). Measuring intercultural sensitivity: The intercultural development inventory. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 27*(4), 421–443.

Harris, G. (2004). Lessons for service learning in rural areas. *Journal of Planning Education and Research, 24*(1), 41–50. https://doi.org/10.1177/0739456X04267711

Hawkins, J. E., & Vialet, C. (2012). Service-learning abroad: A life-changing experience for nursing students. *Journal of Christian Nursing, 29*(3), 173–177. https://doi.org/10.1097/cnj.0b013e31823fabf2

Holton, N., Casey, K. M., Fletcher, C., Ganzert, C., Hamerlinck, J., Henness, S. A., Proulx-Curry, P., Ross, J. A., Stevenson, H. A., Stoecker, R., Tullier, S., & Wood, S. (2017). The landscape of rural service learning. In R. Stoecker, N. Holton, & C. Ganzert (Eds.), *The landscape of rural service learning, and what it teaches us all* (pp. 3–14). Michigan State University Press.

Le, Q. V., & Raven, P. V. (2015). An assessment of experiential learning of global poverty issues through international service projects. *Journal of Teaching in International Business, 26*(2), 136–158. https://doi.org/10.1080/08975930.2015.1051692

Leung, B., & Yung, B. (2020). Service learning in an urban context—pedagogy for nurturing empathy and moral development. *Journal of Education* Online version first. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022057420944853

Main, M. E., Garrett-Wright, D., & Kerby, M. (2013). Nursing student voices: Reflections on an international service learning. *Kentucky Nurse, 61*(1), 10–11.

Marken, D. M., Moxley, B., & Fraley, A. K. (2011). Safe & independent: Enriching lives through service-learning. *Journal of Applied Gerontology, 30*(4), 505–512. https://doi.org/10.1177/0733464810368401

Seider, S. C., Rabinowicz, S., & Gillmor, S. C. (2011). Changing American college students' conceptions of poverty through community service learning. *Analyses of Social Issues and Public Policy, 11*(1), 105–126. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1530-2415.2010.01224.x

Steckler, C. M., & Hamlin, J. K. (2016). Moral development. In H. L. Miller (Ed.), *The SAGE encyclopedia of theory in psychology* (pp. 565–566). Sage.

Strain, C. R. (2005). Pedagogy and practice: Service-learning and students' moral development. *New Directions for Teaching and Learning, 2005*(103), 61–72. https://doi.org/10.1002/tl.204

Tullier, S. (2017). Student voice in rural service learning. In R. Stoecker, N. Holton, & C. Ganzert (Eds.), *The landscape of rural service learning, and what it teaches us all* (pp. 41–51). Michigan State University Press.

Walshalsh, J. (2006). Subjective measures of poverty. In M. Odekon (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of world poverty* (p. 1036). Sage.

Wisor, S. (2012). Poverty and poverty alleviation. In H. K. Anheir & M. Juergensmeyer (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of global studies* (pp. 1369–1372). SAGE. http://sk.sagepub.com/reference/globalstudies/n429.xml

Xing, J., & Ma, C. H. K. (2010). Introduction: Service-learning in Asia. In J. Xing & C. H. K. Ma (Eds.), *Service-learning in Asia: Curricular models and practices* (pp. 1–13). Hong Kong University Press.

Zlotkowski, E. (1996). Opportunity for all: Linking service-learning and business education. *Journal of Business Ethics, 15*, 5–19. https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00380258

Graduate Scholars Leadership, Engagement, and Development: Initial Design, Implementation, and Lessons Learned

Julie A. Coffield, Jasmine Choi, Ikseon Choi, Brandy B. Walker, Katherine Walters, Janette R. Hill, Sejin Kim, Janet E. Rechtman, K. Paige Carmichael, Ramana Pidaparti, and Meredith Welch-Devine

Abstract

The fast-paced advances in technology and scientific knowledge in the 21st century call for learners to possess professional skills that complement their technical skills to make meaningful contributions in communities. This article introduces a cross-disciplinary leadership training program, Graduate Scholars Leadership, Engagement, and Development (GS LEAD), that was designed and implemented to train students in professional skills including problem-solving, interdisciplinary teamwork, leadership, communication, and engagement. This training program provided learning opportunities for incoming graduate students to work beyond their laboratories, across disciplines, and into communities to identify real-world problems and design sustainable solutions. The design and implementation of the program, the findings of participating students' development in Program Year 1, and suggestions for future program design are discussed.

Keywords: graduate education, leadership, community engagement

---

Dynamic changes in global societies coupled with advances in technology and scientific knowledge call for a STEM workforce that is technically advanced in its disciplines and readily adaptable and responsive to evolving opportunities (Bidarra & Rusman, 2016; Crippen & Archambault, 2012). Traditional educational approaches primarily train students in foundational knowledge and technical skills, but emerging scientists and engineers need skills that reach beyond the laboratory, across disciplines, and into communities to identify issues and develop resilient and sustainable solutions.

Students need to develop professional skills that complement their disciplinary training and proficiency. This is particularly critical at the graduate level, as many students are pursuing advanced degrees that will enable them to move into a variety of professional roles after graduation. Although many experts recognize the importance of professional skills (Shuman et al., 2005), most academic programs do not specify professional skills training as an explicit goal for their students, nor as a formal aspect of their curriculum. Rather, programs rely on the time-honored traditions of mentoring and modeling as informal means to develop professional skills in their students (Bates et al., 2009; Benbassat, 2014). Given the importance of these skills, the traditional paradigm of informal training needs to be challenged by immersing professional skills development at the inception of graduate training. In addition to better preparing students to make contributions in their careers, early training may equip graduate students to make more creative and innovative contributions in their research labs, their dissertation projects, and their chosen fields of study. In this article, we present the Graduate Scholars Leadership, Engagement, and Development project (GS LEAD), a formal interdisciplinary train-

ing program developed at the University of Georgia (UGA) and implemented in the earliest stage of graduate education. We discuss the initial design, implementation, findings, and lessons learned thus far from the project to inform best practices for promoting graduate student leadership in the community.

Context

The University of Georgia

As a prominent public land- and sea-grant institution of higher education, UGA is committed to academic excellence. This commitment, as well as its institutional mission and core values, are reflected by its motto, "to teach, to serve, and to inquire into the nature of things" (University of Georgia, 2014). In recognition of the critical impact that rapid advances in science and technology have in our global society, UGA has made a strong commitment to the advancement of STEM education at all levels. In addition, education leaders at UGA value diversity, interdisciplinarity, and teamwork and embrace the need to prepare all students, both technically and professionally, for a 21st-century workforce that partners with communities locally and globally.

The GS LEAD Project

The University of Georgia initiated GS LEAD to address professional skills training in graduate education. This "project with promise" pilot program trains graduate students in problem solving, interdisciplinary teamwork, leadership, communication, and community engagement, critical professional skills that transcend disciplines and prepare graduate students with a focus on STEM for a broad range of career choices. Critical to the success of GS LEAD are strategic partnerships that (1) embrace the institutional pillars of teaching, research, and service; (2) reshape the 21st-century STEM graduate scholar to meet the needs of the communities they will serve; and (3) transform graduate education.

The GS LEAD project is a campus collaboration led by the UGA Graduate School and funded through a National Science Foundation Innovations in Graduate Education (NSF-IGE) grant awarded to the Graduate School. As the central unit responsible for supporting graduate education, the UGA Graduate School has brought together faculty leaders from across a broad span of academic and service units who possess the collective expertise to develop, coordinate, and implement the project goals.

The UGA Graduate School, in collaboration with the institution's Public Service and Outreach unit, partnered with the Colleges of Arts and Sciences, Education, Engineering, Journalism and Mass Communication, and Veterinary Medicine to carry out this project. The leadership team includes faculty in graduate education and public service and outreach, as well as STEM and STEM-related disciplines from across the UGA campus. The areas of expertise of the project implementation team range from interdisciplinary graduate education and program evaluation to communication, leadership, and community engagement. The rich variety and expertise of the leadership and implementation teams are reflected in the innovative design, development, and implementation of GS LEAD.

Project Details

Purpose of the Project

The GS LEAD approach focuses on newly matriculating doctoral students and infuses early doctoral education with experiential learning, beginning with facilitated instruction in professional skills that progresses to less-guided experiential learning, providing interdisciplinary collaborative opportunities and facilitating community-engaged opportunities. By aligning professional skill training with experiential learning, GS LEAD has piloted a novel approach in STEM graduate education. We hypothesize that a focused, student-centered learning model that pairs students with local communities to work on a problem of pressing importance will better prepare students to succeed in their graduate training, as well as in their chosen fields of work after graduation. GS LEAD uses a challenge-based learning model of professional skills training with three goals: (1) determining key considerations in transferring this pedagogical model from the health sciences domain in which it was established to the domain of STEM graduate education; (2) determining the impact of providing skills training at the beginning of a student's graduate career, both for the student and for the labs in which they may work; and (3) developing best practices for sustainably implementing the model, should it prove to be effective in

one or more of these contexts.

The results of this pilot study will significantly advance our understanding of the impact that early, immersive training in professional skills has on career placement and success and, just as importantly, on the contributions that students make to research during their graduate studies and beyond. In addition, the results will help assess whether pedagogies like challenge-based learning (Johnson & Adams, 2011) that have been successful in health sciences training (Harris & Brophy, 2005; Sable et al., 2001; Thistlethwaite et al. 2012) can be feasibly applied to STEM graduate education.

Project Site

GS LEAD was implemented at the main UGA campus in Athens, Georgia. Newly admitted doctoral students began GS LEAD in the summer before their first graduate semester at UGA (Summer Academy). The summer start also enabled students not familiar with the Athens area to get to know the campus as well as the surrounding community prior to the start of the academic year.

Participants

Newly admitted doctoral students in the agricultural and environmental sciences, biomedical and health sciences, engineering, public health, and social sciences were recruited to participate in GS LEAD during the spring term immediately preceding the start of the Summer Academy. Project participants received a stipend to partially offset living expenses during the summer program. The GS LEAD Year 1 cohort had 12 incoming doctoral students, Year 2 cohort included 15 incoming doctoral students, and Year 3 cohort included 14 students. The results presented in this article focus on the Year 1 cohort. In-depth analysis of the data from Cohorts 2 and 3 is ongoing and will be presented in future publications.

Program Design

Overall, GS LEAD was designed to provide students with the opportunity to engage in experiences that would develop leadership traits necessary to become STEM scholar leaders. To do this, a set of leadership competencies was first developed by the project evaluation team. Through literature reviews, discussions, and interviews with co-PIs and leadership experts to align leadership, interdisciplinary thinking, and

community engagement, a list of leadership skills that students should possess was proposed. A semi-Delphi method was then employed to collect STEM experts' opinions on six key competencies and associated attributes across different disciplines. Potential attributes for these key competencies were collected from eight experts across different disciplines. An initial list was developed based on attribute frequency. The experts were then asked to identify their top five attributes for each of the competencies. This process resulted in identification of the top five attributes for each of the six competencies. These are referred to throughout the article as the GS LEAD leadership competencies and were used to guide the design of participants' experiences as well as program evaluation. Table 1 describes in detail the six competencies, attributes, and their definitions.

The GS LEAD program began with the 8-week Summer Leadership Academy. The purpose of this Summer Leadership Academy was for students to develop and hone transferable competencies in problem-solving, leadership, effective communication of scholarship, teamwork, and community engagement. A typical week in the summer academy included approximately three days of facilitated workshops, guest lectures, group exercises, one or two expert panel discussions, and dedicated time for self-reflection. Off-site visits with local or regional community programs were scheduled throughout the summer and provided students the opportunity to experience community issues firsthand. The workshops and lectures, usually delivered in a collaborative classroom setting, were organized by the course facilitators. Panel discussions included GS LEAD PIs/co-PIs, additional STEM scholar leaders from UGA, community engagement experts, and community leaders. Panelists and guest speakers were selected because they exemplified GS LEAD leadership competencies. Field experiences in the local community as well as surrounding areas were arranged and led by the facilitators and community partners. These opportunities for students to engage with a variety of people expanded their understanding of community issues. The overall theme for the first Summer Leadership Academy was food, including food technology, the politics of food, and then a growing emphasis on food access.

In the fall semester following completion

Table 1. Leadership Competencies, Definitions, and Attributes		
Competency	**Definition**	**Attributes**
1. Self-awareness/lifelong learning	I understand my personal strengths and weaknesses and can reflect on and adapt to feedback and ideas for change.	1.1. I am open to feedback from others and to trying new ideas and methods based on this feedback. 1.2. I can adapt to changing conditions. 1.3. I have the courage to take risks. 1.4. I am eager to learn and grow. 1.5. I have a clear sense of how I am perceived by others and how this varies with context.
2. Community engagement/ public citizenship	Being aware of one's role(s) within different communities, understanding the different perspectives of different communities, and being respectful of the community.	2.1. I can organize and maintain smooth, effective working relationships. 2.2. I have a clear sense of how scientific research and practice relate to nonscientific disciplines and communities. 2.3. I recognize and reward the contributions of others. 2.4. I can assess and respond to contexts, including political, legal, commercial, ethical, disciplinary, and interpersonal. 2.5. I am sensitive to and responsive about the dilemmas and ambiguity that arise when STEM leaders work in community.
3. Paradigmatic knowledge	Understanding and appreciating the role of paradigms in one's work in community.	3.1. I have a broad understanding of my discipline, including context and content as well as technical knowledge of my field. 3.2. I understand the perspectives of various disciplines and functions and conditions that affect these perspectives. 3.3. I act in accordance with stated values and use ethical considerations to guide my decisions and actions. 3.4. I can integrate knowledge, perspectives, and entities that lead to new outcomes. 3.5. I understand how the social construction of knowledge can result in differences in perception dependent on context.*
4. Strategic problem-solving	Uses design thinking to engage others in setting goals, and definition and implementation of plans for achieving these goals.	4.1. I am mentally agile—I can see things from new angles and ask insightful questions. 4.2. I analyze diverse viewpoints to make planning decisions and solve problems. 4.3. I have a bias toward action, distinguishing between relevant and irrelevant information, making timely decisions that lead to helpful solutions. 4.4. I manage my time wisely, deal with interruptions appropriately, and avoid spreading myself too thin. 4.5. I use effective strategies to facilitate change initiatives and overcome resistance to change.
5. Effective communication/ storytelling	Clearly and succinctly shares ideas and information that engage others by creating and sustaining a sense of shared meaning about the work at hand.	5.1. I can encourage and maintain constructive dialogue among participants. 5.2. I can develop a credible and compelling vision and can secure commitment from stakeholders for achieving a shared vision. 5.3. I am warm and have a sense of humor. 5.4. I use web-based communications and social networking tools appropriately. 5.5. I am an effective advocate and spokesperson for the work I am advancing.
6. Multicultural/multidisciplinary fluency*	Skilled with norms of interaction that facilitate inclusive participation by people from diverse communities and disciplines.*	6.1. I can engage diverse partners (individuals and organizations) in collaborative networks and multidisciplinary partnerships. 6.2. I enjoy the challenge of working with and experiencing differences among people.* 6.3. I am aware of and respond positively to diversity in others, including disciplinary, class, gender, ethnic, and cultural differences. 6.4. I work effectively with people who differ in race, gender, culture, age, or background. 6.5. I facilitate individual and group self-expression, promoting the values of pluralism and diversity in society.
Refined for Year 2.		

of the Summer Leadership Academy, the students advanced into a semester-long Grand Challenge Course with the overarching theme of connecting STEM disciplines to community needs. The purpose of the challenge course was for students to apply learned practices from the summer academy in a community setting, and to embrace these experiences in meaningful ways that could be carried forward into their dissertation research and professional careers. The end product of the fall course was a community-engaged project that the students defined and completed in small teams. The projects focused on working with communities to identify and codesign solutions to complex problems, such as access to healthy foods, experiential educational spaces, and community-engaged needs assessments.

Building community partnerships was crucial to the overall success of the program. However, gaining access to communities and building trust is a process that can take years. Fortunately, with service as a core pillar of its mission, UGA's Office of Vice President for Public Service and Outreach (PSO) has built partnerships across the state, with public service professionals deeply embedded in local communities throughout Georgia. The GS LEAD program collaborated with two PSO units, the J. W. Fanning Institute for Leadership Development and the Archway Partnership, to identify communities for students to partner with for their collaborative projects: The J. W. Fanning Institute for Leadership Development is "dedicated to strengthening communities, organizations, and individuals through leadership development, training, and education" (J. W. Fanning Institute, 2018), and the Archway Partnership addresses "self-identified community issues in geographically dispersed locations across the State" (*About Archway Partnership*, 2018). These units provided sites for field trips and identified local community leaders to act as guides for GS LEAD participants during these visits.

In addition to the experiences provided by the summer academy and fall course, students were encouraged throughout the program to engage in cohort-building activities to deepen their interpersonal relationships. For example, students had opportunities to continue engaging with their leadership coaches from the Summer Leadership Academy into the Fall Challenge Course. This multitiered approach has been reported

by others to be effective for leadership development (Wendler et al., 2012).

Measuring the Impact of GS LEAD

Assessment of the impact of GS LEAD (IRB Approval #00003534) focused on how the students' experiences in the program influenced their development of leadership, interdisciplinary, collaborative, and community engagement skills, as well as their personal development of self. Specific data collection instruments (see Table 2) were developed and employed to gather information on participants' experiences and were implemented according the schedule detailed in Table 2.

Findings to Date

GS LEAD Cohort 1 included 12 incoming doctoral students from STEM and STEM-related disciplines. Outcomes of participants' experiences of the program, including each data collection method, as well as the initial results, are provided below.

The outcomes of the project were assessed through five different data collection instruments. (1) The Leadership Inventory examined participants' understanding of leadership skills before and after the program. (2) The course satisfaction surveys measured participants' satisfaction and experiences on a weekly basis throughout the summer and during the fall. (3) Open-ended reflection questions enabled participants to reflect on their experiences throughout the summer. (4) Interviews were conducted in both summer and fall for participants to share experiences related to their individual growth through the program. (5) A simulation-based performance assessment assessed participants' growth by examining their leadership, teamwork, communication, and decision-making skills before and after the summer program.

GS LEAD Leadership Inventory

The GS LEAD Leadership Inventory (GSLLI; see Figure 1) includes six key competency definitions (e.g., community engagement/public citizenship) with five associated attribute statements (e.g., "I can organize and maintain smooth, effective working relationships.") for a total of 30 attribute statements. The GSLLI was developed to measure student understanding and engagement with the GS LEAD leadership competencies.

Table 2. Data Collection Instruments and Implementation Schedule		
Data source/instrument	**Description**	**Implementation schedule**
Leadership Inventory	Twofold survey that assessed program competencies by ranking 30 leadership attributes students perceive they possess, and then ranking those they perceive as ideal for a STEM scholar leader.	• Beginning of Summer Leadership Academy • End of Fall Challenge Course
Course satisfaction survey	Online Likert scale survey to gauge students' satisfaction in their learning experiences.	• Weekly during Summer Leadership Academy • Midterm survey during Fall Challenge Course
Open-ended reflection questions	Online questions that prompt students to reflect on session activities and personal/learning experiences.	• Weekly during Summer Leadership Academy
Face-to-face interviews	Questions to elicit student feedback on the program experiences and effectiveness towards self-development.	• End of Summer Leadership Academy
Simulation-based performance assessment	Computer-mediated small group role-play activity to assess students' leadership, teamwork, communication, and decision-making skills.	• Beginning of Summer Leadership Academy • End of Summer Leadership Academy

The GSLLI was one way to measure the students' growth in leadership development as a result of their participation in GS LEAD. By having students express their views of current and ideal proficiencies in leadership throughout the program, changes in their understanding of leadership over the course of the program were measured.

Procedure

The GSLLI employed two activities for the students to complete using the leadership competency attribute statements. For the first activity, they were asked to rank these 30 attribute statements into five categories, in order of their current proficiency (from most to least proficient). The statements reflecting their best-realized attributes go in the first category and continue through a total of five categories until they classify all 30 attribute statements.

The second activity provided the students with the same list of attribute statements. However, this time they were asked to categorize the attribute statements they think will be most important to them in the future as STEM scholar leaders. Again, they grouped the attribute statements into five categories in order of importance.

The responses from the two activities were scored using a 5–1 scale (from most to least proficient/important). For example, the six attribute statements that were placed in the "most important" category received 5 points each. The six attribute statements that were placed in the "least important" category received 1 point each. Using this scale, a total of 90 points were assigned to 30 statements. Each competency consists of five statements, thus the value of each competency could vary from a total of 5 points to a total of 25 points, depending on the students' responses.

GSLLI Results

Students (N = 12) participated in pre- and posttraining surveys, once at the beginning of the program and once at the end of the program, to examine how their current and ideal competencies have changed throughout the Summer Leadership Academy and Grand Challenge Course (see Figure 1 and Figure 2).

Figure 2 illustrates students' current and ideal proficiencies at the beginning (presurvey) and at the end (postsurvey) of the program. If the importance of each competency is equally distributed, then the total score for each competency is 15 points; this was used as a reference point.

Name:

GS LEAD Leadership Inventory

1. Please look through the behavior cards provided and put each behavior card in the order of proficiency – How good I am in currently using these behaviors.

YOUR first top 6 behaviors

- I am open to feedback from others and to trying new ideas and methods based on this feedback.
- I can engage diverse partners (individuals and organizations) in collaborative networks and multidisciplinary partnerships.
- I can develop a credible and compelling vision and can secure commitment from stakeholders for achieving a shared vision.
- I have a bias toward action, distinguishing between relevant and irrelevant information, making timely decisions that lead to helpful solutions.
- I can integrate knowledge, perspectives, and entities that lead to new outcomes.
- I am sensitive to and respond to about the dilemmas and ambiguity that arise when STEM leaders work in community.

YOUR second top 6 behaviors

- I can organize and maintain smooth, effective working relationships.
- I can adapt to changing conditions.
- I enjoy the challenge of working with and experiencing differences among people.
- I am warm and have a sense of humor.
- I manage my time wisely, dealing with interruptions appropriately and avoid spreading myself too thin.
- I understand how the social construction of knowledge can result in differences in perception dependent on context.

YOUR third top 6 behaviors

- I have a broad understanding of my discipline, including context and content as well as technical knowledge of my field.
- I have a clear sense of how scientific research and practice relates to non-scientific disciplines and communities.
- I have the courage to take risks.
- I am aware of and respond positively to diversity in others, including disciplinary, class, gender, ethnic and cultural differences.
- I use web-based communications and social networking tools appropriately.
- I use effective strategies to facilitate change initiatives and overcome resistance to change.

YOUR fourth top 6 behaviors

- I am mentally agile – I can see things from new angles and ask insightful questions.
- I understand the perspectives of various disciplines and functions and conditions that affect these perspectives.
- I recognize and reward the contributions of others.
- I am eager to learn and grow.
- I work effectively with people who differ in race, gender, culture, age or background.
- I am an effective advocate and spokesperson for the work I am advancing.

YOUR fifth top 6 behaviors

- I can assess and respond to contexts, including political, legal, commercial, ethical, disciplinary and interpersonal.
- I have a clear sense of how I am perceived by others and how this varies with context.
- I facilitate individual and group self-expression, promoting the values of pluralism and diversity in society.
- I can encourage and maintain constructive dialog among participants.
- I analyze diverse viewpoints to make planning decisions and solve problems.
- I act in accordance with stated values and use ethical considerations to guide my decisions and actions.

Figure 1. Sample GSLLI Inventory Survey

Comparison of current competencies between pre- and postsurvey results revealed that students awarded more points to self-awareness/lifelong learning, paradigmatic knowledge, and multicultural/multidisciplinary fluency over time. This may indicate that students perceived that their competencies became stronger in self-awareness/lifelong learning, paradigmatic knowledge, and multicultural/multidisciplinary fluency in comparison to others. The awarding of points in strategic problem-solving remained relatively stable over time. In contrast, students awarded fewer points to community engagement/public citizenship and effective communication/storytelling over time. Given that the awarding of a fixed number of total points requires that increases in some areas lead to decreases in others, this finding suggests that the students felt less strongly about their proficiencies in these two areas, or that their earlier perceptions of their abilities/knowledge were tempered by the real-life experiences they encountered during their training.

Figure 2 also shows changes over time in ideal proficiencies and suggests potential areas for enhancements in future training. Comparisons of ideal competency scores between pre- and postsurvey results revealed that students awarded more points to self-awareness/lifelong learning, paradigmatic knowledge, effective communication/storytelling, and multicultural/multidisciplinary fluency over time, with the latter two competencies seeing the strongest increases. These findings may indicate that students perceived that future training for scholar leaders should be focused further in areas of communication/storytelling and multicultural/multidisciplinary fluency. Corresponding decreases were noted in community engagement/public citizenship and strategic problem-solving over time, suggesting that the students gave less weight to proficiency in these areas. It should be noted that these interpretations may be limited by the lower number of participants in the postsurvey due to incomplete responses and/or low participation.

Course Satisfaction Surveys

Course satisfaction Likert scale surveys were used to gauge students' (*N* = 12) perceptions of the usefulness of the sessions by asking them to rate their satisfaction.

Procedure

The 5-point Likert scale surveys (5 = *high*, 1 = *low*) were implemented biweekly throughout the summer academy. A midterm course satisfaction survey using a 3-point Likert scale (3 = *high*, 1 = *low*) was administered in the challenge course to elicit recommendations for ongoing improvements of the course. All satisfaction surveys were distributed to the participants online using Qualtrics software.

Results

The participants' survey responses from the summer academy implied satisfaction, with an overall median score of 4.09 in terms of the design and implementation of the sessions (*M* = 4.02, *SD* = 0.51). The midterm evaluation of the challenge course indicated areas for improvement for the course design with an overall median score of 2.83 (*M* = 2.54, *SD* = 0.64). Table 3 presents overall Summer Leadership Academy course satisfaction survey results. Based on the satisfaction survey results, ideas for interweaving content for the Grand Challenge Course into the Summer Leadership Academy to improve transition were suggested and reflected in the overall revision of the curriculum for Year 2.

Weekly Open-Ended Reflection Questions for Summer Leadership Academy

Weekly open-ended reflection questions provided an opportunity for students to describe and reflect on their development and awareness of the competencies promoted through the learning experiences. The open-ended reflection questions also allowed the GS LEAD implementation team to gain a deeper understanding of the students' perceived experiences of the program. The reflection questions were posted from Weeks 1–6 on the program's private website discussion board; the students (*N* = 12) were also able to respond to the given questions through the secured website.

Procedure

The open-ended reflection questions were available to students starting at the end of Week 1 through the end of the Summer Leadership Academy. The reflection questions were formed based on the weekly themes and activities of the summer academy (see Table 4). The responses were analyzed and coded using the five attri-
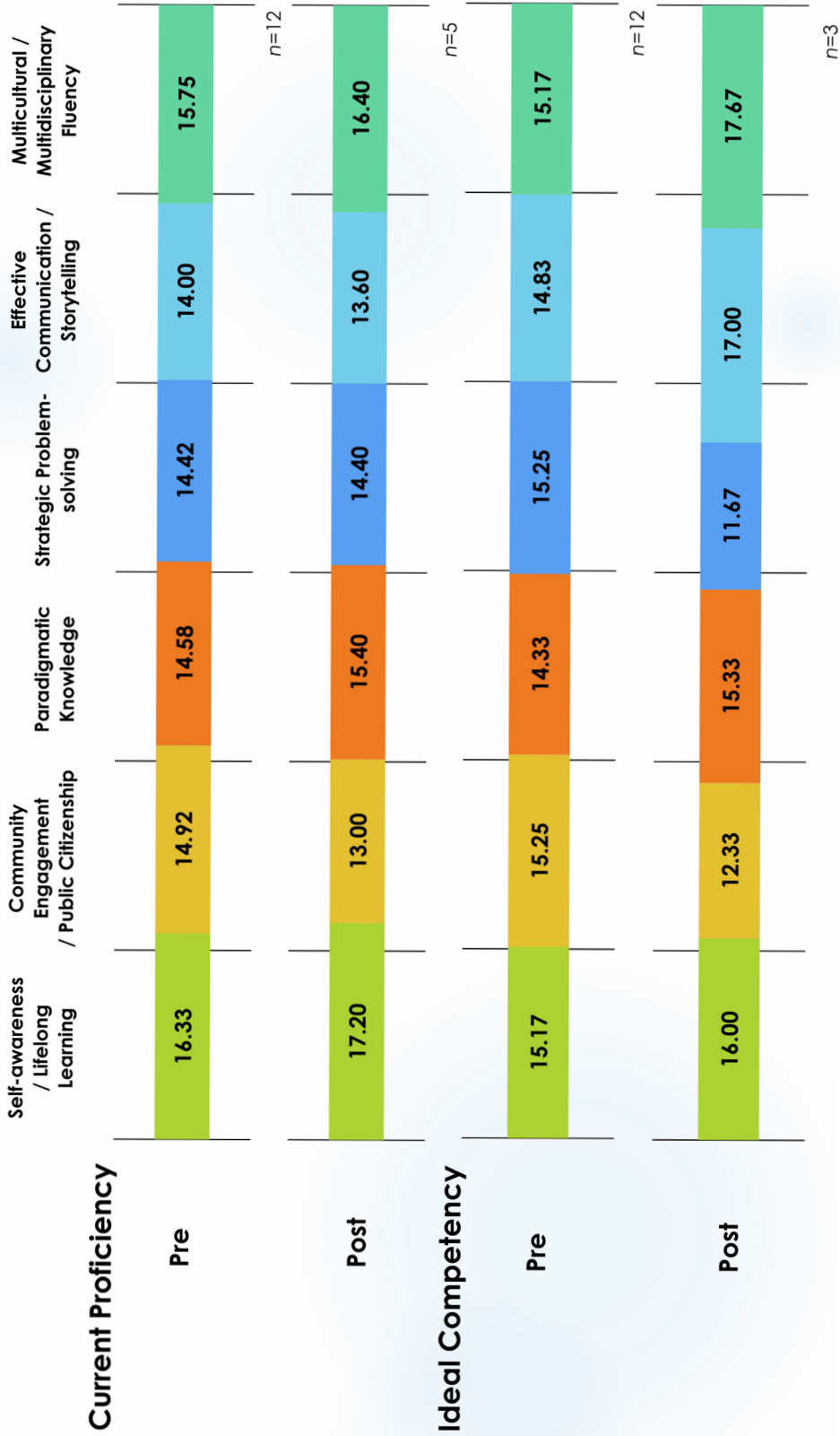
Figure 2. Students' Current and Ideal Proficiencies From Pre– and Postsurvey Data. Note. The number of respondents varies depending on the response rates.

Table 3. Course Satisfaction Survey

Session	Mean (SD)	Median	n
Summer course evaluation question: *This session had a positive impact on my development as a STEM scholar leader.*			
Opening Retreat: Welcome to the Summer Leadership Academy			
Panel on leadership	4.64 (0.64)	5.00	11
Cohort introductions via pecha kucha	3.91 (0.79)	4.00	11
Leadership perspectives sorting exercise	4.00 (0.60)	4.00	11
Team-building activities	4.36 (0.77)	5.00	11
Cohort activity/Watching and discussing the movie "The Martian"	3.91 (0.67)	4.00	11
Week 1: Food for thought, leadership, and your new role as a PhD student			
Simulation: Climb Mt. Everest	4.27 (0.86)	4.00	11
How people learn about leadership (KOLB & ORID)	3.73 (0.86)	4.00	11
Leadership practice inventory (LPI)	4.18 (0.72)	4.00	11
Guest speaker: STEM salaries	3.73 (0.86)	4.00	11
Marshmallow challenge	3.91 (0.79)	4.00	11
Science communication: Holistic vision of the lived experience of a STEM graduate student	3.73 (0.62)	4.00	11
Panel: Leadership & Food	4.64 (0.48)	5.00	11
Mindfulness sessions	4.18 (1.03)	5.00	11
Cohort activity/Campus tour & scavenger hunt	3.09 (0.79)	3.00	11
Field trip/Field trip to technical college	4.64 (0.48)	5.00	11
Homework/Observation assignment	3.09 (0.90)	3.00	11
Homework/Epistemology instruments	3.90 (0.83)	4.00	10
Week 2: We are what we eat, and community is about who you eat with			
EMERGENETICS	4.82 (0.57)	5.00	11
Panel: Storytelling, implicit & embedded narratives	4.73 (0.45)	5.00	11
Guest speaker: Culturally sensitive approaches to community	4.00 (0.95)	4.00	11
Cohort activity/Lab visit	4.18 (1.03)	5.00	11
Homework/Prioritizing competencies	4.09 (0.67)	4.00	11
Week 3: Slow food, fast food: Polarities as a STEM scholar/practitioner			
Politics of science	4.58 (0.49)	5.00	12
Panel with the regional commission	4.08 (0.76)	4.00	12
Discussion of Thomas Kuhn's *Structure of Scientific Revolutions*— Normal science and paradigm shifts	3.00 (1.15)	3.00	12
Communication and conflict (Ladder of inference, implicit bias)	4.25 (0.72)	4.00	12
Difficult conversations and dialogue	4.36 (0.48)	4.00	11
Epistemology discussion	2.92 (1.11)	2.50	12
Design thinking	3.17 (1.14)	3.00	12
Field trip/Food Well Alliance partners—Harvest; food bank; West community garden	4.83 (0.39)	5.00	12

Table 3. Course Satisfaction Survey (cont'd)			
Session	**Mean (SD)**	**Median**	**n**
Week 4: Indigestion, innovation, and inspiration			
The scientist discussion	4.33 (0.62)	4.00	12
Panel with LSAMP director; director of Regenerative Bioscience Center	3.83 (1.28)	4.50	12
Mangle of parsimony—Community engagement plan	3.00 (1.08)	3.00	12
Risk workshop	3.33 (1.37)	3.00	12
Innovation workshop	3.50 (1.12)	4.00	12
Culture, diversity, and personal/community narratives	4.00 (1.22)	4.50	12
Field trip/County partners—Westside Middle School; Oak Grove Landfill; Wimberly Community Center; Elementary Farm to School Project; Lazy B Farm	4.25 (0.62)	4.00	12
Mindfulness sessions	4.50 (0.67)	5.00	12
Week 5: Close-up on community/university partnerships			
Field trip—"Extended" campus Food PIC	3.57 (0.98)	4.00	7
Field trip—"County-community" partnership visit	4.57 (0.53)	5.00	7
Week 6: Iron chef: Technical and adaptive leadership			
Panel on ethics, sustainability, and safety	3.71 (1.60)	5.00	7
Ideation session	3.71 (1.11)	4.00	7
Week 7: Local flavor and community context			
Visioning session with project partners using Visual Explorer pictures	3.29 (0.95)	3.00	7
Think tank with project partners	4.29 (1.11)	5.00	7
Week 8: Soup's on! Bench to bedside			
Case study write-up, work-through, and skit	4.00 (0.58)	4.00	7
Peer consulting triad	4.71 (0.49)	5.00	7
Week 9: Celebrate and on to the Challenge Course			
Simulation game—Climb Mt. Everest	4.50 (0.55)	4.50	6
Final presentation—Personal leadership plan snapshot	4.17 (0.75)	4.00	6
Final presentation—Philosophy of community engagement snapshot	4.17 (0.75)	4.00	6
Final presentation—Project presentations	4.50 (0.55)	4.50	6
Self-graduation	4.33 (0.82)	4.50	6
Celebration reception	4.17 (0.98)	4.50	6
Fall course evaluation question: Rate the following activities for the program . . .			
Bring your own faculty (BYOF)	3.00 (1.79)	3.00	6
Lectures	1.40 (0.89)	1.00	5
Team clinics	3.00 (1.26)	3.00	6
Team sharing/Presentations in class	2.20 (1.10)	3.00	5
Design Review #1 (presentation)	2.67 (1.97)	2.00	6
Special session: Dean "Dan"	3.00 (1.79)	3.00	6

Note. Each session was ranked on a 5-point Likert scale.

	Table 4. Weekly Themes and Activities	
Week	**Topic**	**Activities**
1	Food for Thought . . . Leadership and your new role as a PhD student	Forum: STEM community and you Cohort activity: Campus tour and scavenger hunt Field trip: Learn–It Farm at regional technical college
2	We are what we eat & community is about who you eat with	Workshop: Community Engagement Dilemmas Cohort activity: Cook a meal together as a cohort Field trip: Visit labs across campus
3	Slow Food, Fast Food: Polarities as a STEM Scholar/Practitioner	Panel: Politics of Science Lecture: Introduction to Design Thinking Workshop: How to Have Difficult Conversations Cohort activity: Work with partners to interview STEM faculty across campus Field trip: Food Well Alliance and International Farmer's Market
4	Indigestion, Innovation, and Inspiration	Panel: Role of the "Scientist" Lecture: Role of Innovation and Risk in STEM Workshop: Culture, Diversity, and Community/Personal Narratives Cohort activity: Explore project ideas with team members Field trip: County school/Community field trip
5	Close–Up on Community/University Partnerships	Cohort activity: Explore project ideas with team members Field trip: "County–Community" Partnership and the Food Product Innovation and Commercialization Center (Food PIC)
6	Iron Chef: Technical and Adaptive Leadership	Panel: On the Challenges of Modernity: STEM Safety, Ethics, Sustainability Workshop: Ideation Session Cohort activity: Work on community project plan with your team

butes from each of the leadership competencies: self–awareness/lifelong learning, community engagement/public citizenship, paradigmatic knowledge, strategic problem–solving, effective communication/storytelling, and multicultural/multidisciplinary fluency.

Results

Based on a course content analysis, the six leadership competencies were distributed across the content (see Table 4) of the Summer Leadership Academy. Given that these competencies were the major learning objectives of the program, we believe that the content of the Summer Leadership Academy is aligned with the purpose of GS LEAD.

Students' reflection responses were analyzed using the leadership competencies as the initial codes (see samples of student quotes in Table 5). The numerical values in Table 6 represent the frequency of the competencies described by the students in their reflection responses. This process allowed the frequency of each individual competency to be compiled across each session week of the summer academy. Results indicate that students' overall experiences with the competencies were well–distributed across the Summer Leadership Academy. In particular, students' reflections indicated an emphasis around three competencies: (1) self–awareness/lifelong learning, (2) community engagement/public citizenship, and (3) effective communication/storytelling.

Interviews

The goals of the interviews were to collect constructive feedback on the experiences and effectiveness of GS LEAD, understand students' learning experiences and learning processes, and check what, if any, leadership competencies were personally developed and how such development occurred. Individual or small group (*n* = 2–3) interviews with participants (*N* = 12) took place at the end of the Summer Leadership Academy.

Table 5. Sample Quotes From Weekly Open–Ended Reflection Questions	
Competency	**Quotes**
Self–awareness/lifelong learning	I thought that the hunger simulation was a great way to dismantle the privileged perspective that I have when it comes to food security.
Community engagement/public citizenship	I do want my research to make a difference and have a direct impact on the lives of others. Heeding his advice about establishing partnerships with groups and organizations before collecting data will go a long way towards making my research more meaningful.
Paradigmatic knowledge	The act of service has always been an integral part of my personal and professional life. I believe in service you find what you are most passionate about. I think when passion and service intersect is when we can really make a difference in communities.
Strategic problem–solving	One of the things that I liked the most about it was the fact that it combined a for–profit model with trying to do better in the community and create economic development.
Effective communication/storytelling	I think most PhDs want their research to have a significant impact on society and would love an opportunity to discuss their research to the public.
Multicultural/multidisciplinary fluency	It's nice to see how people from different backgrounds (Aerospace engineering, Ag engineering and even some of them with no academic degrees) come together to bridge the gap between consumers and local food producers. I think it's a great way to serve the community.

Table 6. Competency Alignment (Overall)							
Competency	**Week 1**	**Week 2**	**Week 3**	**Week 4**	**Week 5**	**Week 6**	**Total**
Self–awareness/lifelong learning	12	1	23	14	–	–	**50**
Community engagement/public citizenship	9	3	24	17	9	1	**63**
Paradigmatic knowledge	6	2	13	5	1		**27**
Strategic problem–solving	2	–	11	20	5	1	**39**
Effective communication/ storytelling	4	–	26	14	–	–	**44**
Multicultural/multidisciplinary fluency	2	–	15	13	–	–	**30**
Total	**35**	**6**	**112**	**83**	**15**	**2**	

Procedure

Students were asked to participate in 1-hour interviews starting at the end of summer, which also included the first few weeks of the fall semester. The interviews were audio-recorded, then transcribed verbatim and coded using keywords from the list of leadership competencies. Additional themes and subthemes were generated in the analysis.

Results

The themes emerging from the analysis of students' responses during the interviews, along with the associated competencies and sample quotes, are listed in Table 7. Overall, students expressed greater awareness of interdisciplinary mind-sets and community engagement as a result of their experiences. Moreover, students began understanding what it meant to them to be a STEM scholar leader, and how their professional identities should be reflected.

Simulation-Based Team Performance Assessment

Working and learning together throughout the Summer Leadership Academy was a major component of the curriculum. Team performance was evaluated through the Mt. Everest simulation game developed by Michael A. Roberto and Amy C. Edmondson (Harvard Business School Publishing, 2011). As indicated on the website:

> The simulation uses the dramatic context of a Mount Everest expedition to reinforce student learning in group dynamics and leadership. Students play one of 5 roles on a team of hikers [e.g., leader, physician, environmentalist, marathoner, and photographer] attempting to summit the mountain. Team members analyze information on weather, health conditions, supplies, goals, or hiking speed, and determine how much of that information to communicate to their teammates. Failure to accurately communicate and analyze information as a team has negative consequences on team performance. (Roberto & Edmondson, 2011)

The simulation was selected and implemented as an assessment to understand the students' capabilities in communica-tion and problem-solving while engaged in collaboration. To measure any changes in students' capabilities, the simulation was implemented before and after the Summer Leadership Academy.

Procedure

The pretest simulation was implemented in the first week of the Summer Leadership Academy; the posttest occurred at the completion of the Summer Leadership Academy. For the pretest, students (N = 12) were randomly divided into two groups (Team 1 and Team 2) with six members each. Each member's role in the group was randomly generated and assigned by the simulation program. For the posttest, the groups stayed the same, but students received different role assignments that were randomly distributed by the evaluation team. We used the following process to assign posttest roles for each member: (1) Depending on the type of role, the member who was the least active in the pretest was assigned the leader role. (2) Leaders from the pretest became observers. (3) Other members were assigned through a random drawing to ensure that different roles were assigned in the post-test.

Students also completed an anonymous survey at two points during the simulation: (1) halfway through and (2) upon completion. Both the pre- and posttests were observed and video recorded by program evaluators. The survey results were collected from the simulation program.

Results

During analysis of pretest observations, conflict among group members and their decision-making processes emerged as two important themes influencing their group dynamics. Therefore, the posttest analysis focused on these two themes. Each theme was analyzed in multiple ways: in groups and as individuals, as well as team/pair dynamics. Through comparison of the pre- and posttest simulation results, the groups' ability to negotiate and communicate with each other throughout the simulation was assessed.

The overall observations and video analyses identified several findings from the pre- and posttest simulations. Analyses of these data indicated that as the students worked and learned together in the Summer Leadership Academy, they developed an un-

Table 7. Sample Quotes From Interviews		
Competency	**Themes**	**Quotes**
Self–awareness/ lifelong learning	Confidence	Interactions with other students in courses can only be benefited by the Summer Academy. Even in something like a journal club and making a presentation, I just feel a little more confident.
Community engagement/public citizenship	Empathy	Like I feel more respect for the community and I feel more like an advocate for the community because I just know that a lot of people don't see that communities as actual human beings—and it's hard for people to connect that when they're doing research and I've been just able to see that and I just don't want to ever be the person to do that.
Paradigmatic knowledge	Scope of discipline	I think as scientists we're trained to look smaller and smaller and smaller and sometimes the idea of having a big picture kind of gets weeded out. You don't want to be the head in the clouds person, you have to have this very detail-oriented kind of person. You're studying microbiology, the process inside of a single cell. It's crazy to think that we also have to think like as big as space.
Strategic problem–solving	Changing mind, new perspective	It [interaction with other people] was really beneficial I think to have that experiences to work with people from different disciplines and it showed me how we really do think in a different manner, may approach problems from different directions and being able to do that can help you see around the corner and come up with a better solution. . . .
Effective communication/ storytelling	STEM scholar	Open-minded, driven, logical, and collaborative person. I feel like you need all those things. You can't just be really smart. You can't just be really good at doing research. You have to be able to work with others. You have to be able to communicate your research. Because if you're doing the coolest research in the world but you can't explain it to people outside your discipline, it's useless. And you have to be open-minded to change because that's the fun and hard thing about science. What we accept as fact is always changing.
Multicultural/ multidisciplinary fluency	Interdisciplinary, collaboration	Because the Summer Academy really I guess, reassured that interdisciplinary approach and how that's really important. And of course, I always thought that was important, but over the summer I was really able to see how people with different disciplines could come together and make something better than when you just have a team with one discipline. So I think that I would want to have a more interdisciplinary approach to my research and dissertation in the future.

derstanding of each other as both individuals and team members (see Table 8). For example, during the simulation, students checked in more frequently with each other during the pretest, whereas posttest data indicated they were not checking in with each other as frequently, most likely because they had become more familiar with each other. Likewise, assigned roles were more important in the pretest than in the posttest, because students did not have as much awareness of each other at the beginning of the program and, possibly, were less likely to express individuality. It should be noted that for Team 2, students' behaviors based on the given roles were less evident; students' personalities rather than the assigned roles were perceived to determine their behavior. Finally, over time student participation increased and problem-solving strategies became refined.

Survey Results

Aside from the observations, the Mt. Everest simulation also conducted a survey twice within each simulation: (1) halfway through the simulation and (2) upon completion of the simulation. Each survey included 11 statements and asked the participant to rate their level of agreement with the statement on a 1 to 5 scale, where 1 represents *strongly disagree* and 5 represents *strongly agree*. The statements focused on the group performance, individual comfort with and trust in their group, and the performance of the person in the leader role. For example, statements included "I would prefer to work with some other group of people, rather than this particular team, if

I actually had to make important real-life decisions" and "We engaged in vigorous debate about alternative courses of action during the decision-making process."

Overall posttest survey results indicated different results for the two groups. Team 1 (*n* = 6) scored high on taking team opinions and efforts into consideration, with evidence of analyzing each member's situation, whole-group discussions for decision-making, and collaboration. In Team 1, students participated in the simulation based on their assigned roles, and the level of students' participation increased in the posttest. Team 2 (*n* = 6) reflected similar decision-making processes in both the pretest and posttest. A small group of students (*n* = 2) on the team were perceived to have more weight in the decision-making process, as these students participated more actively in the pretest and were also more active in the posttest.

Next Steps

Recommendations for Future Cohorts

After completion of the first GS LEAD Summer Leadership Academy and Fall Grand Challenge Course, a preliminary evaluation report (January) and an interim report (April) were presented to the key stakeholders of this project. Based on the preliminary data analysis from this first cohort, recommendations for changes to the curriculum, as well as in the evaluation strategies, were made and have been implemented for future cohorts. These changes were suggested to provide students with learning opportuni-

Table 8. Findings From the Simulation		
Concept/element of observation	Key findings from pretest	Key findings from posttest
Group dynamic	Students checking in with each other frequently	Students checking in with each other less frequently
Student personality	Not evident in pretest	Assigned roles were less important to contribution style than student personality
Student participation	Many members in Team 1 stayed quiet; not all members in either group participated equally	Team 1 engaged more actively
Problem-solving strategies	Students created goals and made decision points clear	Students created goals and made decision points clear; students referred back to pretest experience to avoid mistakes

Table 9. Refined Leadership Competencies			
	Competency	**Definition**	**Attributes**
Year 1	6. Multicultural/ multidisciplinary fluency	Skilled with norms of interaction that facilitate inclusive participation by people from diverse communities and disciplines.	6.2. I enjoy the challenge of working with and experiencing differences among people.
	3. Paradigmatic knowledge	Understanding and appreciating the role of paradigms in one's work in community.	3.5. I understand how collaboration amongst peers and communities can result in differences in perceptions dependent on context.
Year 2	6. Interpersonal collaboration/ multiculturalism	Skilled with facilitating inclusive participation by people from diverse communities, backgrounds, and disciplines.	6.2. I acknowledge and respect differences among people.
	3. Paradigmatic knowledge	Understanding and appreciating the role of paradigms in one's work in community.	3.5. I understand how collaboration among peers and communities can result in differences in perceptions dependent on context.

ties that better align with curricular goals, and to enhance leadership, community engagement, and strategic problem-solving skills that support students in their community project design and development.

Revisions to Data Collection Instruments for Year 2

GSLLI

The six leadership competencies were developed through STEM faculty input and used to guide the collection and evaluation of qualitative data (interviews, discussion posts, weekly evaluations, and performance simulation activity) in Year 1. Throughout the analysis of the results, interpersonal communication and collaboration emerged as important aspects for participants' leadership development. The emergence of these themes led to modifications of the GS LEAD competency framework. As a result, the evaluation team recommended changing the name of Competency Number 6 from multicultural/multidisciplinary fluency to interpersonal collaboration/multiculturalism to better reflect the students' learning experiences. Further, two attribute statements in paradigmatic knowledge and interpersonal collaboration/multiculturalism were revised for clarification based on students' feedback. These recommendations were accepted and implemented by the GS

LEAD project leaders. The refined leadership inventories were applied to the Year 2 cohort (see Table 9 for more details).

Revisions to Curriculum for Year 2

The formative evaluation reports supported data-driven decisions for curriculum revisions across both the Summer Leadership Academy and Grand Challenge Course. Tables 10 and 11 summarize the key curriculum changes recommended by the evaluation team, key curriculum changes made by the curriculum team, and preliminary data reflecting the results of the changes.

Data analysis has continued into the fall of Year 3 to include cross-year analyses of surveys conducted along with data from the Summer Leadership Academy, discussions, weekly personal reflections, and video analysis of students' performances, discussions, and engagement. The cross-year analyses will result in better understanding of the overall development of students' perceptions and personal positions on what it means to be a STEM scholar leader in the 21st century.

Outcomes and Implications

Development of Leadership Inventory (GSLLI) for Higher Education

Table 10. Curriculum Revision Matrix (Recommendation 1)

Recommendation 1: Integrate summer and fall curriculum and experiences

Change recommended based on data	Change made in summer Year 2	Preliminary results of change*
1.1. In order to seamlessly integrate leadership experiences and training in the Summer Leadership Academy with design thinking activities and community engagement in the Challenge Course, suggestions were made to combine (and partially flip) the Summer Leadership Academy and Challenge Course curricula.	The first week of the Summer Leadership Academy was revamped to focus more on community building with the cohort. Additionally, there was more of a focus on being a leader rather than doing leadership as demonstrated through a project. Curriculum focused a week on cohort community building.	Greater opportunity to focus on leadership, broadly as well as on a personal level. [Interview]
1.2. Leadership training and experiences, mainly introduced in the Summer Leadership Academy, should also be included in the fall so students can apply their leadership skills in the community-engaged projects.	Added two community events in the summer that were designed, developed, and implemented by the students so they could practice the leadership skills learned to date. Added a retreat that allowed students time to reflect on the leadership skills they learned, which was helpful as they engaged with communities. Moved the community project development to fall to allow students to apply their individual leadership and collaboration skills to identify issues, develop potential solutions, and implement plans with community partners.	Students perceived the community events as having high value for developing their leadership skills. [Week 4 course satisfaction survey and open-ended responses] Moving project development to the fall contributed to the ability to reduce the time in the summer, thus better meeting the needs of the participants. [Interview]
1.3. Design thinking, a focal point of the Challenge Course in Year 1, should be introduced in the Summer Leadership Academy at an earlier stage.	Introduction to Design Thinking was moved to Week 1 of the Summer Leadership Academy instead of Week 4.	Earlier exposure to the concept of design thinking allowed the participants more time to integrate this into concepts related to leadership. It also enabled more engagement early on from faculty who work with the students in the fall, thus bringing in more seamless integration in the summer/fall. [Interview] Increased satisfaction of students' learning experiences. [Week 4 course satisfaction survey and open-ended responses]
1.4. Challenge Course needs to provide opportunities to use leadership training and experiences. More focus should be given in the fall to combining community engagement (summer) and design thinking (fall).	The community engagement project was integrated into the summer, enabling the participants to apply leadership skills and community engagement ideas in more seamless manners.	Integrating leadership concepts/practices in the fall promises to result in more seamless integration between the summer and fall (curricula). [Interview]

Data for results are from facilitators interview and course satisfaction survey data.

Table 11. Curriculum Revision Matrix (Recommendation 2)

Recommendation 2. Streamline summer experiences to enhance leadership development

Change recommended based on data	Change made in summer Year 2	Preliminary results of change*
2.1. The Interim Evaluation Report, which analyzed students' experiences of the program (through student interviews, weekly reflections, course satisfactions, Leadership Inventory, Mt. Everest, and Epistemic Belief Inventory), overall suggested a review of the experiences in the summer to enable a more streamlined focus on leadership experiences and activities.		
2.2. Summer Leadership Academy period could be shorter and closer to the fall semester.	Reduced the number of weeks from 8 (two classes a week) to 5 (three classes a week) and ended close to the fall.	Better meeting the needs of the participants as incoming doctoral students. [Interview]
2.3. Panelist questions too repetitive and the in-formation gained not as valuable as it could be for enhancing leadership practices.	Reduced the number of panels and panel discussions better aligned with learning objec-tives.	Reducing the number of panels and field trips enabled the participants to focus more on leadership concepts and understandings, broadly as well as for themselves. [Interview] Increased satisfaction of students' learning experi-ences. [Week 4 course satisfac-tion survey and open-ended responses]
2.4. Some guest speakers are not relevant to the program.	Reduced guest speakers; selec-tive based on the last year's data.	Increased satisfaction of students' learning experi-ences. [Week 4 course satisfac-tion survey and open-ended responses]
2.5. Field trips are too numer-ous and time-consuming. Field trips should be chosen strategically by their relevance and convenience.	Reduced the number and sites of the field trips.	Reducing the field trips and having one in town and only one out of town enabled more time to be devoted to deepening understandings of leadership. [Interview]

Data for results are from facilitators interview and course satisfaction survey data.

Through the development of a community-engaged leadership program for graduate students, the GS LEAD team designed a leadership inventory survey tool for use in higher education. Although validation of the GS LEAD Leadership Inventory is in its early stages, the identified competencies and attributes are grounded in data gathering and analysis and serve as a framework for both the program curricular/instructional design process and strategies going forward.

Timing of Program Implementation

GS LEAD was designed as an introductory training program for incoming graduate students. The initial impact of the program on participants has met the program objectives of promoting STEM scholar leader competencies early in graduate training. As the program is in early stages of development/implementation, the program's impact on graduate scholars' research and career development will be determined as the students become further engaged in their dissertation research and develop themselves as early career professionals. Nonetheless, preliminary results from the GS LEAD program reveal that the experiences had positive effects as the incoming students expressed greater awareness of engaging with communities and stronger interests in formulating research ideas to create meaningful connections between their research and communities.

Limitations

A couple of limitations of the program evaluation are as follows. First, most of the results presented are from self-reports, which include variations that may have affected the outcomes. For instance, the participants' shared experiences in the program, development of their leadership and community engagement skills, and so on, may have been influenced by their prior experiences and/or expectations of the program. For this reason, in-depth interviews were implemented to triangulate the findings to better inform program experiences. Second, due to the intensive, student-centered nature of this pilot program, the number of participants in each cohort ($N = 12$–16) was kept intentionally low; this, coupled with the decreased participation in the voluntary evaluation activities toward the end of the program, impacted the ability to achieve statistical significance. Increasing the overall number of participants and the response rates of the evaluation activities through additional cohorts will better inform statistically significant results related to the participants' leadership development and program experiences.

About the Authors

Julie A. Coffield is associate professor in the Department of Physiology and Pharmacology in the College of Veterinary Medicine at the University of Georgia.

Jasmine Choi is a postdoctoral associate in the Mary Frances Early College of Education at the University of Georgia.

Ikseon Choi is a professor in the Mary Frances Early College of Education at the University of Georgia.

Brandy B. Walker is a public service faculty member in the J. W. Fanning Institute for Leadership Development, Public Service and Outreach at the University of Georgia.

Katherine Walters is a doctoral candidate in the Mary Frances Early College of Education at the University of Georgia.

Janette R. Hill is a professor in the Mary Frances Early College of Education at the University of Georgia.

Sejin Kim is an assistant professor in the Department of Medical Education at Kosin University College of Medicine.

Janet E. Rechtman retired from the J. W. Fanning Institute for Leadership Development at the University of Georgia.

K. Paige Carmichael is a professor in the Department of Pathology in the College of Veterinary Medicine at the University of Georgia.

Ramana Pidaparti is a professor in the College of Engineering at the University of Georgia.

Meredith Welch-Devine is associate dean of the Graduate School at the University of Georgia.

References

About Archway Partnership. (2018). Archway Partnership, University of Georgia. Retrieved July 2018 from https://www.archwaypartnership.uga.edu

Bates, A. J., Ramirez, L., & Drits, D. (2009). Connecting university supervision and critical reflection: Mentoring and modeling. *The Teacher Educator, 44*(2), 90–112. https://doi.org/10.1080/08878730902751993

Benbassat, J. (2014). Role modeling in medical education: The importance of a reflective imitation. *Academic Medicine, 89*(4), 550–554. https://doi.org/10.1097/ACM.0000000000000189

Bidarra, J., & Rusman, E. (2016). Towards a pedagogical model for science education: Bridging educational contexts through a blended learning approach. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning, 32*(1), 6–20. https://doi.org/10.1080/02680513.2016.1265442

Crippen, K. J., & Archambault, L. (2012). Scaffolded inquiry-based instruction with technology: A signature pedagogy for STM education. *Computers in the Schools, 29*(1–2), 157–173. https://doi.org/10.1080/07380569.2012.658733

Harris, T. R., & Brophy, S. P. (2005). Challenge-based instruction in biomedical engineering: A scalable method to increase the efficiency and effectiveness of teaching and learning in biomedical engineering. *Medical Engineering & Physics, 27*(7), 617–624. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.medengphy.2004.11.013

Johnson, L., & Adams, S. (2011). *Challenge based learning: The report from the implementation project*. The New Media Consortium.

J. W. Fanning Institute for Leadership Development. (2018). *Overview*. Retrieved July 2018 from https://www.fanning.uga.edu

Roberto, M. A., & Edmondson, A. C. (2011). *Mt. Everest* [Simulation game]. Harvard Business School Publishing. https://hbsp.harvard.edu/product/8867-HTM-ENG

Sable, M. R., Larrivee, L. S., & Gayer, D. (2001). Problem-based learning: Opportunities and barriers for training interdisciplinary health care teams. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 21*(3–4), 217–234. https://doi.org/10.1300/J067v21n03_16

Shuman, L. J., Besterfield-Sacre, M., & McGourty, J. (2005). The ABET "professional skills": Can they be taught? Can they be assessed? *Journal of Engineering Education, 94*(1), 41–55. https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1002/j.2168-9830.2005.tb00828.x

Thistlethwaite, J. E., Davies, D., Ekeocha, S., Kidd, J. M., MacDougal, C., Matthews, P., Purkis, J., & Clay, D. (2012). The effectiveness of case-based learning in health professional education. A BEME systematic review: BEME Guide No. 23. *Medical Teacher, 34*(6), e421–e444. https://doi.org/10.3109/0142159X.2012.680939

University of Georgia. (2014). *The mission of the University of Georgia*. Retrieved October 10, 2018, from https://www.uga.edu/mission.php

Wendler, C., Bridgeman, B., Markle, R., Cline, F., Bell, N., McAllister, P., & Kent, J. (2012). *Pathways through graduate school and into careers*. Educational Testing Service. https://www.ets.org/c/19574/19089_PathwaysReptqp.pdf

Medical Students as Mentors of Latinx Youth: A Model for Increasing Cultural Competence and Community Engagement in Medical Schools

Mallory Peters, Belinda Asare, Connor Whitaker, Ryan Rogers, Helen Huetteman, Cheyenna M. Espinoza, and Claudio Cortes

Abstract

The rapid growth of the U.S. Latinx population has led to an increased need for community organizations and academic institutions to develop partnerships focused on addressing gaps in health maintenance and education of Latinx individuals. Medical schools also have a responsibility to educate future physicians in delivering culturally sensitive care through community-oriented learning experiences. This case study approach outlines the logistics of establishing a youth mentoring program between a medical school and a Latinx community and demonstrates the benefits to the institution, medical students, and the population served. We also discuss the challenges arising from this partnership and present early program evaluation data showing consistent mentor satisfaction reported over time. This description of the program development provides a framework for creating similar initiatives in medical education to address known disparities in health and well-being of Latinx individuals and other minority populations.

Keywords: Latinx, mentoring program, community partnership, medical education, mentor, service-learning

Background

Integration of Community Service in Medical Education

The ethnic composition of the United States is rapidly changing, and this trend is best demonstrated by the increasing diversity of our nation's youth (Polk et al., 2013). Population projections predict that by 2050, nearly one third of U.S. children will be of Latin American origin or ancestry (Passel & Cohn, 2008). Significant disparities exist within the scope of health and well-being of Latinx (Latino/Latina) populations, including overall health and disease outcomes, acquisition of higher education, and representation of the Latinx population among physicians (Polk et al., 2013). Furthermore, training a workforce of future physicians that is equipped to address these inequities necessitates the inclusion of both curricular and extracurricular opportunities targeted toward increasing medical student knowledge and breadth of experience involving Latinx culture.

The Liaison Committee on Medical Education (LCME) recognizes the responsibility of medical schools to respond to the health needs of an increasingly diverse U.S. population through training culturally competent physicians (LCME, 2018). The LCME requires that medical school curriculum include training intended to increase student capacity to provide culturally competent care, including perception of health and illness of individuals of other cultures, recognition of disparities in care, and demonstration of professionalism in a diverse society (LCME, 2018). An additional expectation set by the LCME is that medical schools encourage, provide opportunities for, and support medical student participation in service-learning and community service activities

(LCME, 2018). Seifer and Connors (2007) described service-learning as a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities. Thus, medical schools and communities can achieve clear benefits by creating structured programs that allow students to work directly with Latinx populations through service initiatives. Given the rapidly growing population of Latinx youth, we propose that programs designed to give medical students long-term experience working with Latinx youth have the potential to benefit both medical students and Latinx youth through promoting health education, improving communication skills, and facilitating intercultural exchange.

Benefits of Mentoring to Medical Students, Medical Schools, and the Community

Interventions in early childhood have been shown to improve health outcomes among marginalized populations (Thornton et al., 2016), thus youth mentoring programs offer numerous potential benefits to mentees. Improvements in various dimensions have been reported in the literature, such as better outcomes in regard to social functioning, social support, attitudes toward studying, and fewer symptoms of depressed mood (Chan et al., 2018). A randomized controlled evaluation of 1,139 students from 71 schools involved in school-based mentoring through Big Brothers Big Sisters of America reported improvements in teacher-rated academic performance and self-reported scholastic efficacy among mentored students with close relationships with adult mentors, regardless of duration of mentor-mentee match length (Bayer et al., 2015). The aforementioned research provides significant evidence suggesting that youth mentorship has the potential to make lasting impacts on a child's life and can provide companionship, guidance, and stability during crucial years of development.

Studies have shown that mentors also benefit from a strong mentoring relationship. LaFleur and White's (2010) review of mentor-mentee relationships in nursing and case management investigated the benefits for mentors in these engagements. The authors identified several benefits for mentors found in the literature: personal sat-isfaction, positive impact on the mentor's professional practice (such as improvements in managing conflicting roles and responsibilities), and increased professional success (such as advancement opportunities and organizational respect). Although these reviewed mentorships were between two adult professionals, the identification of common themes highlights the transferable nature of the potential benefits that mentors can attain from mentoring.

Existing Community–Academic Mentoring Programs

Various community-based mentoring programs exist that partner nursing students with at-risk youth (Juhn et al., 1999; Moody et al., 2003). Another program creates mentoring relationships between university undergraduates and Latinx youth (Coller & Kuo, 2014). A few existing organizations offer programs supporting health-based outcomes of Latinx youth: Arlinghaus et al. (2017) documented a peer-to-peer program focused on obesity prevention, and Kelly et al. (2006) described a program related to pregnancy and sexually transmitted infection prevention. Currently, there is a lack of literature describing the development of a mentoring partnership between a medical school and a community organization with a focus on underserved Latinx youth. Here we outline the steps taken to establish a trusted partnership between a Latinx organization and a medical school that enhances communication skills between medical students and the Latinx population and increases learning in health-related topics for both Latinx youth and medical students, which may potentially be used as a model for other medical schools.

Program Development and Structure

Building Trust With the Community

The Oakland University William Beaumont–Hispanic Newcomer Outreach (OUWB–HNO) Mentoring Program was developed with the goal of creating positive mentoring relationships between medical student mentors and Latinx youth. The program was designed through close collaboration with the leaders of Catholic Charities of Southeast Michigan (CCSEM), medical school faculty advisors, and medical students in order to provide an opportunity to serve the local community that aligned with the goals and values of each respective entity.

The program structure has shifted over time as interest from both medical students and Latinx families has grown. Initially, the Hispanic Outreach Program of CCSEM, an organization in Pontiac, Michigan, created a mentoring program where local Latinx adults mentored Latinx youth at the organization (Figure 1). The initial connection between OUWB and CCSEM was made through a faculty member with a shared cultural background to community organization members. A Latinx faculty member became involved with the existing mentoring program and proposed the inclusion of medical students within the mentoring program. Meetings were held between CCSEM and medical school faculty to discuss community needs, identify goals for the proposed partnership, and define roles and responsibilities of medical student mentors. This resulted in the development of educational sessions specifically targeted toward meeting community needs, which did not previously exist before the partnership with the medical school. The pilot program for the current OUWB–HNO Mentoring Program was thus created after extensive collaboration with CCSEM leadership, and a timeline for early program evaluation was established. The program then transitioned from a faculty-driven initiative toward a student, faculty, and community partner team initiative. It was soon recognized to be beneficial for the program to become affiliated with OUWB's local chapter of the Latino Medical Student Association (LMSA). The partnership created additional avenues for funding and leadership support, both from students and faculty.

Key Personnel, Roles, and Functions

Specific definitions of leadership roles, mentoring roles, and supportive roles have been established to ensure consistency within the program. Table 1 describes the central role of each leadership entity. The program's current structure partners student and faculty leadership with leadership at CCSEM. The group is partially funded by the COMPASS program (OUWB Center for Community Engagement) and partially funded by CCSEM. Each year, the faculty advisor and former student coordinators hold an informational meeting to describe the goals of the program, and first-year medical students are invited to apply as either student coordinators or mentors. Participation in the program is entirely on a volunteer basis, and human resources from OUWB include volunteer student mentors and volunteer faculty members. The coordinator role of our community partner is filled by a salaried employee of CCSEM. Up to $2,000 in yearly funding for program materials and transportation (field trips) is typically received through COMPASS, in addition to mini-grants awarded by COMPASS to provide resources for specific projects. CCSEM provides additional funding on a session-by-session basis.

Student coordinators are responsible for official mentor recruitment, program activity design, and facilitation of communication between student mentors, faculty, and CCSEM leadership. Figure 2 describes the specific logistics involved in recruitment of mentors and mentees and program delivery. Student coordinators ensure that

Figure 1. Building a Partnership Between a School of Medicine and the Community

A. BEFORE

B. AFTER
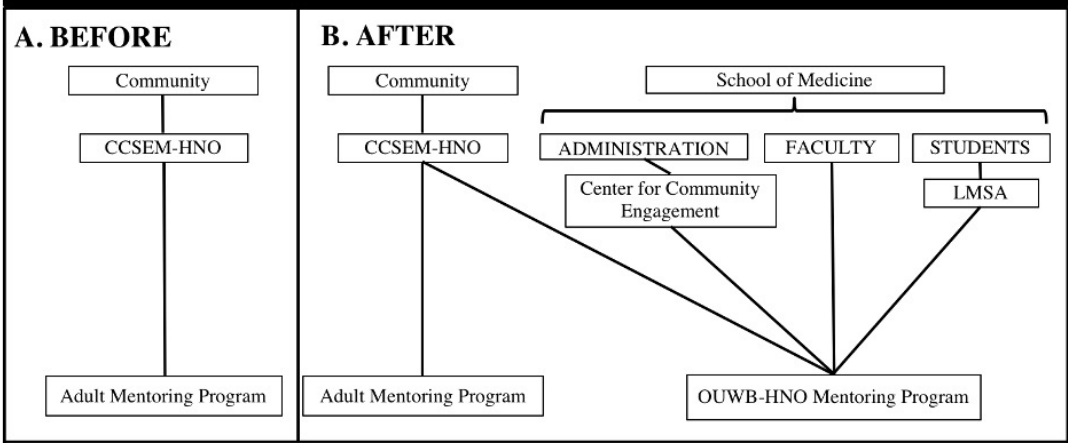
Previous structure (A) compared to current structure (B)

Table 1. Roles and Functions of Key Personnel		
Leadership		
	CCSEM coordinator	**Faculty coordinator**	**Student coordinator**
Role description	Serves as a liaison between Latinx families and OUWB–HNO Mentoring Program leadership	Develops and maintains framework for sustainable programming through collaboration with student coordinators, medical school faculty, and CCSEM coordinator	Serves as a liaison between students, faculty, and CCSEM, and collaborates in program planning and delivery
Primary task	· Recruitment of mentees · Communication of program events to parents, confirmation of mentee attendance · Codelivery of mentor training session	· Recruit and direct student coordinators · Address questions/concerns from CCSEM leadership · Program planning and event design · Budget determination · Training session for mentors	· Troubleshoot mentor–mentee concerns, supervise during group events · Develop and refine educational events · Deliver educational sessions · Coordinate faculty involvement in sessions
Secondary task	· Assist with documentation, legal paperwork (background check) · Coordinate usage of facility for program events	· Oversee program evaluation tasks and scholarly activity · Maintain collaboration and communication between LMSA and mentoring program	· Recordkeeping of weekly meetings, mentor communication, and medical student attendance · Assist in recruitment of future student coordinators · Assist faculty advisor in program evaluation
Faculty and Medical Students		
	Medical students	**Faculty members**	**LMSA**
Role description	· Develop positive mentoring relationship with mentee · Attend bimonthly program events · Weekly phone calls to mentees · Communication of concerns to student coordinators	Collaborate with student coordinators and faculty advisor to design and deliver educational sessions	· Oversee recruitment process, encourage involvement of Latinx students in mentoring program · Provide avenue for presentation of scholarly work · Allocate portions of student organization budget from COMPASS to mentoring program
Administration		
	OUWB–COMPASS		**CCSEM**
Role Description	· Monitor yearly activities and reported outcomes · Provide funding for program events		· Provide facility for program delivery · Provide funding for program activities and transportation

all appropriate administrative tasks are completed (background checks, program applications, and other paperwork) so that medical students are legally cleared to serve as mentors for local youth. CCSEM also provides a coordinator who is responsible for recruiting youth to participate in the program, obtaining participant contact information, and facilitating communication between parents, mentees, and student mentors. The CCSEM mentoring program coordinator primarily communicates with student coordinators and the medical school faculty advisor to assist in activity planning and dissemination of information among families. Faculty advisors collaborate with students and CCSEM coordinators for the development of the educational sessions, creation of learning objectives, development of mentor training material, budgeting, organization of field trips, and approval of educational sessions. The faculty advisor and CCSEM coordinator codeliver a mentor training session to describe the goals of the program, strategies for being an effective mentor, the restrictions for mentors (e.g., no transportation of minors in personal vehicles, no connection on social media), and mandated reporting.

Recruitment begins in the fall of the first preclinical year for medical students. The program runs from January to December within one calendar year to allow for overlap in leadership; it was found that this structure, which is based on the medical school's academic calendar, aids the transition in leadership between previous and new student coordinators. Beginning the program in January of the first preclinical year (after the conclusion of the first semester) and ending in December after the first semester of the second preclinical year enables students to focus on being consistently present and participating fully in the program. Using this schedule avoids a number of potential conflicts, such as adjusting to the rigors of medical school in the first semester or studying for Step 1 of the United States Medical Licensing Exam, which is typically taken at the end of May in the second preclinical year.

Mentors are paired with mentees between the ages of 7 and 17 of the same gender, when possible. Although Spanish language fluency is not a requirement, bilingual mentors are paired with children whose primary spoken language is Spanish. The mentors are expected to call their mentee once a week, and contact hours are logged. Activities are scheduled approximately 16 times per year, and usually involve four field trips and 12 educational activities. A variety of field trip experiences have been offered, including painting, visiting art or science museums, and exploring amusement parks, among other locations. Mentees have given positive feedback about field trips and report that they enjoy bonding with their mentors outside the classroom setting.

Educational Sessions

The educational sessions are broad in subject matter. Sessions have included hands-on experiences with basic microbiology, handwashing activities, information about the risks of smoking, allergy education, and dialogue on facing personal challenges, in addition to other topics. Student coordinators collaborate with the faculty advisor and other faculty members to develop engaging activities and basic learning objectives for each session. Prior to session delivery, the student and faculty coordinators meet with participating faculty members to design age-appropriate educational sessions related to the faculty member's area of expertise. The team collaborates on the development of session objectives, formative assessment questions, interactive worksheets, and hands-on activities for mentor–mentee pairs, which are documented in a formal template for future use by the mentoring program. Sessions are typically copresented by the faculty expert and student coordinators.

Educational sessions typically begin with a formative assessment including five multiple-choice questions, followed by mentor–mentee self-directed learning. The mentor–mentee pairs then utilize technology to search for answers to additional questions and activities related to the session topic. Based on participant feedback, younger mentees and older mentees are generally separated, so that collaboration between mentor–mentee pairs can occur among similar age groups. After age-specific small-group discussions, the whole group reconvenes for further discussion, which allows mentees to share new knowledge in the group setting and develop confidence and leadership experience by teaching their peers. Some sessions involve interactive educational games after large group discussions, which motivates the children to use the information they have just learned in a

Figure 2: Logistic Outline of OUWB-HNO Mentoring Program

Mentor Recruitment (August):
- Orientation Week - Poster is presented by faculty coordinator and student coordinators, and contact information of medical students is collected.

Email Notification #1 (October):
- Invitation to entire M1 class
- Recruitment of new student coordinators (separate application)

Informational Mass Meeting (November):
- Overview of the program and training session about mentoring
- Required application material distributed by CCSEM (Application form, disclosure form, background check forms)

Background Check (December-January):
- Student coordinators communicate with prospective mentors for completion of required forms

Email Notification #2 (January)
- Calendar invitation sent for all sessions. Students that cannot attend most sessions become backup mentors.
- List of mentor-mentee matches is finalized.

Recruitment of Mentees (November- January):
- Previous mentees are invited to participate.
- Application forms, consent form to participate in field trips, and photo release form collected
- BERS-2 pre-survey (*).

Sessions. (Feb-May and August-December):
- Pre-session: Pre-survey for mentors (*)
- First session: "Matching day": Mentors are introduced to mentees.
- Educational sessions (Saturdays): Led by faculty members or students coordinators. 2 sessions/month. ~2.5 hours/session.
- Field trips: twice a semester (5-6 hour sessions). Saturday or Sunday.
- Structure of session: 20 min. mentor-mentee one-on-one, 1-hour interactive and group educational session, 30 min unstructured free time.
- Post session: Elicit session feedback from mentors (10 min)
- Evaluation of educational activity Pre vs Post quizzes (*)

Final Session (December):
- Presentations (poster or performance) of mentee's health related topic of choice

Recognition and Evaluation (January):
- Post-program certificate of recognition for service
- Reflection about program, discuss overall mentor feedback
- Satisfaction survey or post-program survey (*)

Mentees (December):
- BERS-2 post-program survey (*)
- Satisfaction survey (*)

(*) indicates where surveys and formative assessments are obtained

friendly competition. Prior to the conclusion of the lesson, mentees take another brief formative assessment, which allows program leadership to quantitatively assess the effectiveness of the lesson on mentee learning.

Early in the program, the mentees are introduced to the opportunity to work with their mentor on a longitudinal project related to any aspect of health or well–being. Following the structured activity portion of the session, mentors and mentees are encouraged to learn about how their topic of interest relates to health and express this information by any medium of their choice (e.g., PowerPoint presentation, poster, or performance). Mentoring pairs are given a great deal of freedom in expressing this information, and the children are able to finish their mentoring year with an educational presentation in front of family and friends.

Use of Technology

The utilization of strict organization and documentation of program activities is paramount for the program's continued success. Our program utilizes a secure online shared drive to store a master list of all recordkeeping items created to date, including attendance spreadsheets, budgeting documents, mentor–mentee weekly phone call logs, templates for all educational activities, email templates, meeting agendas, legal forms, and recruitment materials. Educational activity templates are particularly important for continued success of the program, so that faculty expertise can be carried forward in future sessions if the session is delivered by individuals not originally involved in activity design. The master list templates are used for each further iteration of the program to ensure consistency of program delivery. Strong organization of program materials has increased the ease

of transition in medical student leadership from year to year, as well as contributing to decreased time spent on administrative tasks and activity planning. It also allows leaders to easily share these materials with other institutions interested in collaborating on the development of similar programs. Furthermore, consistent recordkeeping with an online shared database simplifies program evaluation.

Program Growth Over Time

The program has changed in structure and magnitude over time, as demonstrated in Table 2. Since its inception in 2016, mentee and mentor enrollment has consistently grown. The number of sessions has changed from year to year, in part because of structural changes with our community partner, CCSEM. Feedback from mentors and mentees has led to increased numbers of field trips, as both mentors and mentees stated that activities outside the center further facilitated bonding. The number of medical school faculty involved has also changed from year to year; this is largely a function of topic selection by student coordinators and the faculty advisor, in addition to the amount of educational sessions versus field trips. Sessions are created through collaboration between student coordinators and faculty members, and are approved by the faculty advisor or other faculty members knowledgeable on the topic. Additionally, many of the sessions have been led by student coordinators or other student interest groups.

Challenges

Many challenges arose during the development and preservation of the mentoring program, which led to changes and adaptations over several iterations of the program. Significant challenges addressed include scheduling conflicts with both medical students and mentees, inconsistent participation among mentees, changes in leadership personnel, and effective development of age-appropriate activities for multiple age groups (Table 3). A student debriefing is held at the conclusion of each year-long program to discuss program strengths and weaknesses, and identify improvements for subsequent iterations of the mentoring program.

Program Evaluation

The program is evaluated at multiple levels, including a parental assessment of children's behavior, assessment of the impact of the program on medical students, assessment of mentee satisfaction with the program, and brief quizzes that assess session effectiveness. A nonhuman subject research approval was obtained from the Oakland University (IRB #1192710).

Medical Student Satisfaction

At the termination of each program cycle, medical students are surveyed on their experience as a mentor and their overall satisfaction with the program (Table 4). A Likert-style scale survey is administered

Table 2. Mentoring Program Outcomes (2016–2019)				
	Mentoring Program 2016	Mentoring Program 2017	Mentoring Program 2018	Mentoring Program 2019
Number of sessions	8	16	12	15
Part of LMSA chapter*	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Student coordinators	1	4	2	2
Professors involved	1	5	2	2
Medical students	12	18	25	32
Mentees	11	19	25	32
Educational/bonding topics	5	13	8	11
Number of field trips	3	3	4	4
Community service hours	471	1,090	1,076	1,800
Program manual created	No	No	No	Yes
*Latino Medical Student Association (LMSA) has been actively involved since 2017.				

Table 3. Program Challenges and Solutions			
Challenge	**Specific problem**	**Solution**	**Comments**
Medical student scheduling*	Initial pilot program: one-semester mentoring program → shorter mentoring relationships Decreased mentor attendance due to academic obligations or commitment to other cocurricular activities M1 and M2 calendars did not align → difficulty accommodating study needs of both classes	Recruit only M1 students to commit to one year of participation from January of M1 to December of M2 Choose session dates that avoid weekends before M1 or M2 pre-clinical exams	The first semester of M1 year is a challenging transition for many students. In the second semester of M1, the academic calendar improves in flexibility and more students have the availability to volunteer. The second semester of M2 year is when most students focus on studying for the USMLE Step 1 exam, leading to less time for cocurricular involvement.
Mentee participation	Challenges with transportation to CCSEM → inconsistent attendance Late arrival or last-minute changes in family plans → decreased attendance Some families did not have a reliable phone number → difficulty communicating anticipated absences	Establish minimum attendance requirements for program involvement Create an optimized program timeline based on medical student scheduling → improved attendance by both mentors and mentees CCSEM coordinator calls and confirms mentee attendance each week	Attendance issues had some negative consequences on mentor–mentee relationships. This brought up the concern that mentees who did not feel that their interactions with the mentors were meaningful would be less likely to return for the program. Communications with a trusted Spanish-speaking CCSEM coordinator from within the community positively affected mentor–mentee bonding and led to increases in mentee attendance and enrollment in the program in the following years.
Personnel	Midprogram changes in personnel (CCSEM coordinator) → issues contacting families for mentee recruitment → delays in beginning a new iteration of the program	Clear communication with community partners to minimize impact in program Strong recordkeeping through shared databases	Utilizing a consistent format each cycle aids in leadership transition in the event of unexpected changes, allowing new iterations to build upon past iterations.
AGE	Wide mentee age range (7–17) → decreased attendance on age extremes · Youngest mentees had difficulty understanding the content of more challenging sessions · Older mentees occasionally less engaged due to the information lacking complexity needed for their age group	Sessions designed with respect to median age, but mentor–mentee pairs separated into older (12–17) and younger (7–11) groups → enhanced age-appropriate discussion of educational topics Alternate solution: Pair older mentees with younger mentees → older mentees motivated to work with their mentors to help teach younger peers	These changes emphasized building stronger relationships between mentees while allowing the older mentees to experience a leadership role, which led to improved attendance from both younger and older mentees. Regardless of the age group, providing sessions at the beginning of the program that promote the sharing of personal challenges and past experiences between mentors and mentees (i.e., life challenges) seems to have facilitated a better environment for the mentor–mentee bonding as reported by mentors.
*M1: first year medical student, M2: second year medical student.			

Table 4. OUWB–HNO Mentoring Program—Medical Student Satisfaction Survey		
Question	**2016–2017**	**2018**
Q1: Students with mentoring experience	69%	83%
Q2: Students who previously mentored Hispanic children	20%	26%
	Average (SD)	
Satisfaction with mentoring program (1 = Strongly dissatisfied, 6 = Strongly satisfied) Q3: Overall, how satisfied are you with the mentorship program? Q4: Overall, how satisfied are you with the educational activities?	5.13 (0.69)	5.17 (0.68)
Self-rated proficiency (1 = Not at all proficient, 6 = Strongly proficient) Q5: How would you describe your proficiency as a mentor before you finished at HNO? Q6: How would you describe your proficiency as a mentor after you finished at HNO?	2.69 (0.47)** 3.47 (0.50)**	3.04 (0.82)** 3.65 (0.49)**
Communication* Q7: After this experience, I feel more comfortable interacting with children in general. Q8: After this experience, I have learned to better communicate with children.	5.17 (0.57)	5.02 (0.49)
Understanding the needs of children* Q9: After this experience I better understand the needs of the children in general. Q10: After this experience I better understand the needs of Hispanic children in this community.	4.87 (0.65)	4.87 (0.59)
Recommendations to other students (1 = Strongly would not recommend, 6 = Strongly recommend) Q11: Would you recommend other medical students to become mentors for the OUWB–HNO mentoring program?	5.48 (0.59)	5.61 (0.72)
Impact on future career* Q12: Being a mentor as medical student will help me as a future physician.	5.48 (0.74)	5.48 (0.90)
Health-related learning* Q13: I have learned about health-related topics during the mentoring program.	4.1 (1.29) (n = 18)	4.61 (0.89) (n = 23)
Note. Data for each area of study was pooled. Averages and standard deviation were calculated. ** A Likert-style scale was given to mentors to rate 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree) on program attributes.* *** Denotes statistically significant result in self-rated mentor proficiency before and after program participation.*		

on program attributes involving several topics, including overall satisfaction with the program, self-rated proficiency as a mentor, communication skills with children, and perceived relevance of the program to a student's career in medicine. In both 2016–2017 and 2018, a statistically significant difference in self-rated mentor proficiency was found ($p < 0.00001$ and $p < 0.0002$, respectively). Additionally, 83% of 2016–2017 mentors and 87% of 2018 mentors felt that they learned about health-related topics during the mentoring program. Mentors also consistently reaffirm the value of the program to their future career as a physician, and to understanding the needs of Latinx children, in addition to other children.

Parent Assessment of Children

The 52-item BERS-2 tool uses separate rating scales that measure parent and youth self-ratings in several behavioral and emotional categories, including interpersonal strength, intrapersonal strength, family involvement, school functioning, and affective strength (Duppong Hurley et al., 2015). Our preliminary results demonstrate significant improvement in all five categories of assessment, and will be presented in future studies of the program.

Children Self-Assessment

Additionally, the mentees were asked a variety of questions regarding their relationship with their mentor. The majority of mentees either agreed or strongly agreed that they achieved personal improvement on assessments of school functioning, feelings of encouragement from mentors, feelings of self-efficacy, and communication skills; continued assessment of these factors is ongoing and will be presented in future reports regarding additional program evaluation.

Evaluation of Educational Activities

Among 16 educational activities provided in the first three cycles of the mentoring program, eight were evaluated utilizing presession and postsession quizzes, including handwashing, healthy lifestyles, microaggressions, smoking prevention, dental hygiene, sleep habits, art therapy, and harms of drugs. Preliminary data, which will be presented in future studies, show significant improvement in performance between pre- and postsession quizzes in six out of eight activities evaluated, suggesting that mentees are learning and retaining information during these sessions.

Mentor Specialty Choice Outcomes

The program has graduated two classes of senior medical students since its inception. In the 2016 and 2017 classes, nine out of 17 (52.9%) and seven out of 22 (31.8%) graduating senior participants matched to specialties likely to result in a career in primary care (PC), including internal medicine, pediatrics, obstetrics and gynecology, and/or medicine and pediatrics. In total, 16 out of 39 graduated mentors (41.0%), versus 99 out of 236 (41.9%) of all 2016 and 2017 graduating seniors, matched into PC specialties.

Other Outcomes—Leadership and Scholarly Activity

Participation in the OUWB–HNO Mentoring Program has led to multiple additional leadership opportunities and scholarly activities for its participants. To date, five posters, two workshops, and two oral presentations have been developed as a result of continued development and evaluation of the program. Connection to a national student organization through LMSA has allowed our group to interact with other chapters at national meetings in 2017, 2018, 2019, and 2020 to date. We have been able to network with students and faculty at other institutions, discuss the community endeavors of other groups, and advise other chapters on how to begin similar programs. This has allowed us to engage in cross-institutional philanthropic discussion, while simultaneously offering professional development opportunities for our mentoring program members.

Reflection and Discussion of Program Impact

We have created a productive partnership between a school of medicine and the Latinx community by establishing a longitudinal mentoring program. This program has offered 3,800 service hours to our medical students, increased Latinx youth and medical student knowledge of health-related topics, improved student communication skills with children, and increased students' knowledge of the Latinx community. We predict that efforts to integrate this program or similar programs as an elective

within a medical school curriculum, rather than as a cocurricular activity, could offer students a unique way to meet this learning requirement in a manner that has been evidenced to be mutually beneficial for the surrounding community. The program goals developed between OUWB and CCSEM align strongly with the core concepts of service-learning, and future replications of this growing program may provide effective opportunities for medical students to improve their cultural competence while engaging in structured service-learning.

Building a partnership founded on strong mutual trust between CCSEM and OUWB was essential to developing a sustainable program. It is well established that community–academic partnerships can lead to beneficial outcomes for both community-based organizations and academic institutions (Nora et al., 1994; Voss et al., 2015). The steps taken to foster collaboration between our community partner, medical school faculty, and medical students has led to the creation of a program that aligns with each institution's mission and vision (Figure 1). Our partnership has led to goal-driven initiatives that address issues of health inequity, facilitate community service, and foster leadership development, much like what has been previously described in literature regarding development of successful community–academic partnerships (Boothroyd et al., 2017; Stewart & Wubbena, 2014; Voss et al., 2015). Continued inclusion of CCSEM personnel in program design and execution (Table 1) allowed for development of trust early on in the partnership. This ensured consistent representation of community values in longitudinal planning and further contributed to the success of our community–academic partnership. We acknowledge that the leadership provided by a Latinx faculty member may have facilitated the establishment of a strong relationship with the Latinx community program, which may correlate with trends seen in other instances where language concordance is an important factor in the development of interpersonal relationships (Diamond et al., 2019). Furthermore, the trust built between the community and our institution has also resulted in the creation of additional programs, including a summer anatomy program and an SAT preparation course for Latinx high school students, which demonstrates the strength of our partnership.

Many of the challenges observed during the process of developing this program are likely to be common among community service endeavors: Scheduling, transportation, unforeseen lack of key personnel, and mentee participation (Table 3) were the most relevant. The program faced several challenges related to mentee participation; however, external influences may have had unexpected consequences for mentee attendance. The increased stigmatization of immigrants in the nation's current political climate may have propagated the notion of unsafe conditions and contributed to decreased attendance in particular sessions (Morey, 2018).

Most students have reported positive experiences regarding their involvement with the program, and we have not received feedback regarding difficulty with program time commitment and completing preclinical coursework. Student coordinators are able to serve as substitute mentors in the event of academic, family, or personal needs of participants. Student coordinators distribute the semester event schedule several weeks in advance, with ample opportunity for time management among mentors. We are not aware of specific positive or negative impacts of program participation on academic performance or other outcomes. Cumulative service hours logged by the program are attributed only to hours served with the mentoring program (in-person mentoring, phone call mentoring, and student coordinator service hours). Many students are also involved in other volunteer activities, though we do not have data including service hour totals outside the program. Future program evaluation may involve additional study regarding these factors.

We believe that several factors have contributed to maintaining consistent structure and organization of the program. The combination of technology (i.e., Google Drive), content experts (faculty members), and the delivery of interactive sessions (pedagogy) plays a fundamental role in making the educational sessions effective and sustainable throughout the year, which aligns with the educational framework proposed by Koehler et al. (2014). In addition, building the partnership (Table 1) also required defining clear goals based on the needs of community stakeholders, building a highly skilled team, strategic planning, and resource acquisition, similar to strategies utilized in business growth and entrepreneurship (Machado, 2016). Rigorous attention to pro-

gram structure (Figure 2) and establishment of key personnel and roles and functions (Table 1), in addition to strong recordkeeping and organization, has allowed us to present a consistently beneficial program over time, even with the inevitable turnover in participants. These factors have also allowed us to gather data that shows the program's success in meeting its primary mission: to create strong bonds between medical students and at-risk Latinx youth that encourage positive life choices, promote health, and enable mentees to maximize their full personal potential. Programs fostering strong relationships between minority youth and medical student role models may encourage youth participants to pursue higher education, which could contribute to reductions in the higher dropout rate of Latinx students (Polk et al., 2013). We have also observed that Latinx mentees in our program have shown interest in becoming physicians or health professionals. It is warranted to evaluate these initiatives longitudinally to measure their impact.

There is clear evidence of the impact of the program among medical students, faculty, and the community given the significant growth of the program over time demonstrated in Table 2. The service hours that students have accrued, in addition to participation in other scholarly opportunities (abstracts, posters, workshop presentations) made possible by consistent program evaluation, may increase competitiveness for the residency match process; such results have been demonstrated in surgical professions (Rinard et al., 2010). Several students have also described their participation in the mentoring program as a meaningful topic of discussion during the residency interviews. We are currently unable to determine whether the program results in a significant difference in the selection of primary care specialties among participants, given that there are similar overall rates of primary care specialty selection between our two graduated mentor cohorts and their respective classes. Regardless of chosen specialty, students and faculty members have been recognized for their experiences in the program through awards and scholarships, further contributing to professional advancement.

The establishment of partnerships between community organizations and medical schools meets the dual goals of providing service opportunities for medical students and fulfilling the need for mentorship to community youth. There is a lack of literature describing specific strategies for instituting outcomes-based mentoring programs that allow medical students to engage with and serve the local community. Based on mentor satisfaction data (Table 4), we have observed that medical students are highly satisfied with the program, and through it they have gained communication skills and increased their understanding of the needs of Latinx children. Analysis of early program data has given us an optimistic outlook on the capacity of this program to make a positive impact on both medical students and Latinx youth. Thus, this program has the potential to fulfill the LCME requirement for cultural competence training in early medical education. Of note, we have observed in postprogram reflection sessions that medical students have expressed personal motivation to continue learning about other cultures, suggesting that similar programs could be used to foster the crucial element of cultural humility extensively described in the literature (Campinha-Bacote, 2011; Tervalon & Murray-García, 1998). We envision that future iterations of this program intended to serve populations other than the Latinx community would find similar success with development of cultural humility in medical students.

Conclusion

We have described our 4-year experience in cultivating an effective partnership with a local Latinx community organization through the creation of an outcomes-based mentoring program within a student organization. Mentors and mentees have experienced personal growth from their interactions, and they report improved confidence and communication skills, among other strengths. The central elements for providing this unique opportunity for medical students to become leaders and mentors include detailed program organization and implementation, and strong dedication to development of trust with our community partner. Our current direction includes the development of a program manual that directly outlines the foundational steps for creating a similar program and provides a detailed account of educational activities. We also aim to implement additional sessions focused on cultivating cultural humility in medical students. It is our hope that other academic institutions can utilize

strategies within our framework to develop programs that promote positive relation‑ ships between medical students and diverse communities across the country.

▶━━━━━━━━━◀

About the Authors

Mallory Peters is a medical student at Oakland University William Beaumont School of Medicine.

Belinda Asare is a preliminary surgery resident physician at William Beaumont Royal Oak.

Connor Whitaker is a current resident physician in family medicine at Champlain Valley Physicians Hospital.

Ryan Rogers, Helen Huetteman, and Cheyenna Espinoza are students at Oakland University William Beaumont School of Medicine.

Claudio Cortes is currently an immunologist and assistant professor at Oakland University William Beaumont School of Medicine.

References

Arlinghaus, K. R., Moreno, J. P., Reesor, L., Hernandez, D. C., & Johnston, C. A. (2017). Compañeros: High school students mentor middle school students to address obesity among Hispanic adolescents. *Preventing Chronic Disease, 14*, Article 170130. https://doi.org/10.5888/pcd14.170130

Bayer, A., Grossman, J. B., & DuBois, D. L. (2015). Using volunteer mentors to improve the academic outcomes of underserved students: The role of relationships. *Journal of Community Psychology, 43*(4), 408–429. https://doi.org/10.1002/jcop.21693

Boothroyd, R. I., Flint, A. Y., Lapiz, A. M., Lyons, S., Jarboe, K. L., & Aldridge, W. A. (2017). Active involved community partnerships: Co-creating implementation infrastructure for getting to and sustaining social impact. *Translational Behavioral Medicine, 7*(3), 467–477. https://doi.org/10.1007/s13142-017-0503-3

Campinha-Bacote, J. (2011). Coming to know cultural competence: An evolutionary process. *International Journal of Human Caring, 15*(3), 42–48. https://doi.org/10.20467/1091-5710.15.3.42

Chan, K. L., Lo, C. K. M., Ho, F. K. W., Zhu, S., Lai, S. M. K., & Ip, P. (2018). The longer-term psychosocial development of adolescents: Child development accounts and the role of mentoring. *Frontiers in Pediatrics, 6*, 147. https://doi.org/10.3389/fped.2018.00147

Coller, R. J., & Kuo, A. A. (2014). Youth development through mentorship: A Los Angeles school-based mentorship program among Latino children. *Journal of Community Health, 39*(2), 316–321. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10900-013-9762-1

Diamond, L., Izquierdo, K., Canfield, D., Matsoukas, K., & Gany, F. (2019). A systematic review of the impact of patient–physician non-English language concordance on quality of care and outcomes. *Journal of General Internal Medicine, 34*(8), 1591–1606. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11606-019-04847-5

Duppong Hurley, K., Lambert, M. C., Epstein, M. H., & Stevens, A. (2015). Convergent validity of the Strength-Based Behavioral and Emotional Rating Scale with youth in a residential setting. *The Journal of Behavioral Health Services & Research, 42*(3), 346–354. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11414-013-9389-0

Juhn, G., Tang, J., Piessens, P., Grant, U., Johnson, N., & Murray, H. (1999). Community learning: The Reach for Health Nursing Program–middle school collaboration. *The Journal of Nursing Education, 38*(5), 215–221.

Kelly, P. J., Bobo, T. J., McLachlan, K., Avery, S., & Burge, S. K. (2006). Girl World: A primary prevention program for Mexican American girls. *Health Promotion Practice, 7*(2), 174–179. https://doi.org/10.1177/1524839905281306

Koehler, M. J., Mishra, P., Kereluik, K., Shin, T. S., & Graham, C. R. (2014). The technological pedagogical content knowledge framework. In J. M. Spector, M. D. Merrill, J. Elen, & M. J. Bishop (Eds.), *Handbook of research on educational communications and technology* (pp. 101–111). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4614-3185-5_9

LaFleur, A. K., & White, B. J. (2010). The benefits of being a mentor. *Professional Case Management, 15*(6), 305–311. https://doi.org/10.1097/NCM.0b013e3181eae464

Liaison Committee on Medical Education. (2018). *Functions and structure of a medical school*. Association of American Medical Colleges, American Medical Association. https://rfums-bigtree.s3.amazonaws.com/files/resources/2019-20-functions-and-structure.pdf

Machado, H. P. V. (2016). Crescimento de pequenas empresas: Revisão de literatura e perspectivas de estudos. *Gestão & Produção, 23*(2), 419–432. https://doi.org/10.1590/0104-530x1759-14

Moody, K. A., Childs, J. C., & Sepples, S. B. (2003). Intervening with at-risk youth: Evaluation of the Youth Empowerment and Support Program. *Pediatric Nursing, 29*(4), 263–270.

Morey, B. N. (2018). Mechanisms by which anti-immigrant stigma exacerbates racial/ethnic health disparities. *American Journal of Public Health, 108*(4), 460–463. https://doi.org/10.2105/AJPH.2017.304266

Nora, L. M., Daugherty, S. R., Mattis-Peterson, A., Stevenson, L., & Goodman, L. J. (1994). Improving cross-cultural skills of medical students through medical school–community partnerships. *Western Journal of Medicine, 161*(2), 144–147.

Passel, J. S., & Cohn, D. (2008). *U.S. population projections: 2005–2050*. Pew Research Center: Hispanic Trends. https://www.pewresearch.org/hispanic/2008/02/11/us-population-projections-2005-2050/

Polk, S., Carter-Pokras, O., Dover, G., & Cheng, T. L. (2013). A call to improve the health and healthcare of Latino children. *The Journal of Pediatrics, 163*(5), 1240–1241. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpeds.2013.07.033

Rinard, J. R., Garol, B. D., Shenoy, A. B., & Mahabir, R. C. (2010). Successfully matching into surgical specialties: An analysis of national resident matching program data. *Journal of Graduate Medical Education, 2*(3), 316–321. https://doi.org/10.4300/JGME-D-09-00020.1

Seifer, S. D., & Connors, K. (Eds.). (2007). *Faculty toolkit for service-learning in higher education.* National Service-Learning Clearinghouse.

Stewart, T., & Wubbena, Z. (2014). An overview of infusing service-learning in medical education. *International Journal of Medical Education, 5*, 147–156. https://doi.org/10.5116/ijme.53ae.c907

Tervalon, M., & Murray-García, J. (1998). Cultural humility versus cultural competence: A critical distinction in defining physician training outcomes in multicultural education. *Journal of Health Care for the Poor and Underserved, 9*(2), 117–125. https://doi.org/10.1353/hpu.2010.0233

Thornton, R. L. J., Glover, C. M., Cené, C. W., Glik, D. C., Henderson, J. A., & Williams, D. R. (2016). Evaluating strategies for reducing health disparities by addressing the social determinants of health. *Health Affairs, 35*(8), 1416–1423. https://doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2015.1357

Voss, H. C., Mathews, L. R., Fossen, T., Scott, G., & Schaefer, M. (2015). Community–academic partnerships: Developing a service-learning framework. *Journal of Professional Nursing, 31*(5), 395–401. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.profnurs.2015.03.008

Creating an Elementary to College Education Pipeline Through a University–School–Community Partnership

Katherine E. L. Norris and Gerardina L. Martin

Abstract

Higher education institutions are in a great position to create authentic programming to support local underfunded or underperforming public school districts. This article gives an overview of an education outreach collaborative between a 4-year public university, local schools, and a community institution and highlights lessons learned from the project. This community outreach program emphasizes literacy, social justice, and college preparation. It consists of a fifth grade literacy program, a high school tutoring and mentoring program, and a scholarship program for precollege students, all situated within a local public school system. Literature reviewed shows how collaborative projects can be utilized to support community outreach programs using university resources. Preliminary results from impact measures show positive outcomes among program participants. The program can be replicated in similarly situated university–school–community collaboratives.

Keywords: literacy, college preparation, mentorship, tutoring, university collaborations, university, community, and school partnerships

---

With a large percentage of public school funding coming from property taxes, inequity in funding exists in United States public school systems. Often, underfunded schools are also schools with a higher population of Black and Latinx students (Boschma & Brownstein, 2016). Universities located near underfunded schools, with access to resources and research opportunities, could potentially serve and benefit the schools, the children, and the local communities. More colleges and universities are recognizing that it is not enough to enter the schools for the purpose of research and not establish authentic lasting collaborations to benefit the schools, children, and their communities. Partnerships and collaborations are key to ongoing support, both for the school district and for the education departments of area education-oriented universities. The mutual benefits show the reciprocity both types of institutions gain by forming long-term relationships. The university–school–community partnerships can also increase the education experiences for students and provide a foundation for college readiness to students at an early age, which is especially valuable for students attending underfunded or underperforming schools or districts. Universities have the ability to reach out to community agencies to support their efforts in creating authentic partnerships with districts. Although university, school, and community collaborations are needed and can be beneficial, they often come with challenges.

The purpose of this article is to highlight a university-led education outreach program between the university, the community, and the local school district and to discuss the project planning and implementation phase along with the challenges in an effort to support education attainment and college readiness for students in underfunded communities.

Background

University–School–Community Collaborations

Partnerships between universities, schools, and local community agencies have recently achieved success in addressing education attainment among urban minority, underrepresented, and low-income youth (Ward et al., 2013). Combining human and financial resources for underperforming schools can maximize the ability to effect change. Universities are increasingly realizing their destinies are linked to community engagement (Harkavy & Hartley, 2009). Successful university, community, and school collaboratives share buy-in from all institutions (Ward et al., 2013). Harkavy and Hartley (2009) acknowledged that the challenge in this work is moving beyond limited and short-term community involvement and moving toward establishing lasting and deep collaborative partnerships aimed at addressing real-world problems faced by the communities. Dostilio et al. (2017), in their preliminary competency model for community engagement professionals, identified competencies that community engagement professionals should possess when engaging in community collaborations. Among other competencies outlined, Dostilio et al. recognized that professionals should be able to articulate connections between institutional mission and community engagement, connect campus and community assets, initiate and maintain effective partnerships, and assess and evaluate the effectiveness of the program.

The collective gathering of resources through university, school, and community partnerships in an effort to support students from low-income, low-performing schools can take the pressure off underfunded school districts (Harkavy & Hartley, 2009; Ward et al., 2013). The collaboration outlined here is between a 4-year public higher education institution; a local underperforming, underfunded school district; and a local branch of a nationally recognized financial institution.

High School to College Pipeline

School to college bridge programs are not new to universities. Universities have been creating bridge programs in an effort to provide education, access, and support to first-generation, low-income, and underrepresented historically marginalized students. In the past, these efforts have been geared toward helping students *bridge the gap* in their knowledge, with the belief that the students were developmental. Developmental programs have been under scrutiny lately, with many programs changing their names or redesigning their interventions (Cooper et al., 2019).

Educational attainment beyond high school depends on many factors, such as higher median earnings among young adults and sustained employment. Higher education enrollment among low-income and minority youths continues to lag behind that of their nonminority peers (Ward et al., 2013). Universities have created high school to college bridge programs to address college readiness for students upon entering their first year of college. Summer bridge programs typically occur in the summer after high school graduation and offer academic and social skills necessary for college success (Sablan, 2014). According to Ward et al. (2013), the goal of student academic enrichment and support programs is to raise students' awareness of college as a realistic option for their future by

- developing skills for optimal school performance,
- increasing self-efficacy in mastering academic tasks,
- improving educational engagement,
- increasing knowledge and awareness of the college planning process, and
- heightening educational aspirations. (Ward et al., 2013, p. 315)

Over the years, programming created for first-generation high school students or students in underrepresented populations has provided a high school to college pipeline for many students.

This pipeline outreach program attempts to address the blame pipeline. Typically, the education gap blame pipeline can begin at the university level, with colleges blaming education deficiencies on the high schools, high schools blaming middle and elementary schools, and the elementary schools blaming the parents for the education challenges that students experience. Many reasons underlie the achievement gap between Black and Latinx students and their White counterparts: family and home life, school

factors, teacher expectations, and funding inequalities (Weir, 2016). This program attempts to work at each level—elementary/middle level, high school, and college—to provide support and access to address the complicated problem of the academic gap experienced by students of color in often underfunded school districts.

The Collaborators

The university realized that its very existence places burdens and demands on the local community; therefore, university administrators have made diversity, engagement, enrichment, and sustainability key themes in its strategic plan (West Chester University, 2020c). But simply saying there is a mission is not enough. It takes effort and dedication to commit to activities to enrich the surrounding community, and a collaboration helps to relieve workload pressure on any contributing individual.

The University and the Frederick Douglass Institute

The 4-year higher education institution involved in the collaboration is a public university. For over 20 years, the Frederick Douglass Institute (FDI) at the institution has worked to address the challenges of social justice and equity on campus and throughout the community (West Chester University, 2020b). The FDI within the university, guided by the work of Frederick Douglass, seeks to uplift the education attainment of children in the area of literacy and college achievement. The institute works to educate on multicultural education and social justice both inside and outside the university. Through an educational outreach program the institute engages elementary, middle, and high school students and offers educational programming with a focus on literacy and social justice.

An influential writer and speaker, Frederick Douglass had a powerful discourse that radiates through time. Douglass is known for entwining figures of speech and literary prowess to express his belief that our country would thrive when diverse voices were heard (Leeman, 2018, p. 289). In an inscription of *The Life and Times of Frederick Douglass*, Douglass wrote, "The way to conquer contempt for the lowly is to work for their elevation" (Powell, 2017, para. 3). Douglass had a mission of education and found ways to educate himself in order to free himself from slavery, not just physical-ly, but also emotionally and intellectually. In order to advance Douglass's mission, the FDI continues to promote equity and quality education for all. The members of FDI take it upon themselves to continue to educate the community and provide access to educational opportunities to all community members. From one-book projects to exhibits, speeches, and oratorical debates, the institute supports both current undergraduate students and the larger neighboring community by envisioning ways to model Douglass's desire to share knowledge with others.

The School District

A local steel mill in one of our neighboring communities is America's oldest and longest continuing steel mill and drew many people to the area for jobs in the early 1800s. In 1968, the mill created 152 steel "tree" beams used in the World Trade Center. Automation over the years increased the amount of steel forged annually from 500,000 tons in 1919 to 900,000 tons annually today (McCullough, 2010). However, jobs decreased due to automation, and the mill currently employs only 638 of the population (DiStefano, 2020). The shift created a loss of income for many people in the area; 30.1% of residents now live below the poverty line (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018a), so sending high school students to college is difficult. The local school district lists its mission as providing "equitable opportunities for all students so that they will take ownership of their education and grow within a community of learners" (Coatesville Area Senior High School, n.d., para. 1). However, the Coatesville Area School District has the lowest graduation rates and is in the highest area of need in the county. In Coatesville, 15.2% of residents have graduated college, compared to 34.7% and 56.5% in two nearby towns of similar stature (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018a). Nationally, an average 30.9% of residents have a bachelor's degree or above, which leaves Coatesville City at about half the national average (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018b). Within the district, there are a fast-paced city, several suburbs, and an expansive rural area, which make equity in socioeconomic status difficult to achieve. In order to provide equitable opportunities for all, partnerships with others in the community are a necessity.

Financial Institution

The bank partner has a long history of supporting the community with local grants that fund projects aimed at education and solving complex societal problems (Wells Fargo, 2020). Through the bank's foundation, communities are supported, and partnerships are forged to tackle community and societal ills. The university applied for an initial bank grant; with the bank, it had a joint goal of building a bridge of academic success spanning elementary through college graduation into professional success in an effort to support a community in need. The grant was divided into three programs: the Elementary Reading Program, Tutoring and College Readiness and the Scholars Program. Additional funding to support this program beyond its initial 3 years has since been secured. This grant has given the university and the institute an opportunity to collaborate and plan with the school district a program aiming to offer equity opportunities for the students in the local school district through an elementary school to college pipeline. Here we give an overview of the three programs funded.

Program and Grant Overview

When universities consider preparing students of color and strengthening the high school pipeline specifically for students at underfunded public schools, creating collaborations between universities and PK–12 schools is recommended (Alford, 2014). The university–school–community partnership depended on a reciprocal relationship between the university, schools, and a local community agency. University constituents first met with a local financial institution and proposed a potential win–win collaboration, where the financial institution would get a tax benefit and support the local com-

munity, thereby adding to their credibility in the community, and the institution would receive grant funding to support their endeavors for community outreach and supportive funding.

The university then researched underperforming schools in the area and began partnering with the most underfunded of the districts. University faculty, in collaboration with district leaders, met to discuss the best way to meet the needs of the district. The focus of the program would include increasing literacy skills, supporting college preparatory activities, and providing access to students who would not normally be able to afford college. A letter of understanding was developed with the school district that enabled faculty and tutors to enter the schools. Faculty then could submit their needs to the grant funders in the form of a grant request (see Table 1). The request involved all components of the program and provided for program reporting back to the institution in order to secure future funding from year to year.

The program consisted of three components, the elementary school reading program, the high school tutorial program, and the precollege scholars' program, all of which were supported by a community grant. The programs were created with best practices and shared goals of successful community engagement and high school to college pipeline goals in mind. This article takes a look at the collaborators, the project, and its challenges (see Table 2) while identifying community professional competencies used for program success.

This education and community outreach effort utilized three of Dostilio et al.'s (2017) community engagement competencies across the programs: facilitating students'

Table 1. General Budget Requests			
Component	**Description**	**Quantity**	**Requested funds**
Component 1: Elementary Reading Program	Books or ebooks	500	$4,000
Component 2: Tutoring and College Readiness	Tutors	4–5 @ $10 an hour for 5 hours a week for 30 weeks	$6,000– $7,500
Component 3: The Scholars Program	Scholarships, laptops, and software	3 students each year	$12,000
Total grant request			$22,000– $23,500

Table 2. Overview of Program Goals Evaluation and Challenges			
	Component 1: Elementary Reading Program	**Component 2: Tutoring and College Readiness**	**Component 3: The Scholars Program**
Program goals	1. To introduce students to concepts of equity, fairness, and social justice 2. To provide students with quality literature 3. To engage 5th graders in literacy skills	1. To tutor high school students for college readiness 2. To engage under-graduates with service-learning 3. To provide mentorship to high school students	1. Provide scholarships to two students to attend the university
Program evaluation	1. 5th grade pre- & posttests 2. Teacher survey	1. Self-assessment survey 2. Student participation 3. Tutor survey	1. Program recipients finish the 5-week Summer Bridge Program
Program considerations	1. Scheduling and time for both the teachers and the faculty	1. Transportation 2. The future of funding	1. Consider opening the scholarship (pending funding) to other programs on campus

civic learning and development, adminis-tering community engagement programs, and cultivating high quality partnerships. Table 3 illustrates how components of the competencies (i.e., skills and commitments) are demonstrated across the three outreach programs.

Component 1: The Elementary Reading Program

For many years, the university's Frederick Douglass Institute has had an education outreach component that seeks to increase literacy, multicultural education, and social justice awareness for elementary school children, especially children of color or in high poverty areas. The Elementary Reading Program, instituted as the Fifth Grade One Grade One Book Literacy Project, was de-signed to give children access to books and activities dealing with African American history and touching on issues of equity and social justice. The program was intended to support and supplement the literacy efforts of the schools. After receiving a grant, the program was able to expand. Instead of working with one or two classes a year, the program expanded to all fifth graders in that local school district. Because Pennsylvania's standardized tests (PSSA) are administered in the fifth grade year, the school district curriculum coordinator decided to imple-ment the program across all fifth grade classrooms in the district. Prior to this, the program had been offered in surrounding districts for fourth, fifth, and sixth grade students.

The reading program had three main goals: (1) increase the literacy skills of area fifth graders, (2) engage the students in critical thinking surrounding issues of social jus-tice, and (3) provide reading resources to classroom teachers and fifth grade students. Teaching with multicultural children's lit-erature is a way to begin conversations on inequalities, race, culture, and discrimina-tion under the guidance of the teacher, and using authentic multicultural children's literature allows children to see each other in nonstereotypical ways (Morgan, 2009). Using the state standards, the activities focused on reading with accuracy and flu-ency, comprehending and recalling a text,

Table 3. Community Engagement Competencies			
Competencies	Skills	Commitments	The Frederick Douglass Elementary, High School, and College Pipeline Program
Facilitating students' civic learning and development	Able to facilitate peer-to-peer discussion that positively impacts student learning Able to construct solid learning outcome goals Able to collaborate with and support historically marginalized students	Committed to cultivating authentic relationships with students Committed to developing students' critical consciousness	Developing relationships with students in all sections of the pipeline Introducing elementary school students to critical concepts of social justice
Administering community engagement programs	Able to collaborate and work across role and disciplinary silos Able to cultivate and maintain relationships Able to cultivate and manage multiple funding streams and budgets Able to develop and supervise staff Able to collect and analyze data	Committed to dialogue with communities Able to unveil and disrupt unequal power structures	Open dialogue between district, university, and community financial organization about the needs of the students and the programs Providing access and attempting to close gaps in education and finances
Cultivating high quality partnerships	Able to connect campus and community assets Able to initiate and maintain effective partnerships Able to involve partnership members in reflection on and assessment of partnerships	Conscious of power relations inherent in partnerships Committed to cultivating authentic relationships with communities	Allowing students, teachers, district leaders, and university faculty/staff/students to offer feedback and reflect regularly on the program

Note. Adapted from Dostilio, L. D., Benenson, J., Chamberlin, S., Crossland, S., Farmer-Hanson, A., Hernandez, K., & colleagues. (2017). Preliminary competency model for community engagement professionals. In L. D. Dostilio (Ed.), *The community engagement professional in higher education: A competency model for an emerging field* (pp. 46–61). Campus Compact.

reading informational nonfiction texts, and increasing writing in response to literature.

The Key Players

When starting up any program, identifying the key players to run the program is critical. Frequently, with time constraints and lack of funding, finding individuals to share in the responsibility can be challenging. Initially, a faculty member was charged with organizing, planning, and implementing the Elementary Reading Program. At the onset of the project, Year 1, one designated faculty member was in charge of the pre-planning, meetings, communication with teachers and district administrators, and planning curricula and assessments. During Year 2, two faculty members carried out the project. The faculty member who designed

and currently runs the program has over 30 years of experience in education, 18 of which were spent teaching for a large school district in the region. Both faculty members have a wealth of experience in education and in public school teaching. Graduate assistants handled the behind the scenes aspects of the project. The district classroom teachers had the bulk of responsibility for carrying out the reading and literacy activities in the classroom.

Getting Started

The planning for the program began in summer 2016 before the anticipated fall 2016 start. This planning included selecting the first book, incorporating the fifth grade English–Language Arts standards, writing an activity guide to pair with the book, and creating a pretest and posttest. In the past, the project had been carried out on a smaller scale in a different district. This was an opportunity to refine and enhance the already existing methodology. For Year 1 and Year 2, the selection of the book was easy. *Who Was Frederick Douglass?* by April Jones Prince (Prince, 2018) was selected as a nonfiction work that would allow the students to learn more about the life and legacy of Frederick Douglass. Although the book's reading level was not challenging, we hoped that its historical nature and the high content focus would challenge even the children who thought the reading was easy.

The literacy activity guide included activities the teachers could use paired with reading of the book. The activities were supported by the state standards for the fifth grade. The guide included comprehension questions tied to each chapter, end of the book suggestions for activities, and activities that encourage writing and critical thinking. The teachers were given the option of using the guide in addition to creating their own activities. For Year 3, the teachers opted to select a different title. *Who Were the Tuskegee Airmen?* by Sherri Smith (Smith, 2018) was selected. The grant allowed all fifth grade students (approximately 450) in the local school district to participate. Each student received a copy of the book to keep upon program completion.

The Project

The initial phase of the project included communication with the teachers in an effort to ensure smooth program implementation. The program began in the 2016–2017 academic year, just after we had completed Year 3 of the One Grade One Book Literacy Project, sponsored by the university. Initially, after meeting with the district curriculum coordinator, we decided to begin the project during PSSA testing. The fifth graders would test in the morning and then read the book and complete activities during the afternoon. The project ran for 2 full weeks. Upon completing the pretest, students read the book with guidance from their teachers. The children completed literacy activities, discussions, and ongoing writing activities centered on the book.

Pennsylvania fifth grade English and Language Arts state standards were considered when creating activities. Once the book was completed, each class was allowed to select how they would show what they learned. Some classes elected to do individual projects, and in other classes the students worked in small groups, with each group creating their own project. As an impact measure, teachers were sent a survey to share their thoughts on improving the program or making changes.

Assessment

In order to determine program impact, quantitative and qualitative measures are performed at three separate levels: the students, the classroom teachers, and the faculty. The students receive a pretest and a posttest to assess comprehension, reading standards, and writing reflecting on issues of social justice. The tests include both multiple choice questions and open-ended questions. At the end of the project, the classroom teachers are given a short survey to gather information to guide the program. This survey includes multiple choice questions and an open-ended question, allowing the teachers to reflect on the program, both the content and organization. Finally, the program faculty are able to offer reflection on what worked well and what challenges exist. Early preliminary impact measures show positive feedback and program success through the students, classroom teachers, and faculty overall satisfaction. A few challenges were identified, but all teachers and faculty thought the program was worthy and wished to continue.

Existing Challenges

When starting a new initiative, it is beneficial to examine the program for challenges and opportunities for improvement. As in

most university–community collaborations, challenges may arise. The university faculty members were able to identify challenges from the perspectives of both the university faculty and the teachers in the schools. From the perspective of the university, having enough human resources to run the program was an initial challenge. Faculty members are often pulled in many directions, and finding enough time to spend in the schools can pose a challenge. Project sustainability can also be a challenge. To ensure our program continued in the event the primary faculty were no longer at the institution nor running the program, we talked with department chairs and selected dedicated faculty to administer the program, with the understanding that the FDI is the supervising body for the project. This way, reporting for all three components can be collected in one area and provided to the financial institution. Additionally, if faculty turnover occurs, the FDI has the function and capacity to search for substitutions.

Schoolteachers tend to have busy schedules, and sometimes adding one more project to their plate can feel overwhelming. Being able to agree on the best time to run the project was also a challenge, since holidays, test preparation, and statewide testing make finding a stretch of time that makes sense for the students and teachers challenging. To overcome these challenges, school administration and faculty met at the beginning of the year to communicate how the graduate students and faculty would be assisting in the creation of activities and lesson plans. Additionally, we looked at the university and school calendars to find the appropriate stretch of time. Of course, changes in the academic year schedules will require that this time budgeting be repeated each year.

Moving Forward

In an effort to strengthen the program, ongoing use of survey data will enable the teachers to indicate the best time and method of communication. All participating teachers will be encouraged to respond to the survey. An attempt will be made to include planning and meeting times occurring at least once before the start of the program. Ensuring that each fifth-grade teacher has an opportunity to meet and plan and get on the same page will be helpful. In the future we also hope to include funding to compensate teachers for meeting times.

Component 2: Tutoring and College Readiness at the High School

Tutoring is a method of helping learners find their own paths. A successful peer-assisted learning atmosphere incorporates strategies and interventions requiring a tutor to have a perfected skill set (Topping, 2001). For this tutoring program, tutors are trained to understand the academic needs of high school students who may be only a few years younger (College Reading and Learning Association. 2018). Highly prescriptive tutoring programs with specific tasks for tutors are more effective than less organized ones (Roller, 1998, p.1); therefore, we ask students what they would like to accomplish, and tutors have a plan designed for moving through the learning process. Programs where students have to find their own answers are "more effective than those in which the tutor provides answers" (Roller, 1998, p. 1). Our tutors do not simply answer students' questions; rather, they use a questioning method to help students learn new ways to find the information on their own. Utilizing the Socratic method helps experienced tutors ask probing questions in order to lead their students to a process of critical thinking (Boghossian, 2006). If a tutor understands how learners might not have the preparation needed to accomplish the student learning outcomes of their current coursework, the tutor can help the learner by searching for more root problems.

This method, incorporating Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD), was originally designed for youth peer-to-peer learning experiences, but the idea that a more skilled person can help lesser skilled peers is also applicable in adult learning (Harland, 2003). Colvin's (2007) study defined the skills needed for peer tutoring, as well as the ethical implications of tutoring, while coding and quantifying the tutoring experience. The study gave a definition of peer tutoring and described its challenge (Colvin, 2007, p. 173). For this project, the tutors are trained to understand their roles as peer tutors, select an academic focus within the session, and draw learning from the student while building study skills applicable across subjects. The tutors also have to be dynamic in order to engage their high school counterparts in learning needed material.

The Key Players

The tutoring program is run by a professional with 20 years of experience managing a learning assistance center and 17 years of teaching in higher education. Four or five tutors have been chosen each year, and the positions are coveted due to the limited number of hours and competitive pay rate. The tutors are undergraduate students at the university and must have completed at least one semester in order to provide a GPA. The tutors were selected based on their cumulative GPA of at least a 3.0, their ability to travel to the school, and their proven dedication to working with high school students. An upper-class student was chosen to help support the other tutors while on site, as well as to help promote the program to additional teachers and students while at school.

Getting Started

Planning for the high school portion of the program included designing a tutoring program to meet the needs of high school students who may or may not be making the decision to go to college. During the first year, tutors got to know the students at the high school and determined which students could best benefit from the program. No students were turned away, but many of the students had never considered going to college, and therefore the project goals and objectives had to be rewritten as needed.

The revised program included between five and 10 tutors, a driver to transport the tutors to the school, and increased collaboration between the tutors and the school contacts. Enticing the students included creating a *frequent flyer* card, so students received punches for the number of times they came to tutor. After a designated number of on-time, prepared attendance punches, students were offered the choice of several rewards, from snacks to T-shirts.

The Project

Tutors are trained at the beginning of each semester in valuable student learning methods and theories (College Reading and Learning Association, 2018). They ride together on Tuesdays and Thursdays out to the school district, which is about a half hour ride from the university. When they arrive, they are greeted by the assistant principal, who has been a valuable asset to the team. Tutoring is announced during the morning and afternoon announcements by the assistant principal, and the program is well supported by the teaching faculty and coaches at the high school.

Tutor training occurs at the beginning of each semester, and tutors are asked to assess student levels at the beginning of each day. The tutors are available every Tuesday and Thursday afternoon at the end of the school day throughout the school year. They ask their students to complete a survey at the end of each session for programmatic assessment, which helps to redesign future tutor training.

Assessment

When tutoring begins, students fill out a preassessment asking what they would like to work on and how they are feeling about their coursework. They meet with tutors who can help them in their needed subjects. The tutors are interdisciplinary but also have some main focus areas, such as math, writing, and SAT prep. At the end of each session, students receive a postassessment and their attendance cards are stamped. The assessments are used for programmatic design and tutor retraining, not for studying student progress. If students attend more than five sessions, they are offered a choice of prizes, such as a West Chester University lanyard or T-shirt, all provided by the university.

We found that incentives, such as prizes and snacks, make students more motivated to attend; however, in satisfaction surveys, students have said they appreciate the services, and some had never thought they would attend college but are now not only considering applying, but actively filling out applications. The students enjoy the program, but they feel more of their friends would attend if they had transportation home. No second bus is available after school, so if they do not have transportation from friends, they cannot attend the program. Students also appreciate the food and snacks, so one addition for the 2019–2020 year is offering snacks at each session. Because many of the students come from food-insecure families, they appreciate the healthy snacks provided by the tutors.

Existing Challenges

Initially, the main challenge for the tutoring program was transportation. Many students need and desire tutoring, and the under-

graduate student tutors wanted to help, especially when they discovered they could be paid for the opportunity. Transporting the tutors to the school and not having after-school transportation for the students hindered the attendance at first. After brainstorming ways to transport the tutors, the challenge was solved by hiring a graduate student and using a university van. This graduate student also serves as a supervisor to keep the tutors on track, as well as a role model tutor. Incorporating incentives for students provided them more reason to stay after school for the program.

Moving Forward

Assessing the program's effectiveness has been the key to moving forward. As with any program, more funding means more opportunities, so presenting our results to key stakeholders is imperative. During Year 3 of the program, as the numbers of tutors and students increased, we implemented a pre- and postassessment for each tutoring day. The future of the tutoring program is centered on funding, as the need is there, and the students are willing to participate. Since the transportation issue has a long-term solution, the learning component can take place at a sustainable level, as there is no lack of students who need the help and no lack of college-aged, trained tutors who want to support their local community.

Component 3: The Scholars Program

The third program supported by the bank grant is the Scholars Program. Two students are selected from the Coatesville High School tutoring program to attend the Academic Development Program (ADP; now known as the ASP—Academic Success Program, West Chester University, 2020a). ADP is a summer bridge program aimed at students with potential who were not accepted into West Chester University's regular admit programs. The program offers support structures for students ranging from tutoring and mentoring to college prep basic skills classes. The scholarship supports students through their summer program, including tuition and room and board.

Key Players

The Scholars Program is a link to the university's bridge program. The funder decided it would be an appropriate aspect of the grant and overall collaboration to finan-cially support students who went through the tutoring program and wanted to attend the university.

The Program

As with other bridge programs, the university's bridge program provides access to the institution for students who may not have the SAT scores needed for regular admission. However, students attend a summer bridge, where they live in a learning community and take classes with their peers, in order to provide them academic skills in reading, writing, and math (West Chester University, 2020a). They are supported through individualized academic advising, tutoring, mentoring, and counseling. The Scholars Program allows students from the supported local school district the funding to attend the summer bridge program.

Moving Forward

No current challenges have presented themselves in this part of the program. Looking to the future, as students come through the program from fifth grade through graduation, we hope to have funding to funnel more students through the pipeline and have access to college through the summer bridge program.

Discussion: Creating University–School–Community Partnerships

Creating a collaboration between the university, the community, and a local high-need school district allowed programming to support students' college preparation and access. The partnership of the university, the schools, and the community funding agency helped to strengthen the mutual missions of the institute—equity in education and support through school to college. In creating this partnership, the leaders considered the skills and abilities of the competency model for community engagement professionals (Dostilio et al., 2017) to ensure the creation of a successful and sustainable project. Looking back on the three-part project, there are implications for other institutions looking to establish similar programs.

Timeline for Success

Developing a successful timeline includes taking into consideration the needs of the students and instructors involved. The fol-

lowing are steps to take when replicating the program (see Figure 1).

First, become familiar with the competencies necessary for community engagement professionals and incorporate best practices into your planning. University, school, and community partnerships require knowledge, skills, and abilities to ensure the partnership is reciprocal and authentic. Next, when planning collaborations, it is critical to find common missions and goals for the university, schools, and community. Begin program planning based on the common thread in the missions of each institution and identify the program challenges. As the program is running, and after each leg of the program, stop and take a close look at the challenges. At the start of a program, be aware of the importance of assessing with key learning outcomes. Undergraduate students at universities are eager to participate actively in university–led community–school partnerships—they just need the resources and support. Finally, time needs to be set aside for planning and support for all involved. Planning and scheduling time can too easily be overlooked or altogether omitted in the funding. Making time for planning and scheduling helps to support the project's sustainability.

University–school–community partnerships can be beneficial to all agencies and the students they serve. Establishing funding from an outside source allowed the FDI to expand upon education outreach work.

Conclusion

Institutions can benefit and have a larger impact on the local community by working as partners to effect change in the education arena. Universities and community agencies hold a wealth of resources and can serve as assets to local underfunded or undersupported school districts and students. Creating university–school collaborations can be a way to begin to bridge the equity gap within those districts. These collaborations, although beneficial, can pose challenges that hamper or impede success. Community engagement professionals should utilize the competencies necessary for successful collaborations (Dostilio et al., 2017) in an effort to plan, implement, and assess the accomplishments of these alliances. Programs created should be built on shared missions between the university, the schools, and the community while evaluating programs to better address presented challenges. Partnerships and collaborations are key to ongoing support, both for the school districts and the community. The mutual benefits show the reciprocity institutions gain by forming long–term relationships.
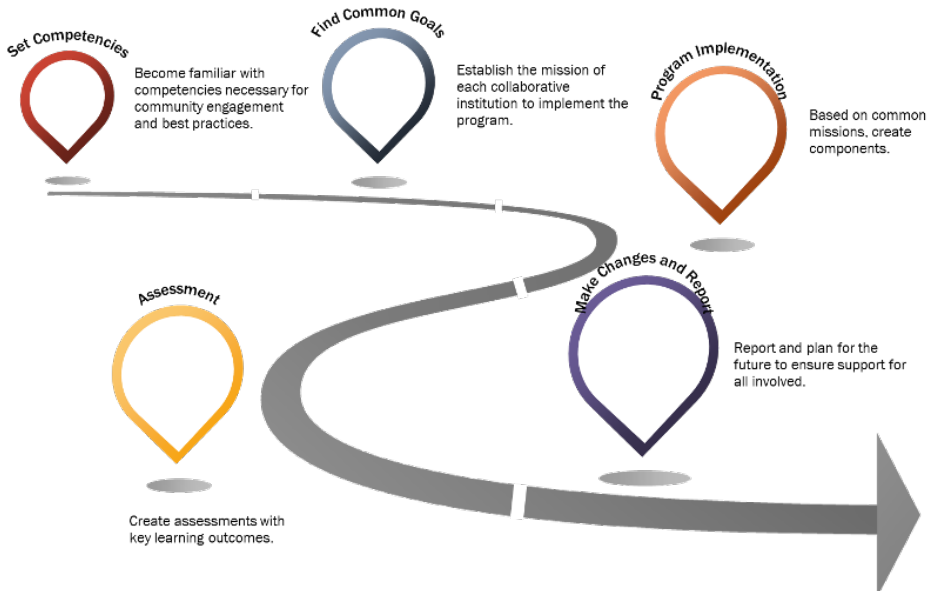

Figure 1. Timeline

About the Authors

Katherine E. L. Norris *is a professor of Early Childhood Education at West Chester University.*

Gerardina L. Martin *is assistant director of the Honors College at West Chester University.*

References

Alford, B., Rudolph, A., Olson Beal, H., & Hill, B. (2014). A school–university math and science P-16 partnership: Lessons learned in promoting college and career readiness. *Planning & Changing, 45*(1/2), 99–119.

Boghossian, P. (2006). Behaviorism, constructivism, and Socratic pedagogy. *Educational Philosophy & Theory, 38*(6), 713–722. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-5812.2006.00226.x

Boschma, J., & Brownstein, R. (2016, February 26). The concentration of poverty in American schools. *The Atlantic.* https://www.theatlantic.com/education/archive/2016/02/concentration-poverty-american-schools/471414/

Coatesville Area Senior High School. (n.d.). *Mission statement.* Coatesville Area School District. https://www.casdschools.org/domain/1562

College Reading and Learning Association. (2018). *About CRLA certifications.* https://www.crla.net/index.php/certifications/about-crla-certifications

Colvin, J. W. (2007). Peer tutoring and social dynamics in higher education. *Mentoring & Tutoring: Partnership in Learning, 15*(2), 165–181. https://doi.org/10.1080/13611260601086345

Cooper, E. E., McGee, J. R., Levine-Brown, P., & Bolt, L. (2019). The effectiveness of redesigns in developmental education. *Journal of Developmental Education, 43*(1), 20–32.

DiStefano, J. N. (2020, September 28). Coatesville, Conshohocken steel plans are sold as a brash CEO makes a big bet on American steel. The Philadelphia Inquirer. https://www.inquirer.com/business/phillydeals/steel-lukens-conshohocken-cleveland-cliffs-arcelor-mittal-20200928.html

Dostilio, L. D., Benenson, J., Chamberlin, S., Crossland, S., Farmer-Hanson, A., Hernandez, K., & colleagues. (2017). Preliminary competency model for community engagement professionals. In L. D. Dostilio (Ed.), *The community engagement professional in higher education: A competency model for an emerging field* (pp. 46–61). Campus Compact.

Harkavy, I., & Hartley, M. (2009). University–school–community partnerships for youth development and democratic renewal. *New Directions for Youth Development, 2009*(122), 7–18. https://doi.org/10.1002/yd.303

Harland, T. (2003). Vygotsky's zone of proximal development and problem-based learning: Linking a theoretical concept with practice through action research. *Teaching in Higher Education, 8*(2), 263–272. https://doi.org/10.1080/1356251032000052483

Leeman, R. W. (2018). Frederick Douglass and the eloquence of double-consciousness. *Howard Journal of Communications, 29*(3), 282–298. https://doi.org/10.1080/10646175.2018.1424667

McCullough, B. (2010). *A Pennsylvania giant: Lukens Steel.* The Pennsylvania Center for the Book, University of Pennsylvania. https://pabook.libraries.psu.edu/literary-cultural-heritage-map-pa/feature-articles/pennsylvania-giant-lukens-steel

Morgan, H. (2009). Using read-alouds with culturally sensitive children's books: A strategy that can lead to tolerance and improved reading skills. *Reading Improvement, 46*(1), 3–8.

Powell, P. (2017). *Frederick Douglass' first and last visits to West Chester—Part II.* Chester County Historical Society. http://www.chestercohistorical.org/frederick-douglass-first-and-last-visits-west-chester-part-ii-0

Prince, A. J. (2014). *Who is Frederick Douglass?* Penguin Random House.

Roller, C. (1998). *So...what's a tutor to do?* International Reading Association.

Sablan, J. (2014). The challenge of summer bridge programs. *American Behavioral Scientist. 58*(8), 1035–1050. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002764213515234

Smith, S. L. (2018). *Who were the Tuskegee Airmen?* Penguin Random House.

Topping, K., & Ehly, S. (2001). Peer assisted learning: A framework for consultation. *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 12*(2), 113–132.

U. S. Census Bureau. (2018a). Quickfacts: Coatesville City, Pennsylvania. https://www.census.gov/quickfacts/fact/table/coatesvillecitypennsylvania/POP060210

U. S. Census Bureau. (2018b). Quickfacts: United States. https://www.census.gov/quick-facts/fact/table/US/PST045218

Ward, N., Strambler, M., & Linke, L. (2013). Increasing educational attainment among urban minority youth: A model of university, school, and community partnerships. *The Journal of Negro Education, 82*(3), 312–325. https://doi.org/10.7709/jnegroeducation.82.3.0312

Weir, K. (2016). Inequality at school: What's behind the racial disparity in our education system? *Monitor on Psychology, 47*(10). https://www.apa.org/monitor/2016/11/cover-inequality-school

Wells Fargo. (2020). *Community giving.* https://www.wellsfargo.com/about/corporate-responsibility/community-giving

West Chester University. (2020a). *Academic Success Program.* https://www.wcupa.edu/universityCollege/asp/

West Chester University. (2020b). *Frederick Douglass Institute.* https://www.wcupa.edu/_academics/Fdouglass/

West Chester University. (2020c). *Pathways to student success.* https://www.wcupa.edu/president/strategicPlan/default.aspx

The PARC Initiative: A Multianchor Approach to Community Engagement and Development

Patrick Kennelly, Amber Wichowsky, Luke Knapp, Erin Wissler Gerdes, Jacqueline Schram, Jennifer Byrne, Rana Altenburg, and Daniel Bergen

Abstract

There is broad recognition that anchor institutions—universities, hospitals, and other locally embedded organizations—can leverage their economic and human resources to revitalize and empower distressed neighborhoods. In Milwaukee, five anchor institutions, including Marquette University, collaborated with residents, city officials, and other stakeholders to transform the seven neighborhoods surrounding their campuses. The Promoting Assets and Reducing Crime (PARC) initiative is an innovative, data-driven, and place-based model of community collaboration to address neighborhood challenges. Over the last 3 years, PARC has helped stimulate economic development, enhance housing stock, improve public safety, and strengthen neighborhood connections in the city's Near West Side. In this article, we detail how PARC was established, the role of the university in this multianchor partnership, and how the initiative PARC integrates data and community input to inform and evaluate its work. The PARC initiative demonstrates promise as an effective model of university engagement in neighborhood revitalization efforts.

Keywords: anchor institutions, neighborhood revitalization, crime, public safety, economic development

Universities have long capitalized on their human, physical, and financial resources to address pressing social problems in their communities. From the mid-1800s through the early 1900s, the federal government created land-grant universities to expand educational access and improve livelihoods in rural America (McDowell, 2001). The popularization of the Wisconsin Idea—the notion that university resources should be applied to solve problems and address the well-being of people in the state—further advanced what many in American higher education consider community engagement (Butin, 2007). By the 1990s, many urban colleges and universities found themselves surrounded by deteriorating and declining neighborhoods, as suburbanization, capital flight, and the loss of manufacturing jobs hollowed out the urban middle class, concentrated urban poverty (Wilson, 1987), and brought the economic gains that African Americans had achieved during the civil rights era to a grinding halt in many cities (Sharkey, 2013). It has now been more than 20 years since the Kellogg Commission (1999) called on colleges and universities to focus on "urban revitalization and community renewal comparable in its own way to our rural development efforts in the last century" (p. 10). Over the last 2 decades, urban colleges and universities have invested their resources in neighborhood revitalization efforts, broadening their educational missions and targeting strategies to address the needs of their adjacent neighborhoods (Ehlenz, 2017; Rodin, 2007).

There is now broad recognition that anchor institutions, including universities, hospitals, and other locally embedded organizations, can leverage their economic and human resources to revitalize and empower distressed urban neighborhoods (for a review, see Dubb & Howard, 2012).

Researchers have documented the place-based strategies of anchors, such as universities' investments in physical infrastructure, public safety, and other amenities (Adams, 2003; Ehlenz, 2017; Rodin, 2007; Taylor & Luter, 2013). Other studies highlight the ways that anchors can build trusting relationships with community partners and develop coalitions that can be mobilized to address neighborhood challenges (Cantor et al., 2013; Harris & Pickron-Davis, 2013). At the same time, however, universities have also been urged to more actively pursue strategies that "better the long-term welfare of the community in which they reside" (Dubb et al., 2013, p. v), particularly given growing concerns about urban inequality and gentrification (see, e.g., Smith, 2008).

Milwaukee's Near West Side is home to five anchor institutions, including Marquette University. In 2014, the five anchors joined together to form the Near West Side Partners (NWSP), a nonprofit organization dedicated to improving the quality of life for those who live, work, and visit in the community. In 2015, NWSP launched the PARC initiative, a multiyear collaboration between the anchors, residents, city leaders, and other stakeholders to "promote assets" and "reduce crime" in the area. In just under 4 years, the initiative has attracted 37 new businesses, improved public safety, increased university and community engagement, and won several awards for its unique collaborative model. In this article, we detail how the initiative was established, the role of the university in this multianchor partnership, and how the initiative has integrated data and community input to inform and evaluate its work. We also discuss how these efforts have enhanced experiential learning opportunities for students and advanced the mission of the university.

Milwaukee's Near West Side

Milwaukee's Near West Side is home to over 28,000 residents, 10,000 of whom are students at Marquette University. The area, also referred to as the "neighborhood of neighborhoods," includes seven distinct neighborhoods directly west of Milwaukee's downtown business district. At its height, the seven neighborhoods that constitute the Near West Side were home to historic single and duplex family homes, multifamily buildings, schools, places of worship, and major employers, including seven hospitals, a medical school, two universities, industry giants like Harley-Davidson and Miller Brewing, dozens of nonprofit institutions, and hundreds of small businesses. Most houses were owner occupied and residents walked to work. Its proximity to downtown made the Near West Side a prime location for residential and commercial development.

Like many older industrial cities throughout the United States, Milwaukee experienced an economic downturn in its manufacturing base, resulting in the loss of family-sustaining jobs and the exodus of major employers from the city. Families moved to the suburbs to follow the jobs, and housing values declined. Between 1970 and 1990, many institutions closed or moved to the suburbs, including six hospitals, a medical college, and a university. The neighborhoods were hard hit: There was a dramatic decline in the walk-to-work residential population, massive vacancies in the multiunit buildings, and a decline in home-ownership. These changes also impacted the small business climate, leading to the closure of neighborhood grocery stores, restaurants, and other amenities. With the loss of institutional employers, a declining residential population, a growing number of absentee landlords, and a reduction in resident incomes, violent crime rose dramatically in the 1980s–1990s, prompting Marquette University to launch a neighborhood revitalization initiative focused on reducing blight and crime on the campus and in the surrounding area. From 1990 to 1996, Marquette's Campus Circle Project, in collaboration with the City of Milwaukee, helped stabilize the area. In 1992, a business improvement district was created to focus on neighborhood improvements in a portion of the Near West Side. Though such early efforts helped stabilize conditions, particularly in the immediate campus area, the Near West Side continues to face challenges. Poverty rates remain higher in the Near West Side compared to the city average. Commercial corridors are plagued by vacant storefronts, and the Near West Side has struggled to attract and retain small businesses. Much of the existing housing stock needs repairs and restoration—a far cry from its former grandeur. And in the years before the launch of PARC, residents and employees remained concerned about elevated rates of crime and violence (see Table 1).

Table 1. Near West Side Boundaries Part I Crime January 1–December 31, 2007–2014								
Crime categories	**2007**	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**
Homicide	5	4	2	6	3	5	5	8
Rape	29	22	30	17	29	26	24	20
Robbery	243	185	176	154	180	199	204	200
Aggravated assault	203	185	177	157	146	201	193	234
Burglary	218	215	220	212	276	278	251	218
Theft	1025	870	851	923	856	649	594	539
Auto theft	472	372	282	240	224	269	175	205
Arson	10	12	8	7	4	7	11	7
Total violent crime	480	396	385	334	358	431	426	462
Total property crime	1725	1469	1361	1382	1360	1203	1031	969

Table 2. Demographics of the Near West Side and the City of Milwaukee				
	Near West Side		**City of Milwaukee**	
Total population	**28,501**		**594,833**	
White, non–Hispanic	10,572	37.1%	266,339	44.8%
African American or Black, non–Hispanic	11,429	40.1%	237,769	40.0%
American Indian or Alaska Native, non–Hispanic	123	0.4%	4,695	0.8%
Asian, non–Hispanic	3,087	10.8%	20,851	3.5%
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, non–Hispanic	23	0.1%	241	<0.1%
Some other race, non–Hispanic	31	0.1%	44,650	7.5%
Two or more races, non–Hispanic	1,128	4.0%	20,288	3.4%
Hispanic or Latino	2,108	7.4%	103,007	17.3%
Note: Data for the Near West Side come from the American Community Survey 5–year population estimates from 2009 to 2013. Data for City of Milwaukee come from the 2010 Census.				

Today, the Near West Side reflects the city's racial and economic diversity (see Table 2). There are a variety of housing options, including single family homes, duplexes, large multifamily complexes, apartments, and historic mansions. About 86% of housing units are renter-occupied, and subsidized or assisted units account for nearly one fifth of the area's housing stock. There are 2,412 site-based low-income housing units in the area. The Historic Concordia Neighborhood, one of the seven Near West Side communities, is Wisconsin's only neighborhood on the National Register of Historic Places.

There is also a wide array of assets across the seven neighborhoods, including K-12 schools, places of worship, nonprofits, cultural venues, historic buildings, government and social service agencies, a university, and one hospital. There are four parks, and the area is conveniently located in close proximity to the Menomonee Valley, which includes the Hank Aaron Trail and opportunities for biking, jogging, and canoeing. Over 350 employers are located in the Near West Side and nearly 29,000 employees work in the community. The major employers include five anchor institutions that have a long history and strong presence in the

community. Marquette University is located in the southeastern corner of this "neighborhood of neighborhoods."

Near West Side Partners

In 2014, after 7 years of decreasing overall crime and increased collaboration between the police department and the anchor institutions' private security operations, the Near West Side experienced an increase in violence and property crimes. Of concern was a significant increase in homicides and aggravated assaults coupled with the persistent issues of domestic violence and auto theft.

These concerns escalated in midsummer 2014 when a bullet went through an occupied conference room of one of the anchor institutions. This crisis prompted a meeting between Marquette University's new president, Dr. Michael Lovell, and Harley-Davidson's then-president and CEO, Keith Wandell, to discuss neighborhood safety. These leaders quickly concluded that engaging other long-standing anchors, as well as large area employers, was critical to addressing the neighborhood's challenges. The following fall, after a presidential inaugural address in which he committed himself to deeper, more meaningful neighborhood partnership, Dr. Lovell, along with Keith Wandell, convened 18 CEOs from the Near West Side. Out of that gathering a nonprofit organization emerged: the Near West Side Partners. A comprehensive approach to community issues was developed using strengths of the anchors; NWSP's "anchor mission" galvanized institutional economic power while partnering with the community to mutually benefit the long-term well-being of the entire neighborhood.

NWSP is funded through the support of five anchor institutions. The NWSP's mission is to revitalize and sustain Milwaukee's Near West Side as a thriving residential and business corridor through a collaborative effort to improve housing, promote economic development, unify neighborhood identity and branding, and provide greater safety for residents and businesses. In 2015, NWSP launched the Promoting Assets and Reducing Crime (PARC) initiative, an IRB-approved community-based participatory research project. The initiative is NWSP's model for facilitating change and capturing the input of neighborhood stakeholders.

Marquette University

Marquette University is a Catholic, Jesuit institution in the urban heart of Milwaukee. Throughout its 135-year history, Marquette University has remained steadfast in its mission "to develop men and women who will dedicate their lives to the service of others, actively entering into the struggle for a more just society" (Marquette University, n.d., "Service"). The university's mission is shaped by four foundational pillars—excellence, faith, leadership, and service—that guide Marquette University's decisions and activities. An ethos of service runs deep in the self-understanding of Marquette University's 11,400 undergraduate and graduate students and throughout the University's 12 separate colleges and schools. Students and graduates of bachelor's, master's, doctoral, and professional degree programs carry forth a commitment to building a better world that links alumni across generations.

Beyond its clear missional commitment, Marquette University has embedded civic engagement in its strategic plan, designating "social responsibility through community engagement" as one of six themes, and ensuring it is appropriately costewarded through oversight by the vice president of public affairs and the executive director of community engagement. Marquette University's mission and strategic plan, which are well publicized and familiar to students, faculty, staff, alumni, and friends, make clear that the university's purpose is inextricably tied to engagement within the Milwaukee community and the wider world.

Marquette University's commitment to engagement is cocurricular. It includes a strong commitment to applied research, teaching, and service. This commitment to maintaining academic rigor while simultaneously addressing pressing social realities is embodied in the Marquette University Center for Peacemaking—an academic research and program center housed within the College of Arts and Sciences. The Center for Peacemaking's programs and activities contribute to a combination of the three foci of peacemaking at the university: instruction, research, and community engagement. For the last 10 years, the Center for Peacemaking's primary research initiatives have included youth violence, economic development, international development, nonviolence, and community-based peacemaking. The Center for Peacemaking leads

the PARC project. The director of the Center is the principal investigator of the project.

Promoting Assets and Reducing Crime (PARC) Initiative

PARC is designed as a 4.5-year initiative of NWSP. Currently in its 4th year, PARC takes a two-pronged approach to neighborhood improvement by simultaneously promoting the area's assets and working to improve public safety. To accomplish these goals, PARC convenes researchers, university staff, community members, businesses, city departments, and nonprofit organizations to leverage resources; it also uses practices to facilitate systemic and sustainable community change. The anticipated outcomes of PARC as outlined in NWSP's strategic plan are summarized in Table 3.

The promoting assets component of PARC is a multifaceted campaign to change both perceptions and the environment of the Near West Side. This effort focuses on strengthening existing residential organizations, addressing the underlying dynamics that lead to violence, attracting high quality commercial businesses, improving the housing stock, and linking the seven neighborhoods.

The crime reduction aspect of the initiative focuses on using data-driven interventions to address problem places, incidences of crime, and sexual assault. At the core of the crime reduction strategy is the Community Prosecution Unit, a collaborative team of law enforcement, city and community resources, and social service agencies that focus on a confined geographic area and implement targeted interventions addressing the root cause of problems. Interventions are designed to be specific to each issue.

Choosing the PARC Strategy

Prior to the implementation of the initiative, NWS anchor representatives traveled to Indianapolis, Philadelphia, Chicago, Detroit, and Chapel Hill to learn about the successes and challenges of other anchor partnerships. These experiences, combined with in-depth research on community-based safety strategies, asset-based community organizing, and community prosecution, informed the PARC initiative. Table 4 provides a summary of the projects and models that were examined and the goals of each.

The urban revitalization models employed by Chicago, Indianapolis, Detroit, and other areas of Milwaukee informed PARC's commercial corridor revitalization and business recruitment strategies. The Cardiff Model for Violence Prevention informed the PARC team's use of data integration strategies. The Milwaukee Byrne Grant from the U.S. Department of Justice inspired the Near West Side team to pursue the community prosecution model for crime reduction. An important lesson from the Byrne Grant model was to pursue systemic solutions that include both addressing the immedi-

Table 3. PARC Goals	
1. Decrease overall crime, fear, and disorder;	7. Reconstruct Wisconsin Avenue to restore Milwaukee's main street to its former grandeur;
2. Develop pedestrian-focused amenities;	8. Increase owner-occupied housing and employee walk-to-work programs;
3. Address catalytic projects from the City of Milwaukee Near West Side Area 2004 plan and work on Near West Side 2.0 plan;	9. Increase workforce opportunities for Near West Side residents;
4. Establish grocery stores offering fresh produce and quality food;	10. Strengthen residential associations among Near West Side neighborhoods;
5. Establish new restaurants and improved retail corridors to promote small businesses;	11. Establish brand identity of the Near West Side so it reflects the brand of its key anchors and stakeholders;
6. Develop 35th Street as "iconic way"; 27th and Vliet Streets as thriving commercial corridors;	12. Secure recognition of NWSP's PARC initiative as a national model for community redevelopment.

Table 4. Anchor Partnership Projects and Models		
Location	**Model**	**Synopsis**
Indianapolis, Indiana	LISC Indianapolis Super Bowl Legacy Initiative	A holistic approach to neighborhood revitalization attracted $150 million in public and private investment in Indianapolis's Near East Side neighborhood. Efforts focused on renovating housing, attracting local businesses, diversifying retail, and strong resident communication.
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	University of Pennsylvania West Philadelphia Initiative	University-led town and gown model to revitalize West Philadelphia's retail districts, improve quality of life for residents, and improve the community's educational capacity. This model focuses on the role of anchor institutions in urban renewal at the neighborhood level.
Chicago, Illinois	MacArthur Foundation funding partnerships	McArthur Foundation and the Chicago Neighborhood Initiatives partnered to address issues of violence in Englewood by bringing in a Whole Foods to create jobs and spark affordable housing.
	Loyola University Lake Shore Community Partner	Loyola University Chicago's Lake Shore Community Partners is a university-led effort to improve quality of life for residents in the two communities surrounding Loyola through economic and social efforts. Key components include student-run businesses in the community and resident-submitted proposals for projects and initiatives.
Detroit, Michigan	Fitzgerald Neighborhood Project, Detroit Future City, Live6 Detroit, and Detroit Mercy's work around community engagement and social innovation	Ongoing learning effort for comprehensive community revitalization, housing stabilization, communication, and resident mobilization to enhance quality of life and economic opportunities.
Chapel Hill, North Carolina	Marian Cheek Jackson Center for Saving and Making History	A community-led model dedicated to strengthening and preserving the historically Black communities surrounding the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. This model combined documenting local history with community, nonprofit, faith-based, and university partnerships to pursue creative community-first development.
Cardiff, Wales	Cardiff Violence Prevention Model	Multisector approach to combining police and hospital data to map where violence occurs. This model encourages information sharing to create collaborative place-based approaches to violence prevention.
Milwaukee, Wisconsin	Menomonee Valley Partners	Public–private partnership that transformed Wisconsin's largest brownfield into an attractive business, recreation, and employment destination. Menomonee Valley Partners leveraged anchor partnerships, local, state, and federal support, and community engagement.

ate issue and creating a long-term solution so that problem locations become areas of productive use for the community. The Menomonee Valley Partners served as a model of public–private partnerships for urban renewal, environmental remediation, and economic development. Conscious of gentrification concerns, the team examined the Marian Cheek Jackson Center for Saving and Making History, which has focused on resident retention located in the Chapel Hill neighborhood near the University of North Carolina. Team members also examined case studies of resident engagement efforts from across the country to devise an engagement strategy that would be sensitive to the unequal power dynamics that can often arise in economically and racially diverse neighborhoods (Fung, 2004).

PARC took time to develop. The relatively lengthy time frame (about 14 months) turned out to be advantageous. PARC team members had time and space to learn from one another and from each of the anchor institutions. As a result, all were able to better understand each partner's priorities. The prep time spent visiting and researching other initiatives also strengthened collaboration, trust, and communication among individuals who had not previously worked together.

Components of the PARC Initiative

PARC is designed to support NWSP's mission to revitalize and sustain the Near West Side as a thriving business and residential corridor. It is a collaborative effort, with four focus areas: economic development, public safety, housing, and neighborhood identity. The initiative is implemented by a team divided into four groups: Asset Promotion, Crime Reduction, Community Organizing, and Data and Research (see Figure 1).

Each of these groups is led by two cochairs. One cochair for each group is selected based upon community representation. Three of the four community representation cochairs are Near West Side residents, and the fourth community representative is a PARC staff member focused on resident engagement. The remaining four cochairs are representatives from different anchor institutions. Crafting these constituencies was intentional, with the goal of ensuring a truly representative community and
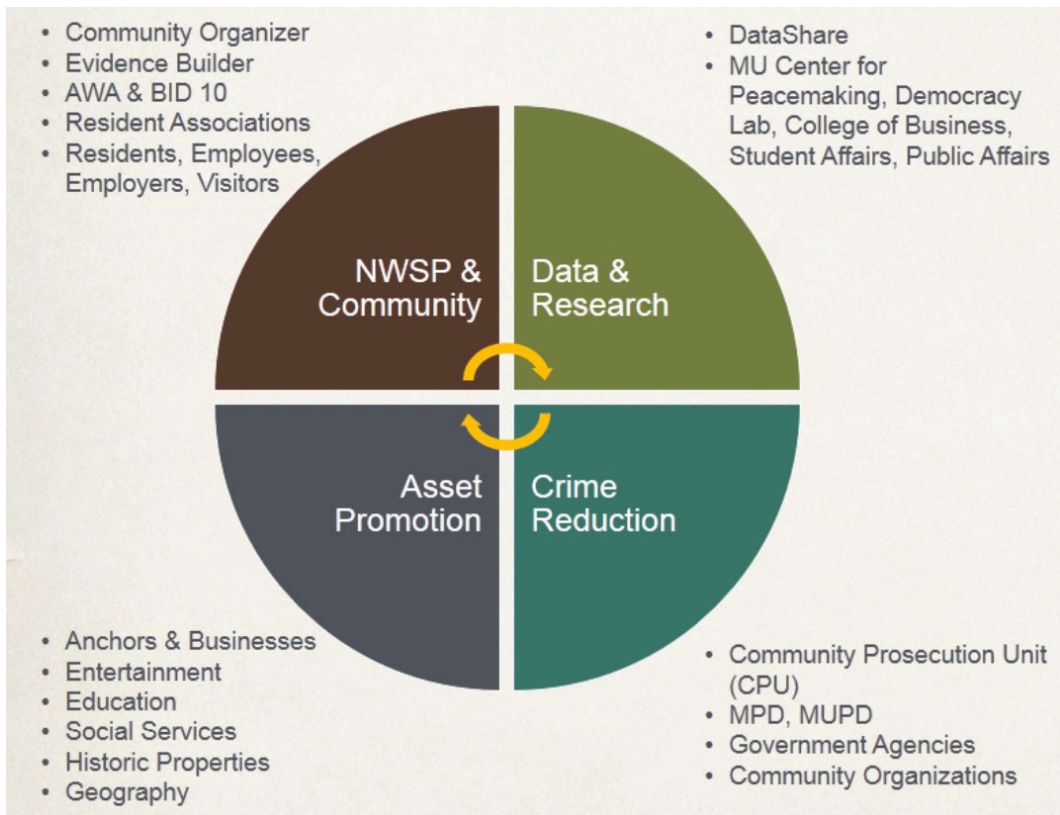

Figure 1. PARC Partners and Focus Areas

anchor partnership rather than being driven by the university or a single anchor partner. The members of the four groups—Asset Promotion, Crime Reduction, Community Organizing, and Data and Research—include employees of anchor institutions, area businesses, nonprofits, and local government, as well as residents.

The Asset Promotion group is led by a full-time community outreach specialist who is a Near West Side resident. The group also includes undergraduate and graduate students to assist in resident and employee engagement. PARC provides partial funding for a team that focuses on commercial corridor activation, community events, and housing initiatives. Together, the group leads neighborhood interventions that stimulate economic and housing development and, critically, help promote collective efficacy among residents (Bandura, 2000; Sampson, 2012; Sampson et al., 1997). Additionally, PARC employs a communication firm to ensure that residents, stakeholders, and the wider community are aware of and invited to participate in the transformation taking place in the Near West Side.

The Community Prosecution Unit is composed of a full-time assistant district attorney and full-time Community Prosecution Unit coordinator who both work daily with the Milwaukee Police Department, key government agencies, and community-based organizations to pursue strategies to reduce crime, prevent domestic violence, and improve the quality of life within the Near West Side. The Community Prosecution Unit is supplemented by Near West Side Ambassadors—two residents who are employed to patrol the Near West Side to report blight and crime, connect residents and businesses to safety information, and act as additional sets of eyes and ears in the seven neighborhoods.

Data and research are central to PARC. Data collection and evaluation of PARC initiatives is conducted by the data team, which is coled by a Marquette University faculty member who leads an academic research center and is a Near West Side resident. The other coleader of the data team is a faculty member who directs Marquette University Democracy Lab and whose primary connection to the community is as a Near West Side anchor employee. The members of the data team include researchers from DataShare and Marquette University Democracy Lab. DataShare, a research group housed at a local medical college, integrates and geocodes multiple data sources from across the community to inform the design of interventions and measure impact. PARC employs a part-time representative of DataShare to assist with crime reduction strategies. The Democracy Lab, directed by a political science professor, conducts annual surveys of residents, students, and employees. The Democracy Lab also provides recommendations for interventions related to neighborhood engagement and collective efficacy, and conducts impact evaluations of these efforts. Additionally, the PARC initiative employs undergraduate and graduate students to help with resident engagement activities and evaluation.

The entire PARC team meets weekly to identify problems, analyze data, and evaluate successes or failures. To ensure accountability, oversight, and effective management, the PARC team provides a monthly update to the board of NWSP and provides updates at the monthly meeting of all seven neighborhoods.

Marquette University's Involvement

PARC is housed within the Marquette University Center for Peacemaking and coled by representatives of the Office of Community Engagement, the Office of Public Affairs, and the Office of Research and Innovation. PARC provides an opportunity for community-based participatory research and a multitude of informal learning and service opportunities for students. Marquette University provides approximately 20% of the funding for PARC. The other 80% is provided by the other anchor institutions. Additionally, funding is secured through private donations, government grants, and foundation support. To date, over 1,200 students, 26 departments, and more than 50 faculty members from across campus have been involved in the partnership. Additional labor is provided by over 50 employees of Near West Side anchor institutions, businesses, and nonprofits. Furthermore, the partnership has been featured at several local and national conferences. Some highlights of students' participation in—and contributions to—PARC include

- Graduate and undergraduate students in the Economics Department compiling and evaluating commercial and residential real estate data, which have been used to attract

new businesses and market vacant homes.

- Peace studies students conducting public awareness campaigns to prevent domestic violence and sexual assault.

- Political science students conducting surveys of residents, employees, and their fellow students, and implementing impact studies of community engagement efforts.

- History students engaging in research on place-making and the history of the Near West Side.

- Criminology faculty and students studying eviction rates in the Near West Side.

- Business faculty and students organizing charrettes and business competitions to revitalize vacant storefronts and attract new businesses.

- Students from the Marquette University Student Government attending local landlord compacts to learn more about the concerns and efforts of local property owners/managers.

- Students across all disciplines contributing to neighborhood cleanups and participating in efforts to increase sexual violence awareness in the community.

- Several of the anchor institutions and local nonprofits creating internships for students.

Through such efforts, the PARC initiative provides students with practical opportunities to use their discipline-specific knowledge to address pressing social issues. The partnership has also created opportunities for productive discussions about how anchors, residents, students, and employees can contribute to building a stronger, healthier community. It is important to note that although the university plays a prominent role, each anchor institution and resident makes significant contributions to the initiative. The structure of PARC described above includes employee and resident representation and engagement at every level. This structure distributes both the labor and the power within the organization to ensure no single anchor is the primary driver. The

fact that nearly 25% of the individuals employed through PARC are residents and that the initiative hosts numerous resident volunteers helps ensure this is truly a community project.

PARC's Targeted Approach to Community Change

NWSP staff, the NWSP board, and PARC team members worked together to create the PARC model, drawing on components from other neighborhood improvement models as described above. PARC's process for change has four steps: (1) identifying goals; (2) gathering data and benchmarking conditions; (3) designing collaborative interventions; and (4) evaluating impact to inform future interventions (see PARC model, Figure 2).

Over the past 4 years, the initiative has used the PARC model to improve living conditions in the Near West Side by focusing on specific, place-based goals (Figure 2, center). PARC uses resident, student, and employee input to identify pressing neighborhood problems and opportunities. Surveys, focus groups, resident meetings, complaints, and frequent resident interactions inform the PARC initiative's priorities.

Once goals have been set, the PARC team takes a data-driven approach to better understand the issues at hand. PARC team members identify and talk to key stakeholders and residents, collect data and benchmark conditions, and (where appropriate) analyze legal and policy systems that pose barriers to change (Figure 2, upper right quadrant).

One of the unique components of PARC is collecting, synthesizing, and integrating data sets from a variety of sources to create a more holistic understanding of community conditions. DataShare, one of PARC's key partners, takes the lead role in analyzing data and creating data visualizations to help inform and evaluate interventions. DataShare draws upon a wide array of information to provide a holistic picture of community well-being, from crime statistics and real estate transactions to asset maps and community engagement indicators (see Table 5). In this way, DataShare acts as a "local data intermediary," helping to make "data that are often confidential and indecipherable to the public" accessible and useful to local stakeholders (Lawyue & Pettit, 2016, para. 4). Each year the PARC
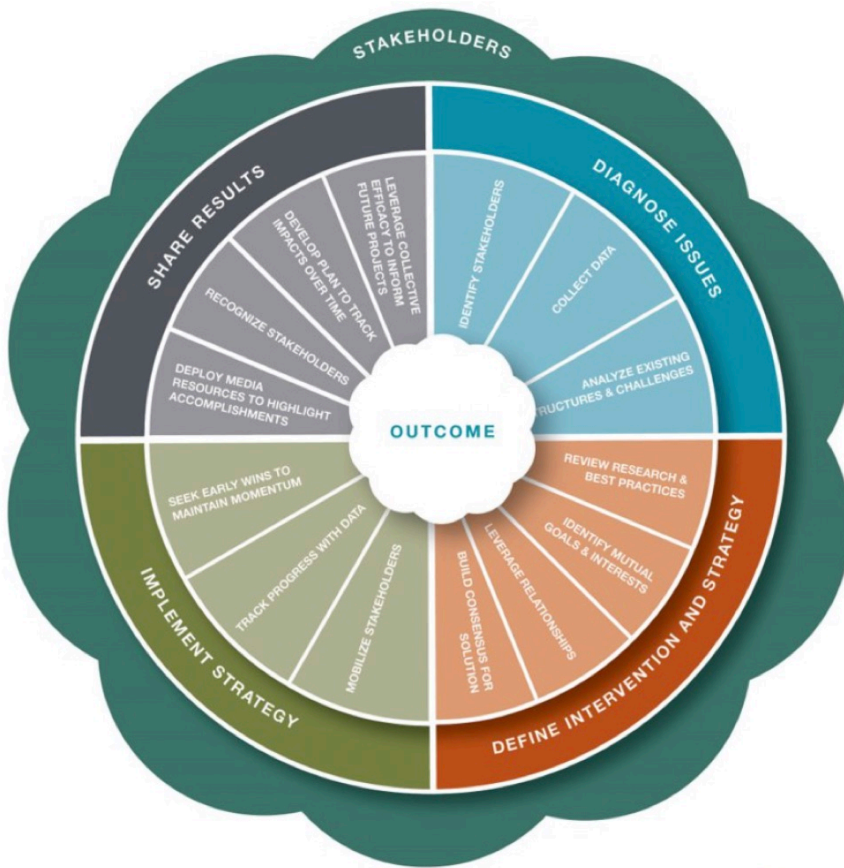
STAKEHOLDERS

SHARE RESULTS

DIAGNOSE ISSUES

LEVERAGE COLLECTIVE EFFICACY TO INFORM FUTURE PROJECTS

DEVELOP PLAN TO TRACK IMPACTS OVER TIME

RECOGNIZE STAKEHOLDERS

DEPLOY MEDIA RESOURCES TO HIGHLIGHT ACCOMPLISHMENTS

IDENTIFY STAKEHOLDERS

COLLECT DATA

ANALYZE EXISTING STRUCTURES & CHALLENGES

OUTCOME

REVIEW RESEARCH & BEST PRACTICES

SEEK EARLY WINS TO MAINTAIN MOMENTUM

IDENTIFY MUTUAL GOALS & INTERESTS

TRACK PROGRESS WITH DATA

LEVERAGE RELATIONSHIPS

MOBILIZE STAKEHOLDERS

BUILD CONSENSUS FOR SOLUTION

IMPLEMENT STRATEGY

DEFINE INTERVENTION AND STRATEGY

Figure 2. The PARC Model

team conducts a commercial corridor audit to provide a more detailed assessment of vacancies and integrates this data with additional property information from the city; they also regularly complete crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED) surveys to identify public safety improvements to the built environment (Crowe, 2000). Democracy Lab conducts community surveys each year to better understand neighborhood perceptions, community concerns, and the issues that matter most to residents, students, and employees. Finally, the PARC team maps community events and meetings to assess resident engagement efforts.

This information is then used to identify opportunities for action. Interventions are data-informed and goal-oriented, draw on best practices from other place-based models, and leverage existing assets and relationships in the community (Figure 2, lower right quadrant). Interventions are implemented by a PARC team who works collaboratively with residents and other key stakeholders.

PARC is a complex project seeking to accomplish the 12 goals outlined in Table 3. Data are collected to track progress and evaluate results, and the team often seeks early wins to help mobilize stakeholders, build collective efficacy, and maintain momentum (Figure 2, lower left quadrant). The evaluation of PARC interventions is conducted by a data team composed of faculty from criminology, business, political science, and sociology. The data team also includes representatives from DataShare, law enforcement, residents, and the principal investigator. The PARC data team utilizes quantitative and qualitative methods to answer specific research questions and evaluate the impact of PARC. Results are then shared broadly with stakeholders and help inform future projects (Figure 2, upper left quadrant). Media resources are also used to highlight accomplishments and recognize stakeholders.

Table 5. Data Elements Collected to Inform PARC Interventions	
Data source	**Type of data**
Health Department	• Immunizations • Blood lead levels • Communicable diseases • Births
Milwaukee Police Department	• Arrests • Incidents • Shotspotter
District attorney data	• Pretrial services • Milwaukee Circuit Court
Publicly available city data	• Property records • Building inspector requests and violations • Evictions • Foreclosures • Vacancies • Licenses • Real estate transactions • Census data (e.g., household income, homeownership rates, demographic profiles)
Near West Side Partners data	• Resident meetings • Number of businesses • PARC-developed intervention and public incident data

Interventions and Findings

Examples of Success for PARC

Before we describe the myriad interventions that have been implemented over the past 4 years, we first briefly discuss two examples that help illustrate how the PARC model has been used to achieve the initiative's goals. The first comes from an early win in the PARC initiative: the launching of a lighting and camera installation initiative. The second is drawn from an impact study of PARC's community engagement efforts. Both examples follow the model outlined in Figure 2.

Addressing Lighting to Improve Perceptions and Public Safety. Every year, residents and employees are surveyed about their perceptions of the neighborhood and what they think could improve the quality of life in the Near West Side. To ensure that the survey draws from a broad cross-section of the community, PARC students canvass every block in the Near West Side (see Figure 3). The need for improved lighting was one of the top aesthetic and safety concerns identified by residents and employees in the Near West Side. The PARC team used Harley-Davidson's light meters to measure the foot-candles (a unit commonly used to measure light levels) in various outdoor spaces. The light measurements confirmed the resident-identified need for improved lighting and that many spaces did not meet the Illuminating Engineering Society recommendations for the appropriate foot-candle levels to adequately illuminate neighborhood areas for safety.

PARC team members brought their expertise to the table to expand upon and fine-tune the idea. They researched possible solutions, spoke with architects and safety experts, and ultimately proposed a subsidized lighting program to respond to the community-identified need. Drawing on research documenting the crime reduction benefits of enhanced lighting (see, e.g., Chalfin et al., 2019) and best practices for crime prevention through environmental design, the finalized program articulated three goals: (1) highlight the diverse architectural styles throughout the Near West Side, (2) create a visible message that improvements were taking place in the community, and (3) illuminate areas to increase perceptions of safety.
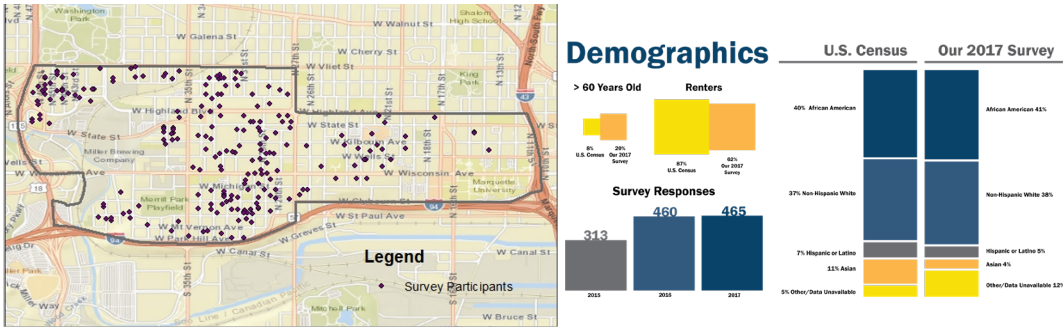
Figure 3. Resident Survey and U.S. Census Data

Next, PARC team members identified a target area for the lighting project and camera installation, using crime reports, input from residents, a nighttime lighting audit of the Near West Side to identify areas that fell short of illumination levels recommended by the Illuminating Engineering Society, and police calls for service. The targeted neighborhood, Concordia, has a diverse mix of homes and apartment complexes, both of which benefit from enhanced lighting; it is also part of the primary transportation route for employees at the anchor institutions. The program subsidized the purchase of porch and architectural lighting for owner-occupied homes. Enhanced lighting was purchased to illuminate building exteriors and parking lots at larger, multiunit apartment buildings to deter loitering and other unwanted behavior.

NWSP leveraged its relationship with area businesses to raise money to offset the cost of light and camera installation. A grant from the city and NWSP supported a cost-sharing program in which property owners paid approximately one quarter of the cost of light installation. A local nonprofit arranged for discounted camera installations in apartment buildings that had a disproportionate share of police calls for service. A local lighting supplier who was a vendor for an anchor institution agreed to provide the light fixtures at a discounted price.

Although the Concordia neighborhood seemed an ideal fit to pilot this program, an unexpected obstacle emerged because of its national historic designation, which required that the Historic Preservation Commission first approve any changes to the exterior of buildings in the neighborhood. In an attempt to ensure the historic designation was not a deterrent for participants, PARC staff conducted a survey of the neighborhood with staff members from the Historic Preservation Commission. After compiling a complete listing of light fixtures that matched the historic character and archetype of the neighborhood, PARC team members distributed a lighting guide to each residence in the neighborhood and solicited resident applications. By the end of the project, lights had been installed on 21 properties and cameras on 11. Community members who lived on blocks where lights were installed reported that the lighting increased perceptions of safety and improved the neighborhood aesthetic.

Impact Evaluation of Community Outreach Efforts. The Neighborhood of Neighborhoods (NeON) community meetings are a tool for residents to stay connected, learn about what is happening in the community, and voice concerns and ideas about neighborhood developments. These meetings are held monthly at the same place and time and draw an average of about 50 residents. The venue provides an opportunity for residents to inform and improve local decisions by communicating views that might go unheard otherwise (Fung, 2007).

Local civic engagement, however, has declined significantly over the last several decades (Sinclair-Chapman et al., 2009), reflecting a deep socioeconomic divide (Verba et al., 1995). Community meetings, for example, tend to engage an unrepresentative subset of residents, such as long-time residents, relatively advantaged homeowners, and those who already vote in local elections (see, e.g., Einstein et al., 2019). Consistent with this research, data on monthly attendance showed that the NeON meetings

tended to engage the same residents, that some neighborhoods were consistently underrepresented, and that lower income renters were noticeably absent.

Drawing on research suggesting that personal invitations can increase civic participation (Gerber et al., 2008; Hock et al., 2013), faculty and students from Democracy Lab designed a field experiment to test whether such outreach could increase and diversify participation at NeON meetings. In the first impact study, residents were randomly assigned to receive a postcard inviting them to the upcoming NeON meeting. Random assignment to treatment ensured that any observed difference in attendance between the two groups could be attributable to the outreach. Mailing postcards to a random sample of residents yielded an additional eight attendees, the majority of whom were renters, suggesting that the outreach helped diversify participation. Though this was a statistically significant difference between the treatment and control groups, it was a substantively small treatment effect (less than half a percentage point bump in participation), particularly given the cost of the intervention.

In a subsequent study, students randomly assigned residents to receive a text message in advance of the NeON meeting. As before, those who were randomly assigned to receive an invitation—in this case via text message—were more likely to attend the meeting than those who were not. What is more, the treatment effect was more than double the size of the first study (a 2 percentage point increase in attendance). In a third study, students randomly assigned residents with equal probability to one of three groups: (1) phone call invitation, (2) text message invitation, and (3) control group (no invitation). Outreach increased attendance at the NeON meeting, but there was no statistically significant difference between the response to a message delivered personally over the phone or impersonally via text message. Attendance was higher in the phone call (6.2 percentage point increase, $p < 0.05$) and text message (4.5 percentage point increase, $p = 0.12$) groups compared to the control group. The PARC team now regularly sends text messages to residents about important community events, including the NeON meeting, and has worked to expand its resident contact database.

As a follow-up to these outreach stud-

ies, PARC team members conducted focus groups with lower income renters on the Near West Side to identify other venues for residents to voice their concerns and ideas. In response to these discussions, several renters have worked with PARC team members to form a resident tenant council. Together, these community outreach efforts help ensure that PARC's work is responsive to community interests and concerns.

The Broader Suite of Interventions

The two examples discussed above (regarding lighting and NeON meeting attendance) are different in type and scale. But though the particulars of the intervention may vary, PARC uses a similar strategy to develop interventions and assess progress toward meeting the 12 goals outlined in NWSP's strategic plan (Table 3). In the paragraphs that follow, we briefly describe the suite of interventions that have been implemented to date.

Housing. Since the launch of PARC, owner occupancy has risen in the Near West Side by approximately 4%. The PARC team worked to achieve this goal through five primary interventions:

- *Good Neighbor Designation Program* recognizes properties that go above and beyond minimal state and local requirements to provide good quality, safe housing for tenants. Although 52 properties have been awarded the designation, 27 other properties were inspected and not granted the designation.

- *Near West Side home tours* invite employees of the Near West side's anchor institutions to come and see firsthand the available housing stock in the Near West Side and the neighborhoods' diverse set of assets. Additionally, NWSP and PARC have supported a decades-old resident-led tour of homes that allows visitors to view homes of existing residents and meet potential neighbors.

- *Housing resource fairs* showcase the city's immense and often underutilized housing resources; these are available to new and existing homeowners and renters. Some of the resources on display at the fair include information on loans and financial assistance, home repairs,

counseling, materials and tools, and energy and weatherization programs.

- NWSP helped host *Block Build* in 2017, where PARC partnered with an organization called Revitalize Milwaukee to repair homes in the Miller Valley neighborhood in the Near West Side. The comprehensive day of service saw hundreds of volunteers provide free home repairs to eight houses.

- *Live, Work, Play* is a housing incentive that provides down payment and rental grants to employees of Near West Side businesses who would like to live in the Near West Side. The homeowner incentive program provides funding to help prospective homeowners purchase homes they will occupy as their primary residence. Forgivable down payment incentives of $3,000 are available to assist eligible homebuyers with the purchase of homes in the seven Near West Side neighborhoods. Homebuyer participants will receive both financial and technical assistance as part of the program. For employees not yet ready to buy, the Live, Work, Play rental incentive provides employees of Near West Side businesses a $500 rental incentive when they sign a lease with any certified Good Neighbor landlord.

Safety. The Near West Side contains pockets of high crime density. The PARC team and the Community Prosecution Unit focused on these specific geographies as high priority areas. Comparing the 5 years before (2010–2014) and after (2015–2019) the launch of PARC, total offenses for crimes against persons and property have dropped more in the Near West Side (down 21.4%) compared to the city average for the same time period (down 10.9%). The PARC team employed several interventions that likely contributed to the crime decrease:

- *The closing of 27th Street tobacco shop* occurred in 2016. Residents, anchor institutions, local and governmental officials, law enforcement, trade associations, and tobacco shop business neighbors worked collaboratively to close the problematic tobacco shop that was a frequent

site of violence and police calls for service. NWSP worked closely with a bipartisan group of legislators to change state law so that tobacco licenses can now be denied to applicants who have a track record of not operating their business responsibly. After the demolition of the tobacco shop, the land was transformed into a temporary parking lot for a children's center next door. This children's center is planning to build out a new child care facility on the property.

- In pursuing *receivership of nuisance properties*, the PARC team worked with law enforcement to identify locations that were consistent sites of violence, crime, and disorder for several years. If the property owners were unwilling to change their management strategies to ensure safety on their property, the PARC team worked with the city to place the properties in receivership and ensure residents were offered housing within the neighborhood.

- The *Community Prosecution Unit* (CPU) addresses the environmental factors that can lead to crime. The team, an assistant district attorney, a Community Prosecution Unit coordinator, and the Near West Side Ambassadors engage residents, landlords, and businesses to implement crime reduction strategies. To date, the CPU has also performed over 100 crime prevention through environmental design (CPTED) surveys to ensure the physical environment is conducive to safety.

- The *Near West Side Waypoint* acts as the central location for the CPU team, as well as a meeting location for community members and police officers to strategize on community safety.

- *Security personnel* was an intervention identified by residents, employees, and students that would improve safety. In response, each anchor expanded the boundary patrolled by their security personnel to include more of the residential and commercial areas surrounding their campuses. This expansion improved safety, increased com-

munication, and helped build trust.

- *Near West Side Ambassador Program* consists of two full-time security professionals. These ambassadors spend their days patrolling the neighborhoods to provide a greater sense of safety and security for the Near West Side businesses and residents. These daily interactions provide insight into problem properties and ongoing nuisances to neighborhood vitality.

- *Blight reporting* occurs once a week. Litter was the top concern raised by residents in the first community survey in 2016. In response to these community concerns, PARC team members worked with residents to design a blight reporting program. PARC representatives canvass areas of the Near West Side and report incidents of blight to the city's Department of Neighborhood Services. These blight reports include incidents of graffiti, trash, potholes, and building code violations. To date, 570 reported incidents of blight have been resolved by the Department of Neighborhood Services.

- *Neighborhood cleanups* address the persistent litter problem in the Near West Side. The PARC team organizes neighborhood associations and groups of Marquette University students to complete neighborhood-wide cleanups.

Commercial Corridor. Since the launch of PARC, 37 new businesses have opened in the Near West Side. The PARC team has implemented several key interventions to activate commercial corridors:

- Two local *grocery stores* catering to the needs of Near West Side residents opened in what was previously a food desert (Economic Research Service, 2019) to increase access to fresh produce, eggs, and seafood. In 2017, NWSP revived a *farmers market* during the summer months in the Near West Side.

- *Rev-Up MKE*, a *Shark-Tank*-style competition, is held annually in the Near West Side and helps businesses open or relocate in the Near West Side. The competition, judged by lead business professionals in the area, offers a $10,000 grand prize to the winner as well as over $25,000 of in-kind services; one year of free computer power, storage space, and internet bandwidth; and free marketing and advertising from NWSP. The competition has resulted in over six locations opening or relocating in the Near West Side; many of the businesses have hired residents.

- A *design charrette* brought together residents, architects, developers, city officials, funders, and business owners to reimagine the Near West Side and brainstorm "big ideas" for the revitalization of the neighborhood. The ideas developed at the charrette were incorporated into the 27th Street redevelopment plan later enacted by the city.

- The *Mobile Design Box* transformed a vacant storefront in a commercial corridor to a space that builds community by showcasing the work of local artists and entrepreneurs in a series of pop-up galleries.

- *Good Business Standards* were created by the District Attorney's Office and NWSP to provide baseline business practices and standards for responsible business operators in the Near West Side.

Neighborhood Identity and Branding. Since surveying began in 2015, there has been a 19% increase in the share of residents reporting a positive perception of the Near West Side. There has also been an increase in the number of engagement efforts.

- Once a month NWSP hosts a *Neighborhood of Neighborhoods (NeON)* resident meeting. The meeting provides residents with updates on crime, community events, and redevelopment efforts throughout the Near West Side. It is also a venue for residents to express their concerns and ideas to NWSP, local officials, and other community stakeholders.

- NWSP hosts a number of *signature events* throughout the year, including neighborhood movie nights, cleanups, and holiday celebrations. These events help build a sense

of community and link the seven neighborhoods to one another.

- *Employee engagement sessions* forge relationships between employees of the Near West Side and their workplace community. These sessions provide information about the work being done in the community, as well as highlight the area's rich collection of assets that employees can utilize.

- Students recently formed *CAMPus Impact*, an organization that seeks to help change students' perceptions of the Near West Side by connecting students to volunteer opportunities in the community and encouraging them to support neighborhood businesses.

- The PARC team has given numerous presentations at community meetings and academic conferences. Partnering with a communications firm, NWSP actively works to increase *public awareness* of the Near West Side's assets and ongoing development efforts through high-profile media coverage.

Discussion

In this article we have detailed the work of a multianchor initiative in Milwaukee and identified several promising practices for university engagement in neighborhood revitalization efforts. To date, the PARC initiative has focused on four key areas: economic development, public safety, housing, and neighborhood identity and branding. At the outset, PARC researched other initiatives and projects, integrating best practices that fit the Near West Side's needs and the anchor institutions' capacities and missions. PARC's model guides each intervention and provides an accountability framework that is used to communicate results to the broader public and inform the initiative's ongoing work. With the initiative heading into its fourth year, the evidence to date suggests that PARC has been particularly effective in a short period of time.

Residents, anchor institutions, area businesses, nonprofits, and all levels of government—city, county, state, federal, and tribal—have demonstrated their commitment to PARC and played influential roles supporting the success of the Near West

Side. The partnership has been strengthened and will continue. Recently, each of the anchor institutions renewed their financial support of PARC for another 3 years. This investment is an affirmation of the successes to date and an invitation to do more. After reviewing data benchmarked against conditions from when the initiative began, the PARC team has outlined the following next steps:

- Continue efforts to improve housing conditions for all residents. One notable addition to the existing housing strategy is to more fully engage public housing residents and ensure public housing is preserved in the Near West Side. In order to accomplish this, the PARC team has secured a $1,300,0000 HUD Choice Neighborhood Planning grant to preserve 250 units of senior and disabled public housing.

- Continue implementing a safety strategy utilizing the community prosecution model detailed earlier. The group also is forming a homeless intervention team with the goal of finding permanent housing for residents experiencing a housing crisis. This multisector approach attempts to understand the challenges individuals face and connect them to resources to improve their safety, health, and well-being.

- Remain focused on commercial corridor efforts to attract a vibrant mix of amenities and retain the businesses that are in the Near West Side. The PARC team is expanding its façade grants program, pursuing traffic-calming measures to slow traffic, and transforming vacant lots on commercial corridors into productive uses such as parks, outdoor dining, and pop-up markets.

- Improve the health of the Near West Side through creation of a health working team. This team's charge will be to drive racial equity and inclusion while improving social determinants of health.

- Continue and strengthen program evaluation by adding faculty in criminology and health science to the data team and leveraging the longitudinal data that have been

collected since the launch of PARC to conduct a panel study of residents' perceptions of the Near West Side.

Each of these components can be replicated by other universities and partnerships, but four additional points are worth noting. First, having institutional leadership support at the highest level matters. The commitment expressed by the university president and respective anchor CEOs created momentum. For faculty, it also gave incentive and encouragement to engage in community-based research.

Second, the initiative has been successful because of the resources dedicated to these projects. Anchor institutions not only provided funding, but also committed individuals who have been involved in the day-to-day operations of the PARC initiative. Critically, all five anchor institutions provided similar levels of funding, and the funds were committed over multiple years. The decision not to have a primary funder helped ensure no single anchor institution had more power and influence over the initiative and each anchor was invested in the project's success. The stability of a multiyear secured budget has allowed the PARC team to focus on implementing interventions as part of a long-term strategic plan, rather than as short-term, disjointed projects.

Third, community collaboration and communication have been integral to PARC's successes. The PARC team takes advantage of formal venues for community input, including neighborhood meetings and employee engagement sessions. These ef-forts have increased resident and employee participation in several of PARC's projects. PARC team members have also studied these engagement efforts, looking for opportunities to deepen and diversify relationships with community stakeholders.

Finally, PARC did not start out with any predetermined plans for interventions. Instead, considerable time was spent listening to the concerns and suggestions of residents and employees. Community input and data were then used to design and implement interventions. Similarly, community and data have played critical roles in evaluation of the PARC initiative.

Conclusion

In 2015, stakeholders in Milwaukee made a major commitment to improve the Near West Side. The PARC initiative represents a concentrated effort by Marquette University and the partnering anchor institutions to revitalize and sustain the Near West Side as a thriving residential and business community. The involvement of more than 1,200 students, 26 departments, and 50 faculty members demonstrates the deep commitment to this initiative. NWSP and the PARC initiative were established as long-term projects to improve the quality of life for those who live and work in the community; however, even in the short term, initial results suggest that the initiative is on track to meet the goals outlined in the strategic plan. Importantly, we argue that the PARC initiative is a model of how to develop multianchor strategies that are responsive and accountable to the concerns and interests of residents.

Acknowledgments

About the Authors

Patrick Kennelly is the director of the Marquette University Center for Peacemaking, and the principal investigator of the Promoting Assets and Reducing Crime (PARC) initiative with the Near West Side Partners.

Amber Wichowsky is associate professor of political science and director of the Marquette Democracy Lab.

Luke Knapp is a recent graduate of the Marquette University Public Service master's program.

Erin Wissler Gerdes *is a recent graduate of the Marquette University Public Service master's program.*

Jacqueline Schram *is director of public affairs and special assistant for Native American affairs at Marquette University and coinvestigator for the PARC initiative.*

Jennifer Byrne *is a graduate student in Marquette University's Communications program and a researcher for the PARC initiative.*

Rana Altenburg *is the president of Near West Side Partners and vice president of public affairs at Marquette University.*

Daniel Bergen *is the founding and current executive director of the Office of Community Engagement at Marquette University.*

References

Adams, C. (2003). The meds and eds in urban economic development. *Journal of Urban Affairs, 25*(5), 571–588. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9906.2003.00003.x

Bandura, A. (2000). Exercise of human agency through collective efficacy. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 9*(3), 75–78. https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.00064

Butin, D. W. (2007). Focusing our aim: Strengthening faculty commitment to community engagement. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning, 39*(6), 34–39. https://doi.org/10.3200/CHNG.39.6.34-39

Cantor, N., Englot, P., & Higgins, M. (2013). Making the work of anchor institutions stick: Building coalitions and collective expertise. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 17*(3), 17–46. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1052

Chalfin, A., Hansen, B., Lerner, J., & Parker, L. (2019). *Reducing crime through environmental design: Evidence from a randomized experiment of street lighting in New York City* (Working Paper 25798). National Bureau of Economic Research.

Crowe, T. (2000). *Crime prevention through environmental design*. Butterworth-Heinemann.

Dubb, S., & Howard, T. (2012). *Leveraging anchor institutions for local job creation and wealth building* (Big Ideas for Job Creation). Institute for Research on Labor and Employment. https://community-wealth.org/sites/clone.community-wealth.org/files/downloads/paper-dubb-howard.pdf

Dubb, S., McKinley, S & Howard, T. (2013). *The anchor dashboard: Aligning institutional practice to meet low-income community needs.* The Democracy Collaborative. https://community-wealth.org/content/anchor-dashboard-aligning-institutional-practice-meet-low-income-community-needs

Economic Research Service. (2019). *Food environment atlas*. U.S. Department of Agriculture. https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/food-access-research-atlas/

Ehlenz, M. M. (2017). Gown, town, and neighborhood change: An examination of urban neighborhoods with university revitalization efforts. *Journal of Planning Education and Research. 9*(3), 285–299. https://doi.org/10.1177/0739456X17739111

Einstein, K. L., Palmer, M., & Glick, D. M. (2019). Who participates in local government? Evidence from meeting minutes. *Perspectives on Politics, 17*(1), 28–46. https://doi.org/10.1017/s153759271800213x

Fung, A. (2004). *Empowered participation: Reinventing urban democracy*. Princeton University Press.

Fung, A. (2007). Democratic theory and political science: A pragmatic method of constructive engagement. *American Political Science Review, 101*(3), 443–458. https://doi.org/10.1017/S000305540707030X

Gerber, A. S., Green, D. P., & Larimer, C. W. (2008). Social pressure and voter turnout: Evidence from a large-scale field experiment. *American Political Science Review, 102*(1), 33–48. https://doi.org/10.1017/S000305540808009X

Harris, J. T., III, & Pickron-Davis, M. (2013). From gates to engagement: A ten-year retrospective of Widener University's journey to reclaim its soul and fulfill its mission as a leading metropolitan university. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 17*(3), 47–68. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1053

Hock, S., Anderson, S., & Potoski, M. (2013). Invitation phone calls increase attendance at civic meetings: Evidence from a field experiment. *Public Administration Review, 73*(2), 221–228. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2012.02627.x

Kellogg Commission. (1999). *Returning to our roots: The engaged institution*. National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges.

Lawyue, M., & Pettit, K. L. S. (2016, June 2). Your city needs a local data intermediary. *Urban Wire: Neighborhoods, Cities, and Metros: The blog of the Urban Institute.* https://www.urban.org/urban-wire/your-city-needs-a-local-data-intermediary (Reprinted from "Your city needs a local data intermediary now," 2016, May 31, Next City, https://nextcity.org/daily/entry/national-neighborhood-indicators-partnership-local-data-intermediary)

Marquette University. (n.d.). *About Marquette*. https://www.marquette.edu/about/mission.php

McDowell, G. R. (2001). Engaged universities: Lessons from the land-grant universities and extension. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 585*, 31–50. https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716202238565

Rodin, J. (2007). *The university and urban revival*. University of Pennsylvania Press.

Sampson, R. J. (2012). *Great American city: Chicago and the enduring neighborhood effect*. University of Chicago Press.

Sampson, R. J., Raudenbush, S. W., & Earls, F. (1997). Neighborhoods and violent crime: A multilevel study of collective efficacy. *Science, 277*(5328), 918–924. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.277.5328.918

Sharkey, P. (2013). *Stuck in place: Urban neighborhoods and the end of progress toward racial equality.* University of Chicago Press.

Sinclair-Chapman, V., Walker, R. W., & Gillion, D. Q. (2009). Unpacking civic participation: Analyzing trends in Black [and White] participation over time. *Electoral Studies, 28*(4), 550–561. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.electstud.2009.05.026

Smith, D. (2008). The politics of studentification and "(un)balanced" urban populations: Lessons for gentrification and sustainable communities? *Urban Studies, 45*(12), 2541–2564. https://doi.org/10.1177/0042098008097108

Taylor, H. L., & Luter, G. (2013). *Anchor institutions: An interpretive review essay.* Anchor Institutions Task Force.

Verba, S., Schlozman, K. L., & Brady, H. E. (1995). *Voice and equality: Civic voluntarism in American politics*. Harvard University Press.

Wilson, W. J. (1987). *The truly disadvantaged: The inner city, the underclass, and public policy*. University of Chicago Press.

Sounds of a City: Listening with Podcasts and Public Humanities in Baltimore

P. Nicole King

Abstract

"Sounds of a City: Podcasts and Public Humanities in Baltimore" reflects on the Baltimore Traces: Communities in Transition project, a collaborative teaching endeavor that began in 2015 to document changing Baltimore neighborhoods through student-produced media. The essay provides a definition of public humanities and a discussion of organic methodological innovations that evolved through the process of creating a series of student-produced podcasts focused on listening to a city in a specific moment. Sharing authority and deeply listening to both students and the diverse voices of a city led to the "on the street" interview methodology. Organic methods blending journalism with scholarship, push engaged research into new transdisciplinary territory that centers voices from the street within the university classroom.

Keywords: public humanities, podcasts, methodology, engaged research and teaching, American studies

---

Share why 'cause some people will listen. A lot of people might not and just see violence, but a lot of people will listen if you say why.

—Nadja Bentley Hammond
([Baltimore Traces, 2015b, 42:07–42:16](#))

As I walk by ransacked businesses, members of the National Guard flash automatic weapons while police helicopters buzz above. I reluctantly board the shuttle to campus to teach my Baltimore Traces course. As we take the ramp toward the interstate, I can see dozens of National Guard vehicles gathered in the parking lot of the Ravens' football stadium as if preparing for war. It feels strange to be heading out of the city. But I have class and I feel a responsibility to my students. My phone buzzes. I look down and see a text from a student asking if he could miss class to go record interviews in the city for our podcast project.

The previous day, Monday, April 27, 2015, felt as if the city was going to explode.

Freddie Gray, a Black man killed by police, was buried that afternoon. Police in riot gear cornered city youth as they gathered at a transportation hub in West Baltimore after school when city officials shut down public transit. The nearby CVS Pharmacy at Pennsylvania and North Avenues burned as unrest spread throughout the city. Working from home in downtown Baltimore, I looked out my window at a city in turmoil. I heard people running, yelling, windows breaking, and sirens as the buzz of helicopters chopped through it all.

I text the student back: "Yes." He can miss class to go into the neighborhood where we were working that semester to conduct interviews and listen to the city.

That day, April 28, 2015, the student recorded the sentences acting as an epigraph for this article and the concluding lines of the podcast my students produced that semester on the Station North arts and entertainment district for local public radio. It turned out to be the first podcast in what became the *Baltimore Traces* podcast series, all of which were informed by that moment in 2015, when a student headed to the streets

instead of the classroom to ask questions and listen.

Introduction

The Baltimore Traces: Communities in Transition project is a collaborative teaching initiative that brings students from a variety of disciplines in the arts and humanities together to create media focused on Baltimore neighborhoods. It evolved from years of collaboration with professors in other departments such as Visual Arts; Media and Communication Studies; and Gender, Women's, + Sexuality Studies. All of the project's media, which in addition to podcasts include digital maps, films, and zines, are archived on the Baltimore Traces website (https://baltimoretraces.umbc.edu), and the project has Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval and informed consent forms that are available for use in all associated courses. The foundational question of the project is "How do neighborhoods change and how do people feel about those changes?"

This reflective essay focuses on the first few years of this public humanities project—spring 2015 through fall 2017—when students in my courses produced a dozen podcast episodes for public radio. The project evolved out of an exploratory partnership with the host and producers of *The Marc Steiner Show*, a daily program that aired on WEAA 88.9, the "voice of the community." The first two podcast series—*Station North Voices* (spring 2015) and *Bromo Speaks* (fall 2015)—focused on relatively new arts and entertainment districts in Baltimore. "Arts district" is a state designation providing tax incentives for artists and development within the district's boundaries (*Maryland State Arts Council, 2020*). For the *Downtown Voices* (spring 2016) podcast series, students talked to city dwellers on the west side of downtown, part of the Bromo Arts District, about their thoughts on the past, present, and future of Baltimore. And the final podcast series, *Learning from Lexington* (fall 2017), explored the impending redevelopment of the west side anchor and the oldest continually running public market in the United States, Baltimore's Lexington Market, which is located in the Bromo Arts District. We were interested in how neighborhoods change and reactions to potential gentrification in parts of the city that have been resistant to it.

In this reflective essay, I argue that organic and inductive methodological innovations, which evolve in the moment and are developed through listening, should be centered in publicly engaged humanities projects. Education researchers (Casey, 2008; Hashtroodi, 2013) have applied an organic food analogy to pedagogy. Public educator Leo Casey argues in his teaching blog that

> just like modern farming we have over-engineered our education system, we have over-relied on fostering narrow skills, we are obsessed with measurement, we continuously intervene in learning, we confine the site of learning to the classroom and we strive to make people homogeneous in their thinking. (Casey, 2008, para. 9)

In turn Casey argues for a new way, an "organic movement in learning and teaching" (Casey, 2008, para. 10). The Baltimore Traces project has evolved through embracing organic methods tuned through a process of engaged listening to a city in a specific moment.

When a group of university professors designed the Baltimore Traces project in fall 2014, no one knew the Baltimore Uprising was going to happen, but we were able to bend toward the moment and amplify voices not normally covered in the national media. Centering how these organic methodological innovations—most clearly illustrated through our "on the street" interviews—evolved during the first 2 years of the project adds a more humanistic perspective on engaged research and teaching, which is often analyzed from a social science perspective focused on quantitative rather than qualitative and narrative-based assessment. Publicly engaged projects must be designed with clear but flexible goals, which allows for the development of new tactics that arise in and with the moment. These tactics arise from listening, both to students and to the city.

For the instructor, giving agency to students and allowing them to be collaborators involves a radical act of listening and sometimes ceding the power and authority (and even the credit). We should model the methods we want our students to take from the classroom into the streets. There needs to be a shift in higher education, especially in engaged research and teach-

ing, to integrate the cacophony of voices in our cities in new ways. And this shift must foster an understanding that publicly engaged projects do not always involve one central long-term community partner, but sometimes a cacophony of voices. The ethical directive to do no harm is central and admittedly more complicated when projects evolve and move organically into new territory. The focus should shift from "solving problems" and measurable outcomes and move, instead, toward asking questions and listening. Active listening as a public humanities method can address disconnections, misrepresentation, and inequalities on the streets of our cities and in our classrooms.

There is a plethora of scholarship on listening in oral history practice (Norkunas, 2011; Pollock, 2007; Shopes, 2002; Thompson & Bornat, 2017) and acoustemology, "one's sonic way of knowing and being in the world," in anthropology (Feld & Brenneis, 2004, p. 462). As an interdisciplinary scholar in American studies, I am combining these practices and theories to rethink the impacts of engaged humanities projects when students listen in place and produce media. The emerging work on podcasts currently in the literature primarily focuses on how to incorporate podcasts in the learning process or individual assignments (Altvater, 2009; Jarvis & Dickie, 2010; Moss et al., 2010; Perez & Kite, 2011) rather than collaborative and student-produced podcast series for the public. Here I reflect on podcasts as a theoretical and methodological tool for expanding engagement with a place and a cacophony of voices (for an audio example of the "cacophony of voices," listen to the *Bromo Speaks intro*; Baltimore Traces, 2015a, 1:16–2:05).

Using Baltimore Traces as a case study, I first foreground listening as a method in the fieldwork and production of public humanities projects that engage the idea of the public good from a humanistic perspective. I then use the concept of "scholarly reportage" to examine how ethnography and oral history methods can be expanded and enhanced through collaboration with journalists and through emerging transdisciplinary fields of study, like sound studies. Building on this organic methodological framework, I then show how, once a course is designed with clear goals, students can shape and reshape the project's methodology through "on the street" listening. As we continue

to develop engaged projects in higher education, we should remain open, dynamic, flexible, and iterative in our methods but never compromise our ethics, which must center the agency of the voices we honor and the students we educate through the process.

Yet, as I tried to turn the podcasts into scholarly articles, like this one, I found that something was lost in translation—the trace, the sounds in time and place. My colleagues and I decided to call the project Baltimore Traces to evoke the layers of change and traces upon the landscape that you can see and feel in historic cities like Baltimore. But we also sought to conjure up the poststructural idea of the trace, the "mark of the absence of a presence, an always-already absent present" (Spivak & Derrida, 1998). For us, the term traces evokes remnants of the past that can mean different things to different people depending on their social location and the historical context. These projects are designed to present perspectives and questions for the public to grapple with rather than offer solutions or answers, which I argue differentiates public humanities projects from more traditional civic engagement projects focused on outcomes over process.

Traces of New Approaches: Listening as Theory and Method

Public humanities projects are transdisciplinary, combining methods and theories from history, literature, media, anthropology, and art to seek a better understanding of "what it means to be human," a phrase that offers the most simplistic definition of the humanities and evokes our inalienable rights as human beings. Learning to listen, in a critical and humanistic way, is the most central method in engaged public humanities teaching and research. As George Lipsitz wrote in "Listening to Learn and Learning to Listen: Popular Culture, Cultural Theory, and American Studies":

> In this period of creative ferment and critical fragmentation, virtuosity entails listening as well as speaking; it requires patient exploration into spaces and silences as much as it demands bold and forthright articulation. As a field, American Studies always has been at its best when engaged in dialogue with the complex and conflicted re-

alities of American life and culture. Yet too often its dominant paradigms have suffered from an overemphasis on what has been articulated from within the profession, and a consequent underemphasis on the voices, power struggles, and ideological conflicts outside it. The complicated relationship between scholarly methods and popular cultures, political economies, and ideologies of America demand a scholarship capable of adopting . . . and learning how to do careful and comprehensive listening. (Lipsitz, 1990, pp. 615–616)

Through the Baltimore Traces project, we learned to listen with the city and to build a sense of community with its people and places. Kathleen Woodward, director of the Simpson Center for the Humanities at the University of Washington, wrote, "In the humanities, communities of inquiry often come into being through the articulating of questions, which are often inchoate in the beginning and can never be definitively answered. Communities are formed around questions; they are communities of the question" (Woodward, 2009, p. 117). In Baltimore Traces, we were after the human aspects of change in all of its intricacy, which we sought in the voices of the people experiencing these changes most directly in the places where they occurred.

Public humanities projects are based on a narrative approach to culture, a belief that it is the stories we tell and interpret that make up our culture, our humanity, and our political economy (Mechling, 1989). In producing the Baltimore Traces podcasts, the focus was on the process of listening, analyzing, and editing, which turns stories into narratives (Abbott, 2008). Public humanities projects also entail a focus on the public good and the belief that we are in it (being human) together, though access to humanity in society is often not equitably provided to everyone. However, we strive toward and listen for traces of what humanity sounds like to better understand the public good.

Defining the public good is an ongoing project, and one documented in the *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement*. From decoding over 200 descriptions of the "public good" for themes such as community, society, and knowledge (Chambers & Gopaul, 2008) to an extensive and long-term institutional process of defining and integrating the public good at specific universities (Fretz et al., 2010; Harkavy & Hartley, 2012), these important conversations are never designed to come up with a single or monolithic definition of the "public good," because there is not one. However, we keep having these conversations with our students, within our institutions, and with each other because the conversation, the process itself, is productive. Ann P. DePrince, a researcher on gender-based violence, provided a framing for the public good that is applicable to Baltimore Traces. She wrote that the public good is based on a "responsibility to hold a light to people, issues, and places that for whatever reason were cloaked in shadows . . . a responsibility to tell and retell those stories" (DePrince, 2009, p. 71). With the Baltimore Traces project, we did not seek to "give voice," as the people we interviewed already have a voice; we used a microphone to amplify voices and stories from the streets through the airwaves of public radio and online.

The humanities are public when they include everyone and serve no single institution. As "traces" connotes, meaning is always shifting, changing, and moving through human context and experience; only remnants or recordings of the voices remain. The *Bromo Speaks* podcast series from fall 2015 begins, "It seems to me like a city is impossible to understand, it's too big" (Baltimore Traces, 2015a, 2:05–2:09). Yet, with Baltimore Traces, we are seeking to understand a city, something we will never fully understand, but the striving toward understanding is the goal. This striving, to understand a city or define the "public good," is a never-ending and beautifully incomplete project, because the city, like the humanities, remains a cacophony of voices.

Historian Jacquelyn D. Hall, the founding director of the Southern Oral History project, alluded to her collaborative oral history/performance studies project with communications professor Della Pollock as a "fantastic failure." She explained that the project was a "failure" only in the sense of the "impossibilities it revealed" and "fantastic" "precisely because of what the project dared and what limits daring will always reveal" (Hall, 2005, p. 196). Hall's work with her students centers deep listening across difference as essential to ethical work attuned to our collective humanity:

"Listening beyond and beneath words. Listening for layers of meaning, *for the cacophony of voices embedded in every story*" (Hall, 2005, pp. 191–192, emphasis added). Thinking critically about how to take the multitude of voices that make up a city and produce an engaging podcast for the public entails critically rethinking traditional oral history and ethnography methodologies. We recognized the differences in our Baltimore Traces interviews between oral history (focused on understanding the past), ethnography (in-depth life history or cultural analysis), and "on the street" interviews, which get at the pulse of what people on the ground are thinking in the moment. These categories provided different perspectives, but they also overlapped the more we listened beyond the words.

Jonathan Sterne, editor of *The Sound Studies Reader*, defines *sound studies* as the "interdisciplinary ferment in the human sciences that takes sound as its analytical point of departure or arrival . . . it redescribes what sound does in the human world, and what humans do in the sonic world" (Sterne, 2012, p. 2). There is a focus on positionality, reflexivity, and "transdisciplinary curiosity," and Sterne argues "the difference between sound studies and those other [more disciplinary] fields is that they don't require engagement with alternative epistemologies, methods, or approaches" (Sterne, 2012, p. 4). Through these collaborative Baltimore Traces projects, professors and students were becoming "sound students" as we developed our "sonic imaginations" and became "fascinated by sound but driven to fashion some new intellectual facility to make sense of some part of the sonic world" (Sterne, 2012, p. 5).

The sonic world itself is embedded in the tensions and inequalities of our cities. For students from a predominantly White institution of higher education working in a majority Black and hypersegregated city like Baltimore, issues of race, power, and social location cannot be elided. Cultural historians, such as Mark M. Smith, have written extensively on issues of race and sound (Smith, 2001, 2006, 2008). Jennifer Lynn Stoever's concept of the "sonic color line" astutely "describes the process of racialized sound—how and why certain bodies are expected to produce, desire, and live amongst particular sounds—and its product, the hierarchical division sounded between 'whiteness' and 'blackness'" (Stoever, 2016, p. 7). We developed diverse student teams when working in the field with a recognition that we all listen from somewhere. While we often see race as a visual marker in society, working with podcasts it becomes clear that the sonic color line pushes us to grapple with the multimodal and multisensory issues of race, place, and power. For example, in class listening sessions students sometimes misgendered or misidentified race when listening to interviews other students recorded in the field. These moments led to discussions on why we make such assumptions. By listening to each other in these moments, as closely as they had previously listened to the city, the students further developed their community of inquiry.

Our students occupy many positions, identities, and communities simultaneously. They belong to various demographic and cultural groups, in addition to being students (Creed, 2006; Joseph, 2006). When we recognize the multiplicity of identities we all inhabit, we are able to see and hear the world in new ways.

Listening to Scholarly Reporters

Andrew Ross has described methods in American studies as "scholarly reportage," a "blend of ethnography and investigative journalism" that meets people where they are (Williams, 2009, para. 10). Historian Mark Tebeau wrote in "Listening to the City: Oral History and Place in the Digital Era" that "oral historians working in media contexts, along with radio producers using voices to evoke emotional response to audio storytelling, have led the way in exploring the capacity of sound to evoke place, offering a model for public historians to emulate" (Tebeau, 2013, p. 28). Steiner, his producers, and the Center for Emerging Media were our most central partners throughout, but we also worked with other public radio journalists, such as Aaron Henkin (WYPR 88.1 Baltimore) and Andrea Seabrook (past National Public Radio congressional correspondent). The podcast process made deep listening in place essential to the work, from fieldwork through to editing and production.

The combination of reading scholars and working with actual public radio journalists pushed me and my students to rethink our methods of listening. We began to think more critically about the questions we asked, our assumptions, and our process.

In spring 2014 when we were working on our first podcast, our public radio partner Marc Steiner gave a talk on campus, "The Importance of Deep Listening," which drew on his decades of work in theater, activism, and public radio in Baltimore. He explained the centrality of listening in his approach:

> One of the things I was think-ing about with this project you're doing is you're out there inter-viewing people, talking to them, meeting them. And listening is very critical. . . . one of the things about being an actor is that you focus in on a moment. You're in a moment. You're in a place at that time, in a moment. And everything else around you is suspended. You know, you don't let anything come in your head. You're that character. You're somebody else. Well, when you're doing this kind of work you're doing, you also have to be like an actor, because you have to be in that moment and just focus on what that person is saying and what that story is around you . . . because that's listening. (Steiner, 2014, 18:13–19:08)

Steiner discussed the importance of re-search and clear methods in the planning and preparation process. Yet he advised students to follow the organic trajectory of the conversation:

> I ask a question. But then it's like improv jazz. You go with the flow. Someone talks to you and gives you an answer, you hit that key, you play with that key. Someone else has another key, you play with that key. But you always have the composition in the back of your head, so you know how to connect the keys to bring it to where you want it to go. But you let it be like improv. You just don't worry about all the questions you have on the paper. It will flow and it will all come out eventually. (Steiner, 2014, 22:10–22:39)

Improvisation is an apt metaphor for how listening as an essential organic method-ology integrates into community-engaged projects. You must really know the struc-tures and practice them to move beyond into new territory.

The two most central aspects of this pro-cess are simply to show up and listen. Aaron Henkin told students that in making the award-winning *Out of the Blocks* podcast—"one city block, one hour of radio, every-one's story"—he would show up for weeks before ever bringing along a microphone. Listening in place is part of building trust and relationships, which helps prevent purely extractive practices. We were striv-ing for honesty in the podcasts more than objectivity. "If you're going to tell some-body that you're going to listen to their story and you're going to let them tell their story, you better be honest about it," Steiner told the students. "Not use people for your own ends. Which we all have a tendency to do. We're human beings" (Steiner, 2014, 24:19–24:30).

After rigorous readings on Baltimore histo-ry, reflection on methodology, and the clear formulation of our project goals, I take stu-dents into the city for walking tours, which makes boundary spanning a physical and social intervention (Romero, 2014; Weerts & Sandmann, 2010). Boundary spanning is often discussed in the context of the change that comes from being in a new place when we take students outside the classroom. There is less focus on the practices and the ethics that help students engage once they have crossed those boundaries. As Romero's work on boundary spanning gets students on the bus, I ask them to get off the bus and hit the street and talk to strangers, which pushes the boundary further (Romero, 2014). One of the ways historically hy-persegregated cities remain divided is in-grained conceptions (often misconceptions) about place—this place is or is not for me; I do or do not belong here (Cresswell, 1996; McKittrick & Woods, 2007). Engagement with scholarly reportage allows for induc-tive and emergent approaches to emerge.

We learned that a podcast is made not simply from the human voice, but from the human voice recorded in place. As the proj-ect developed and we became better sound students, we learned that collecting "room tone," the nuanced and distinct sound of the room or space where the interview is con-ducted, is essential for the editing process. The editing/production process pushed us to hear on a new level and to realize that in addition to interviews, we needed to docu-ment the ambient sounds of the city—the dings of the light rail train as it passes, the caws of birds overhead, the blend of music

and voices in a crowded public market on a Saturday afternoon. Voice exists in place.

As students became embedded in place, they also became attached to the voices they recorded for the project. However, as Andrea Seabrook told the students in a class talk titled "On Podcasting and Listening," doing so was half of a two-part process: "You must fall in love with your subject but, when it's time to edit, you have to break up and fall in love with your listener" (A. Seabrook, personal communication, February 25, 2016). This advice made us consider our audience and the economy of listening. The traditional trajectory of scholarly interview analysis is to transcribe, code for themes, analyze, synthesize, and write up your findings. Seabrook, however, explained that for a podcast we should base our selections not only on *what* was said but on *how* things were said as well. The humanity, the emotional resonance, is found in the intonations, the slight rise in pitch, the crack in the voice, the slowing of the pace, the breath, and even the pause or the uncomfortable silence. These are human sounds that can be used but not created in the editing process.

The "On the Street" Methodology

On April 28, 2015, when a student missed class to go interview people in the city, it shifted the conclusion of the *Station North Voices* podcast and our methodology moving forward. The "vox pop"—asking people on the street their thoughts to locate the "voice of the people"—has a long history in radio (Loviglio, 2005). For our "on the street" practice, students approached strangers, explained our project, received informed consent, and completed an interview on the spot in a public place. Over time, we came to see that these interviews yielded different types of sounds and perspectives. The more formal "oral history" interviews were often with officials, such as arts directors, developers, and managers of city markets or arts districts, and often had a more flat or public relations feel. The emotional heart of the podcasts often came from the "on the street" interviews.

For the "on the street" interviews we developed a clear script using language from our IRB-approved consent forms. We consulted with a Baltimore Traces professor who works at the university's media studio, which has legally vetted language for film interviews. The process evolved in part from working with journalists and media producers and was driven by the goal of finding the perspectives and sounds we lacked. For example, the "on the street" interviews often included voices of the city's homeless residents or people who preferred not to remain anonymous, an additional option we later added to our consent forms. Almost every concluding line in the podcasts comes from an "on the street" interview.

The conclusion of the *Station North Voices* podcast in 2015 moved from a focus on how an arts district can change a city to how larger structures of inequality connect to redevelopment, including issues of policing. The theme of policing was not engineered into the course; it emerged organically from the city at the moment. The students pulled this theme from the interviews we had conducted, including ones recorded before the death of Freddie Gray. When asked questions about arts districts and change, people often talked about policing, which made us think about how gentrification, crime, and policing are connected. In the concluding segment of the podcast, one of our interview participants explained: "I don't know. Something seems it's changed within the police force in the last year and a half." The student interviewer asked, "How so?" He replied, "I don't know. You have more policemen walking the beat and harassing people" (Baltimore Traces, 2015b, 29:49–30:13).

Because we were willing to learn from our reporting, a podcast series about the Station North arts district had to make room for stories of police harassing employees at local businesses and an especially chilling story from a resident of Greenmount West, a majority Black neighborhood in the arts district, describing attempts to help a neighbor who was shot. When her family called 911 for help, the police arrived and began to harass the family who called the police in the first place (Baltimore Traces, 2015b, 30:52–32:04). The earlier speaker concludes,

> I would like, not only Station North, but I would like to see the police make an effort to interact with the community. I mean, instead of just telling us what to do and randomly beating the shit out of people, I think you could try and connect, find out what people's concerns are, what their gripes are, if you will,

work with it. ([Baltimore Traces, 2015b, 32:09–32:34](#))

Next, the audio shifts to a restaurateur who managed a business located in the neighborhood in 1968 during unrest in Baltimore following the assassination of Martin Luther King Jr. The White restaurant manager described working with the police to make sure his predominantly African American staff members got home safely ([Baltimore Traces, 2015b, 33:03–34:39](#)). Then, in a voiceover, a student says,

> Now, nearly 50 years later, Baltimore finds itself again at the beginning of a new uprising. On the first night of the riots, people saw looting of buildings and cars set ablaze. They saw a city divided. The following morning, I saw a community come together. ([Baltimore Traces, 2015b, 34:41–34:59](#))

The student saw it because he was there. He was on the street instead of in the classroom, and it was the right place to be.

Next, the listener hears a cacophony of voices recorded on April 28, 2015 ([Baltimore Traces, 2015b, 35:00–35:03](#)). We meet Kate Khatib of Red Emma's Bookstore Coffeehouse (a cooperative bookstore and café) and Nadja Bentley-Hammond of the YES Drop-in Center for homeless youth. Khatib explains that the drop-in center's space in Station North was "hit pretty hard" the previous evening, so she opened up Red Emma's, not only to provide food and a safe space for youth who couldn't access the drop-in center but for the community "to gather and reflect and regroup" ([Baltimore Traces, 2015b, 35:03–39:09](#)). The students wanted to present media that showed the other side of the cable news images of fires and looting and the stereotyping of city youth as "thugs," a word used at the time by both Baltimore's mayor, Stephanie Rawlins-Blake, and the president of the United States, Barack Obama.

The conclusion of the podcast episode is a plea to listen more to the people on the streets, not talking heads broadcasting from afar. Rather than seeking to address problems or offer solutions, the Baltimore Traces students chose to listen to and amplify voices that challenge simplistic stereotypes of city residents. Our motto could have been "Share why 'cause some people

will listen. A lot of people might not and just see violence, but a lot of people will listen if you say why" ([Baltimore Traces, 2015b, 42:07–42:16](#)).

As the project evolved, the "on the street" method produced emotional connections, evoked tensions, and challenged preconceived notions for students and—we hoped—for listeners. Students' own ambivalence rather than a misguided commitment to "speak for," "help," or "solve problems" is expressed to Marc Steiner in the in-studio dialogue that followed the airing of the *Bromo Speaks* podcast in fall 2015. Steiner asked, "So what did you walk away with that you didn't expect?" A student responded, "I think I was left feeling ambivalent" ([Steiner, 2015, 13:36–13:49](#)). Asked to explain, the student continued:

> Feeling a renewed sense of hope but rivaling with this sense of cynicism at the same time. Seeing that people are really engaged, and they . . . aren't stupid. They know what's going on. They see it very vividly and clearly. And there are these pockets of dissent or these pockets of yearnings for collaboration, meaningful solidarity amongst different demographics. But there does seem to be this ingrained sense of disability to actually cross those lines in a focused and effective way. And it seemed to me, it was interesting that people who had maybe the social or financial privilege to be passé about changes. Kind of, I think I started this class with this very idealistic envision of what the arts do for culture, for society, what they bring to all of us, and then the reality of sometimes how the arts are used to package economic developments. ([Steiner, 2015, 13:52–15:17](#))

Another student added her thoughts, which are framed very much in the context of sound:

> I would definitely say I have this uneasiness about the project, because you come into the Bromo Arts District and there's a language there on the streets that you hear that you had, their sounds, their sights. There's this beautiful historic part of this city and it's changing. And

there's a tension there that it's hard to miss, and I don't want the beat and the sound of that area to be completely taken away or missed by future generations. (Steiner, 2015, 15:18–15:51)

These are deeply nuanced responses derived from listening in place. Often, the goal or the payoff of the podcasts was to challenge preconceived notions and honor the "beat and the sound" of the place. Through listening, students began to feel ambivalent or uneasy about things they thought they knew, and that is a productive outcome.

The purest example of the "on the street" methodology is the 10-minute podcast segment "Word on the Street," which was framed as "a little sidewalk talk from the west side of downtown, what people love about downtown and what needs to change for it to serve its citizens better" (Steiner, 2016, para. 2). This was the second episode in the four-part podcast series *Downtown Voices* from spring 2016.

The student narrator asks: "Is the west side of downtown safe? If so, for whom and who keeps it safe?" (Singlenberg, 2016, 4:18–4:22). Using a collagelike editing technique, the students juxtaposed contradictory perspectives and voices:

"The police actually—the police look out for us. Actually, they come up and say, 'Hey, Man, hey, are you okay?' Because this is kind of a rougher part of town."

"One thing I hate about Baltimore, [*beep*] police, I mean, I don't hate the police, I hate the way they treat us. That's not right. That's not right at all. The way they treat us, that's not right at all. And that got to change" (Singlenberg, 2016, 5:51–6:02).

Then the students cut to an interaction they recorded on a city sidewalk:

> Speaker 1: Take for instance down at the Harbor [Inner Harbor tourist area downtown], it's a lot more laid back. But then again you got to deal with the security officers. And if you're homeless, they don't really dig on that, down there, 'cause they got all the tourists coming in there. So, I'd rather hang out, like, in the more, I'd say, like, "ghetto places," because I'm more accepted than places where the security guards,

they're going to come up to you, sit there for a second. They're coming up going, "Yo."

> Student 1: No, I hear ya.

> Student 2: [*Voiceover*] Literally as he said it, the cops broke us up.

> Speaker 1: All right. Gotcha. Gotcha, Boss.

> Speaker 2: We're taking off.

> Police officer: Thanks, y'all, I appreciate it.

> Speaker 2: All right.

> Student 2: All righty, folks. Thank you guys so much for talking.

> Student 1: Yeah, thanks, guys.

> [*Crosstalk*]

> Speaker 1: That was the policeman, by the way. (Singlenberg, 2016, 7:28–8:13)

We had a discussion in class about adding the 10-word voiceover. The student team who did the recording thought the interaction spoke for itself because they were there. The rest of the class felt they needed more context to get the point, the payoff.

This section of the "Word on the Street" podcast concludes with a student voiceover:

> Standing there on Howard Street, we were shouted at to disperse. A group of citizens standing on a public street, no drugs, just conversation. It's impossible to talk about the west side of downtown as if it was an island. Like its future is somehow disconnected from the rest of the city's. If you're from Baltimore, you want the best for it and despite its faults, the west side is home. Everyone included. There's a love here. A love that echoed across everyone's thoughts about the future for Baltimore. As a new administration begins in City Hall, what does the future hold for the west side of downtown? What do we need and how do we get it? (Singlenberg, 2016, 8:15–9:04)

We discovered that policing was the word on the street in neighborhoods dealing with the long history of inequitable development and potential gentrification. Following these podcasting projects, policing has become part of my research and teaching on gentrification (Laniyonu, 2017). Now, especially in light of the role of police associated with gentrification efforts in the death of Breonna Taylor specifically (Beck, 2020) and the growing emphasis on the Black Lives Matter movement in general, thinking through structural inequities seems even more relevant for publicly engaged humanities projects.

Futures: "What do we need and how do we get it?"

With Baltimore Traces, we were studying and documenting change and people's reactions to it. But what we were really trying to get at was what the public needs, what they, or really what *we*, deserve. Through those early years of the Baltimore Traces project, we were trying to decode the public good by listening to the sounds of the city: "Share why 'cause some people will listen." For the people of Baltimore City, and humanity in general, we have to ask why, and then we have to actually listen to the responses, even if those responses, those sounds, push us into new territory we never anticipated— even if they produce more questions rather than definitive answers. Organic and inductive methodological innovations in publicly engaged research and teaching evolve in the moment and are most productive when we center listening.

When producing podcasts for public radio or any public humanities project, there is a real responsibility to be honest, to be respectful, and to represent the nuances of divergent perspectives. Acknowledging that we are all part of the cacophony of voices, despite the ways privilege and access to resources often divide us, is the theoretical underpinning of the "on the street" methodology. The moment that begins this article illustrates the spark for a methodological innovation that evolved from giving students agency in a moment of crisis and ends with a student's question.

In Baltimore Traces, we were listening to the sounds of the city in a period of momentous change and instability. These moments—uprisings, global pandemics, political upheavals—cannot be planned, but engaged courses must be designed in a way that offers an organic methodology open to embracing them. The 2015 Baltimore Uprising was such a moment for Baltimore Traces, one that loomed over our project in a difficult yet productive way. Baltimore, like many other postindustrial legacy cities, continues to struggle with complex issues, ranging from gentrification to police violence, that skew its image and dehumanize its residents.

Through listening, my students and I began to better understand not only how people on the street distrust the police, but how this distrust is reflected in their distrust of scholars in higher education who desire, often with good intentions, to come to the streets of a city to "solve" problems, "give voice," or "help." My own ambivalence about the ethical complexity of the work is what made it so difficult to turn the podcasts into this reflective essay. There is always so much that is left out, unheard, unrecognized—beyond words.

As we tried to answer our central guiding question—"How do neighborhoods change and how do people feel about those changes?"—another question rather than a definitive answer arose. "What do we need and how do we get it?" With the latter question, we can attempt to think through our collective needs, both as a city and as human beings. Higher education, especially when committed to public engagement, must learn to value the cacophony of voices in new ways. What would institutions of higher education look like if we listened, really listened, to the word on the street and embedded those sounds, those voices and human strivings, more deeply in our institutions?

"Share why 'cause some people will listen." "What do we need and how do we get it?"

Through the process of listening and reflection, we see that our collective needs and what we all deserve as human beings is what comprises the public good. We all have stories, and we all deserve to be listened to and respected. We did not define the public good through the Baltimore Traces project, but we do have a better understanding of what it sounds like and how to listen for it.

The project is ongoing.

About the Author

P. Nicole King is an associate professor and chair in the Department of American Studies at the University of Maryland Baltimore County (UMBC).

References

Abbott, H. P. (2008). *The Cambridge introduction to narrative*. Cambridge University Press.

Altvater, F. (2009). Words on the Wadsworth: Podcasting and the teaching of art history. *Journal of Effective Teaching, 9*(3), 77–88.

Baltimore Traces. (2015a). *Bromo speaks*. https://baltimoretraces.umbc.edu/bromo-speaks/

Baltimore Traces. (2015b). *Station North voices*. https://baltimoretraces.umbc.edu/station-north-voices/

Baltimore Traces. (2016). *Downtown voices.* https://baltimoretraces.umbc.edu/downtown-voices/

Beck. B. (2020, August 4). The role of police in gentrification. *The Appeal.* https://theappeal.org/the-role-of-police-igentrification-breonna-taylor/

Casey, L. (2008). An organic approach to teaching and how digital media make it possible. *Leo's Learning Blog*. http://leocasey.blogspot.com/2008/09/organic-teaching-and-how-digital-media.html

Chambers, T., & Gopaul, B. (2008). Decoding the public good of higher education. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 12*(4), 59–91. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/485

Creed, G. W. (2006). T*he seductions of community emancipations, oppressions, quandaries.* School of American Research Press.

Cresswell, T. (1996). I*n place/out of place: Geography, ideology, and transgression*. University of Minnesota Press.

DePrince, A. P. (2009). Public good and the nexus of social justice, feminism, and rock 'n' roll. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 13*(1), 69–83. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/477

Feld, S., & Brenneis, D. (2004). Doing anthropology in sound. *American Ethnologist, 31*(4), 461–474. https://doi.org/10.1525/ae.2004.31.4.461

Fretz, E., Cutforth, N., Nicotera, N., & Thompson, S. (2010). A case study of institutional visioning, public good, and the renewal of democracy: The theory and practice of public good work at the University of Denver. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 13*(1), 87–109. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/478

Hall, J. D. (2005). Afterword: Reverberations. In D. Pollock (Ed.), *Remembering: Oral history performance* (pp. 186–198). Palgrave Macmillan.

Harkavy, I., & Hartley, M. (2012). Integrating a commitment to the public good into the institutional fabric: Further lessons from the field. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 16*(4), 17–36. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/980

Hashtroodi, P. (2013) Organic language teachers in organic settings: From ecology to methodology. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 3*(7), 1270–1274.

Jarvis, C., & Dickie, J. (2010). Podcasts in support of experiential field learning. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education, 34*(2), 173–186. https://doi.org/10.1080/03098260903093653

Joseph, M. (2006). *Against the romance of community.* University of Minnesota Press.

Laniyonu, A. (2017). Coffee shops and police stops: Policing practices in gentrifying neighborhoods. *Urban Affairs Review, 54*(5), 898–930. https://doi.org/10.1177/1078087416689728

Lipsitz, G. (1990). Listening to learn and learning to listen: Popular culture, cultural theory, and American studies. *American Quarterly, 42*(4), 615–636. https://doi.org/10.2307/2713167

Loviglio, J. (2005). *Radio's intimate public: Network broadcasting and mass-mediated democracy*. University of Minnesota Press.

Maryland State Arts Council. (2020). *Arts & entertainment districts.* https://www.msac.org/programs/arts-entertainment-districts

McKittrick, K., & Woods, C. (2007). *Black geographies and the politics of place*. South End Press.

Mechling, J. (1989). An American culture grid, with texts. *American Studies International, 27*(1), 2–12. https://www.jstor.org/stable/41280211

Moss, N. D., O'Connor, E. L., & White, K. M. (2010). Psychosocial predictors of the use of enhanced podcasting in student learning. *Computers in Human Behavior, 26*(3), 302–309. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2009.10.012

Norkunas, M. (2011). Teaching to listen: Listening exercises and self-reflexive journals. *The Oral History Review, 38*(1), 63–108.

Perez, K., & Kite, S. (2011). It's not the end of the world, but you can see it from here: The importance of local history in a rural setting. *The History Teacher, 44*(2), 261–272. https://www.jstor.org/stable/25799421

Pollock, D. (Ed.). (2007). *Remembering: Oral history performance*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Romero, D. (2014). Riding the bus: Symbol and vehicle for boundary spanning. *Journal of Higher Education Outreach and Engagement, 18*(3), 1–14. https://openjournals.libs.uga.edu/jheoe/article/view/1135

Shopes, L. (2002, February). Making sense of oral history. *History matters: The U.S. survey course on the web*. http://historymatters.gmu.edu/mse/oral/

Singlenberg, S. (Narrator). (2016, May 17). Word on the street (Downtown voices, Episode 2) [Audio podcast episode]. *The Marc Steiner show*. https://www.steinershow.org/podcasts/local-and-state-politics/downtown-voices-episode-2-word-on-the-street/

Smith, M. (2001). *Listening to nineteenth-century America*. University of North Carolina Press.

Smith, M. (2006). *How race is made: Slavery, segregation, and the senses*. University of North Carolina Press.

Smith, M. (2008). *Sensing the past: Seeing, hearing, smelling, tasting, and touching in history*. University of California Press.

Spivak, G. C., & Derrida, J. (1998). *Of grammatology*. The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Steiner, M. (2014). The importance of deep listening. *UMBCtube*. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=94VbjJ9QuRw

Steiner, M. (Host). (2015, December 11). *Bromo speaks panel* [Audio podcast episode segment]. The Marc Steiner show. https://youtu.be/8hZZJ0-ejZc

Steiner, M. (2016, May 17). Downtown voices: Episode 2. Word on the street [Webpage description]. *The Marc Steiner show*. https://www.steinershow.org/podcasts/local-and-state-politics/downtown-voices-episode-2-word-on-the-street/

Sterne, J. (Ed.). (2012). *The sound studies reader.* Routledge.

Stoever, J. (2016). *The sonic color line*. New York University Press.

Tebeau, M. (2013). Listening to the city: Oral history and place in the digital era. *Oral History Review, 40*(1), 25–35.

Thompson, P. R., & Bornat, J. (2017). *The voice of the past: Oral history* (4th ed.). Oxford University Press.

Weerts, D. J., & Sandmann, L. R. (2010). Community engagement and boundary-spanning roles at research universities. *The Journal of Higher Education, 81*(6), 632–657. https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.2010.11779075

Williams, J. J. (2009, August 31). Andrew Ross's second act: The cultural-studies theorist has become a scholarly reporter of work and labor. *Chronicle of Higher Education.* https://www.chronicle.com/article/Andrew-Rosss-Second-Act/48181

Woodward, K. (2009). The future of the humanities—in the present & in public. *Daedalus, 138*(1), 110–123. https://doi.org/10.1162/daed.2009.138.1.110

Kezar, A., Drivalas, Y., & Kitchen, J. A. (Eds.). (2018). *Envisioning public scholarship for our time: Models for higher education researchers.* Stylus Publishing. 256 pp.

Review by David E. Procter

———————————

Adrianna Kezar, Yianna Drivalas, and Joseph A. Kitchen's *Envisioning Public Scholarship for Our Time: Models for Higher Education Researchers* is an important and timely volume for all higher education administrators, faculty, and staff, but especially those working as community-engaged scholars. This text makes a cogent and powerful argument for understanding and promoting public scholarship and seems to be taken from the very news of the day. The authors cast their theoretical and methodological orientation within today's audiences and salient issues. They make a compelling argument for community-engaged scholars who wish their research to be mutually beneficial to the audiences studied and for their scholarship to make a difference around the issues and contexts they study. This edited volume is informative, highly readable, and, at times, quite provocative.

Kezar, Drivalas, and Kitchen's book is divided into three sections. Part 1 defines and describes public scholarship. Part 2 provides a variety of examples of what public scholarship can look like in higher education, and Part 3 offers paths to institutionalize public scholarship in the academy. Throughout the book are roadmaps indicating how to conduct public scholarship and recognitions of the challenges of doing this work.

In the first section of the book, the editors lay the foundation for their perspective by defining public scholarship as scholarship that supports an equitable, diverse democracy through social justice. When I have thought of public scholarship prior to reading this text, I thought of public scholarship as a public product of one's research. I envisioned public scholarship as the way research is presented, as a publicly accessible and public-facing scholarly product. Public scholarship, to my thinking, was a fact sheet, a policy document, an infographic, or a white paper written for a public, rather than strictly an academic, audience. When Kezar, Drivalas, and Kitchen describe public scholarship, they speak of a research orientation that should guide faculty work. As they write, "for the editors of this volume, public scholarship is connected and closely related to the words *diverse democracy*, *equity*, and *social justice*" (emphasis in original; p. 4). I scanned their introductory chapter looking closely for a nice, clear, succinct definition of public scholarship that incorporated the ideas of diverse democracy, equity, and social justice. I never found it. But after reading their edited volume, which features rich exemplars of faculty writing about how their scholarship promotes a diverse democracy and advocates for equity and social justice, I came to see that the editors envision the process of conducting and publishing public scholarship as service to a diverse democracy and social justice, which are interconnected and necessary to build an equitable society. The authors argue that the entire scholarly enterprise—from conception of the research project, through data collection and analysis, to finally presenting the results of one's research—should support an equitable, diverse democracy and promote social justice. Public scholarship ultimately is an "action" that promotes diverse democracy, equity, and social justice; it is the entire process that results in a product or outcome, rather than merely the outcome itself.

The editors make an interesting distinction between engaged scholarship and public scholarship. After reviewing tenets of engaged scholarship, they conclude that they find that work too narrow. The engaged scholarship movement, they argue, offers particular approaches to research rather than inviting scholars into a broad set of activities that can have a greater impact on policy and practice. The editors argue that

it is a scholar's responsibility to bring their research to the public; it is not their choice but an obligation driven by the mores of equity, social justice, and diverse democracy.

In Chapter 2, Kezar discusses her own journey as a public scholar. She highlights how, over time, her research interests and different points in her career helped her evolve as a public scholar. She acknowledges that serendipity and opportunities presented themselves to her and played important roles in her scholarly evolution. In this chapter she also discusses the importance of listening to the publics one works with, writing for public audiences, and forming partnerships. She then provides examples of the many different ways she has worked as a public scholar.

Kezar acknowledges that working as a public scholar is not without its struggles. She enumerates several challenges, including writing for a general audience, navigating the power and politics of the contexts in which one works, and dealing with the current state of reward structures in the academy. Kezar notes that many working as public scholars believe promotion and tenure policies remain the largest barrier to performing this work. She observes, however, that she never felt constrained in her role as a public scholar because of promotion and tenure concerns. She believes senior faculty often exaggerate the role of promotion and tenure as a barrier paralyzing younger scholars who wish to do this work. At the end of Chapter 2 Kezar argues that she wants to use this volume to make the case for public scholarship agency while also acknowledging the risk for some scholars.

The introductory section of the text concludes with a chapter by Sam and Gupton on cultivating ethical mindfulness. According to the authors, ethical mindfulness is a reflective process that attunes the researcher to the potential ethical decisions that may arise during the public scholarship process. These authors note that the choices we make as public scholars have important consequences. They begin by making a distinction between procedural ethics and ethics in practice. Procedural ethics are formalized external codes of ethics that often involve IRB approvals. Procedural ethics provide a minimum threshold to determine ethical behavior. Ethics in practice, by contrast, focuses on day-to-day decision making for everyday ethical decisions; it is guided by personal ethical paradigms and principles. Working as a public scholar means there are numerous ethical decision points throughout the research process, and ethical mindfulness provides an epistemological paradigm to guide one's practice of public scholarship. Sam and Gupton identify key elements of ethical mindfulness and then use the remainder of the chapter to flesh out those key ethical components, offering their own research experiences as exemplars of how ethical mindfulness guided their work.

Part 2 highlights public scholarship case studies by scholars at different points in their careers, working at different types of institutions, studying a variety of social and political contexts and audiences, using a variety of research methods and modes of presentation.

Consistent with the text's orientation, Kezar, Drivalas, and Kitchen assembled a number of case studies that focus on issues of equity, diverse democracy, and social justice. The case studies presented in this text are extremely relevant and timely to our academic, social, and political lives. They illustrate how public scholars are making differences in public policy, political movements, higher education, and social issues. For example, several chapters speak to the impact public scholarship can have with vulnerable populations. In Chapter 4, Hurtado writes about her work in legal arenas. She offers the example of her work documenting the argument for diversity in the academy. In Chapter 5, Davis et al. demonstrate how public scholarship can contribute to vulnerable populations resisting various forms of state violence. Specifically, these authors illustrate how their research critically informed and shifted the discourse about the Movement for Black Lives. In Chapter 6, Bensimon highlights her work to create awareness of racial inequality in higher education and to build educators' capacity to adopt racial equity as a norm in classrooms, departments, curricula, hiring practices, evaluations, and accountability systems. In Chapter 8, Dache-Gerbino writes from a position of faculty activism about the importance of creating knowledge in the service of liberation and public good. She argues that public scholarship must come from organizing and planning alongside and on behalf of the working class, the homeless, the targets of the police state, the marginalized, and the forgotten.

Three additional case studies highlight research with a range of audiences and public scholarship products. Nehls et al. offer a case study that highlights an institution's commitment to providing an infrastructure and incentives for faculty to create knowledge for the public policy arena. For these authors, the target audience is legislators and the products are policy white papers. In Chapter 11, Drivalas and Kezar write about arts-based research, arguing that the arts have the ability to provide data, audiences, and a mode of communicating public scholarship research results. Chapter 9 is particularly relevant, as it is a general discussion of the Cooperative Extension System and its long-standing commitment to public scholarship. I liked this chapter, as it provided a history of Extension and its record of engaging a wide variety of adult learners. One common critique of Extension has been that it tends to be organized to disseminate prepackaged information to audiences, rather than working with them to understand challenges and collaborate on solutions. Mull et al., in this chapter, provide examples from the University of Georgia where community partners helped form research questions, collect data, and disseminate research results. The authors conclude their chapter arguing that Extension exemplifies public scholarship and community engagement by offering higher education a model for building partnerships and collaboratively creating knowledge bases around salient local issues.

The final case study chapter, by Hoh, explores using social media as public scholarship. I appreciated this chapter, as it was written consistent with the orientation of the text. That is, Hoh argues that using social media helps dismantle structures that limit public scholarship, democratizes knowledge, and supports underrepresented scholars. She points out how social media can be used at all points in the research process: identifying research opportunities, collecting data, and disseminating research results. Hoh also discusses how social media can help build community, cultivate academic identity, and provide information outlets for minority faculty. I found this chapter very illuminating, providing useful information about social media itself as well as strategies for using social media in the service of public scholarship.

In Section 3 of the text, the editors included contributed chapters that describe ways to institutionalize and integrate public scholarship into higher education. Three of the concluding chapters talk about graduate student education and socialization. Lanford and Tierney, in Chapter 12, argue that graduate-level training needs to be reenvisioned specifically to stress publicly accessible research reporting. They urge that graduate students be taught not only writing for academic, peer-reviewed journals, but also for other outlets—magazine articles, newspaper opinion pieces, policy papers. In Chapter 13, Clark-Taylor et al. discuss graduate student training and socialization through participation in community-engaged scholarship. The authors argue that community-engaged faculty should model and mentor research and classroom teaching opportunities for graduate students that illustrate relationship-building strategies among stakeholders, other faculty, and students. In their view, these educational experiences help cultivate graduate student identities as public scholars. In Chapter 15, McBain urges new and established public scholars to consider working with higher education nonprofits and professional associations. She focuses much of her chapter on emerging scholars and graduate students, whom she encourages to think beyond the traditional, tenure-track academic path. She advocates that emerging scholars get public scholarship experience while in graduate school, seek interdisciplinary experiences, and expand their writing capacities for addressing audiences beyond those of peer-reviewed journals.

The volume concludes with Lester and Horton's chapter on how faculty might pursue and sustain public scholarship across the stages of their academic career and Kezar, Corwin, et al.'s final chapter of reflections on lessons learned from their work and from the scholarship presented in the text. Both chapters serve as roadmaps for public scholars and discuss the importance for public scholars to identify, understand, and engage with audiences and stakeholders. Lester and Horton note that attending to these tasks is especially important for faculty early in their careers, as it will help scholars set their research agendas and establish the groundwork for potential practical and policy impacts. Kezar, Corwin, et al. argue that public scholars should also capitalize on their strengths. This may mean building research agendas with audiences or organizations with which one is familiar or has a connection. It may mean

capitalizing on strengths of communication, whether that be social media, infographics, policy writing, or more traditional academic writing. It could mean drawing and building on research methodologies with which one is familiar.

I strongly urge faculty and graduate students interested in community-engaged scholarship to explore this text. I have reported on the high points of this edited volume. There is, however, much more for readers to dig into. Each chapter offers both emerging and established public scholars' insights, directions, and cautions for conducting this work.

As Kezar, Corwin, et al. conclude,

> For researchers who want to engage in public scholarship, this book offers advice on how to identify stakeholders, different modes for engaging stakeholders, varying methodologies, ways to collaborate with colleagues, approaches to tangible and intangible research products, and ways to learn the skills of public scholarship. (p. 232)

I invite you to engage this public scholarship text.

About the Reviewer

David E. Procter is a professor in the Department of Communication Studies at Kansas State University.

Yunkaporta, T. (2019). *Sand talk: How Indigenous thinking can save the world*. Text Publishing Company. 285 pp.

Review by Tony Syme and Tobias Gebhardt

What happens when you look at the world from an Indigenous perspective? Tyson Yunkaporta provides a sophisticated and thought-provoking answer that puts Indigenous Knowledge into the spotlight for scholars and nonacademic thinkers alike. In *Sand Talk* Yunkaporta explicates *How Indigenous Thinking Can Save The World*. He shares insights gained from his "yarns" with Indigenous wisdom holders, insights that are simultaneously entertaining and deeply thought-provoking. Yunkaporta describes *yarning* as the traditional form used to transmit knowledge and explains it as a structured cultural activity grounded in "story, humour, gesture and mimicry for consensus-building, meaning making and innovation. . . . It has protocols of active listening, mutual respect and building on what others have said" (p. 131). In this way knowledge emerges, rather than being acquired.

We yarn about the book's impact, its insights into the Indigenous realm, and its possible application for research. Early in the book Yunkaporta explains his concept of *us-two* as a dual-first-person pronoun that stems from an Aboriginal language. We see this as two versions of self: One is a cultural and relational being of place, and the other is a product of the system that inflicts its ideology onto people, creating two beings: *us-two*, with an unexplored space in between. Tyson uses the us-two concept "to provoke thought rather than represent fact, in a kind of dialogical and reflexive process with the reader" (p. 22). We engage with this thought experiment, treating this review as emerging from the in-between space of the yarning process and our relational positions of our own us-two version: that of European Australians who do research in the Indigenous Knowledge space while wrestling with being steeped in Western knowledge traditions. We look at what exists and is created in(-between) our yarns about the book, and this review is compiled from excerpts of this yarning process.

Tony: I would like to start our conversation by acknowledging Bundjalung Country (an area in the north of the state of New South Wales in Australia), where our yarns take place. The Indigenous relationship to Country is paramount in Yunkaporta's *Sand Talk*, and I actually feel challenged by him to reassess my relationship to place and to find my own ancestral roots that were embedded in the land—to relearn how to be a custodial being of Country myself.

Tobias: Thanks, Tony. The Indigenous relationship to Country is indeed very special. Country itself is seen as a sentient being with agency, an active partner who shares knowledge (which is why we capitalize Country: to show that it is an equal knowledge holder and research partner). It means taking into account relationship with all of creation. Tyson Yunkaporta helps us understand these complex patterns of creation that keep the world in balance. The predominant and controlling patterns of the Western world have disrupted this balance for a long time, and it feels like we are getting closer to a turning point, which is why so many people are now interested in *How Indigenous Thinking Can Save the World*.

Tony: Yunkaporta "walks the talk" by demonstrating a different view of this "patterned" complexity. He elucidates how Indigenous thinking expresses the complex patterns of the world through many different mediums, such as song, dance, stories, paintings, or carvings. These mediums connect the dreaming-mind, the story-mind, the kinship-mind, and the ancestral-mind, which he describes in some detail in the book. He also describes

how strong Indigenous voices need to do more than recount Indigenous experiences. They also need to examine and challenge the narratives of the occupying culture with counternarratives.

Tobias: This different thinking comes through in the book. Yunkaporta has a unique way of captivating the reader that is grounded in Indigenous Knowledge passed on from his yarning sessions. This knowledge is portrayed through the symbols depicted in the book, which makes *Sand Talk* such a rich resource for academic and nonacademic readers alike, as the knowledge within exercises its own agency. The book can provide different insights for each individual reader.

Tony: There are so many messages that the Elders wanted Yunkaporta to convey to the world, and even though he states that he is not a high-level knowledge keeper himself, he does have the right skill set to translate their patterns of thinking to the reader. At the same time, *Sand Talk* also speaks for itself and different knowledge will emerge from it for different people.

Tobias: I like how you say he does not see himself as a high knowledge keeper. It shows his humility, something that stands out for me among Indigenous scholars and knowledge holders in general. Such humility is missing in Western systems. Tyson refers to this lack of humility in the book through one of the *Sand Talk* symbols from a major contributing Elder, "Oldman Juma." The symbol depicts the "I am greater than you; you are less than me" equation that, as Tyson writes, is "the most destructive idea in existence" (p. 30).

Tony: Thanks for bringing up Oldman Juma, because he introduced Tyson to the symbols that hold so much knowledge. These symbols, drawn in the sand, led to the term *Sand Talk.* Tyson passes the knowledge that viewing the symbols will change us on a molecular level and that his words are simply the delivery systems for these symbols. We are invited to feel the knowledge in these symbols through a gut–brain rather than our head–brain relationship. Through the "gut," symbols impart huge amounts of knowledge with very few words. In this way the book actually accompanies the symbols, not the other way around.

Tobias: The book invites us to trust our intuitions, to engage with a deeper truth that stems from the process of creation, not from so-called verifiable data. Knowledge will show itself when you are ready. I love how the book does this: Open it anywhere and it will reveal another layer of knowledge. I just randomly opened the book, to the place where Yunkaporta speaks of the "shadow spirit" that he relates to how Westerners used to engage in certain ceremony themselves (pp. 107–108). Today it seems we are out of touch with such practices. This is true of Indigenous peoples as well, to an extent, due to the legacy of colonialism. Another reason why this book has such an impact: It can reconnect us with our own spirit worlds.

Tony: Yes. The book reminds us that we were all indigenous to "place" at some time, and this last 200 years of human industrial civilization is but a blink in time. Our very DNA is deeply rooted in Indigenous ways of knowing, being, and doing that we reawaken by changing our perspective. My own research explores this connection to place: our connection to Country that is not about taking knowledge content away as data, but as witnessing what Country is actually teaching us—as you said earlier, Country is a research partner, and we need to learn how to listen and connect with it again.

Tobias: We could use a bit of "cultural humility," Tyson writes, to understand that the Western way is not the only way of understanding the world—realizing that each of us is a mere "single node in a cooperative network" (p. 98) of a complex system. Yunkaporta relates this to the possibility of being an agent of sustainability who accepts differences, embraces them, and interacts with different systems. I relate this to an invitation to reconnect to each other, to work together, as well as to reconnect to Country and the spiritual world. That's what I like about *Sand Talk*: It invites us all to communicate and collaborate.

Tony: Also realizing that it is about learning to be human and recognizing that our civilization, education, and resultant worldview actively work against being human. Many Indigenous people across the globe understand this dilemma and despite the suffering they have endured under the dominant ruling bodies, they are still willing to offer a way back to our humanity. Yunkaporta maintains that our only chance to survive into the future is by relearning our relationship with being in the world through the knowledge held by the few remnant

Indigenous knowledge holders. This knowledge lives on through the sharing of stories.

Tobias: Yeah, in my own work I investigate how it can be achieved through the power of yarning and its inherent method of sharing stories. This implies active and deep listening to Indigenous wisdom holders, and *Sand Talk* is the perfect example. The story-mind, as Tyson explains, "is a way of thinking that encourages dialogue about history from different perspectives, as well as the raw learning power of narrative itself" (p. 130). He later writes that there is great opportunity for dialogue between non-Indigenous and Indigenous peoples, yet so far our skewed power relations have made it a predominantly one-way conversation. It is time for a different dialogue, a different story, where all voices are heard equally.

Tony: So true. Through such dialogue we could learn how to be a custodial species again, like we knew how to be in our own ancestral lands not that long ago.

Tobias: I know what you mean. If there is one fundamental message in the book, it is the one Tyson points out that everyone asks of life: Why are we here? His answer: "It's easy. . . . We look after things on the earth and in the sky and the places in between" (p. 109).

Tony: And, for humans to survive into the future, our fundamental relationship with the earth and sky must move from being extractive to being custodial. This capacity for adaption is presented as the only choice: "*if you don't move with the land, the land will move you*" (p. 3).

We hope our yarn about the book has provided some insight into how knowledge emerges through dialogue, and that it has encouraged readers to engage with *Sand Talk* and discover for themselves what kind of knowledge it will reveal. Yunkaporta presents the terms *respect*, *connect*, *reflect*, and *direct* as a form of progression to engage with living systems, which sum up what his yarns with Indigenous wisdom holders revealed for him. Through yarning about the book, it was the story-mind and the invitation for cross-cultural collaboration that grabbed Tobias; for Tony, it was the ancestral-mind and his pursuit of reconnecting to Country. *Sand Talk* holds something for everyone, and if you approach it with an open mind and heart, you may find some guidance from *How Indigenous Thinking Can Save The World*, whether for research or for your own life.

About the Reviewers

Tony Syme is a doctoral student in the Gnibi College of Indigenous Australian Peoples at Southern Cross University, Lismore, Australia.

Tobias Gebhardt is a doctoral student in the Gnibi College for Indigenous Australian Peoples at Southern Cross University, Lismore, Australia.